A LABORATORY COURSE IN SECOND-YEAR TYPEWRITING FOR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

A THESIS

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MASTER OF SCIENCE

By

WILLIAM T. COLE

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Approved for the Major Department

Edwin L. Dawson

Approved for the Graduate Council

David M. Ward

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CHAPTER I

NATURE OF THE STUDY

Commercial education in the high school has become decidedly popular during the past two decades. Seldom do we find a high school which does not offer one or more commercial subjects. The interest in these courses has increased until it is a difficult task in many schools to provide the equipment and facilities necessary to meet the demands. So rapid has been this growth of interest in commercial studies, the curriculum makers have failed to keep up. The textbooks available for most of the courses are not designed to meet the needs of the large group of pupils who take commercial studies for general training only. This has probably always been true; in 1928, in an article on commercial education, Frederick J. Weersing said,[1]

> The curriculum, however, is very meager, usually being suitable only for stenographers and office clerks, while practically nothing is offered for the large, general group of pupils who take commercial studies for general training only.

These pupils have no intention of preparing for office jobs; in fact, a very low percentage of all commercial graduates from high school ever find their way into an office.

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[1] Frederick J. Weersing, University of Iowa Monographs, in Education, 1928, p. 44.

Nichols writes concerning this group,[2]

> Only a part--how large is not known--of the commercial students now enrolled in high schools really should be regarded as 'commercial pupils' in any true vocational sense. Many are pursuing commercial courses as general education; others are enrolled in the commercial department because no other department will have them; still others are desirous of preparing for a business career but cannot do the work required of commercial pupils. Thus it comes about that almost every commercial class includes pupils who are not interested in the vocational aspect of the work and others who are; pupils who can do the required work and others who cannot; pupils who have well-defined vocational aims and others who have not. The result of this is that commercial education, at present administered, is efficient from no viewpoint.

What then should a pupil who enrolls for second-year typewriting be taught which will be of value to him whether or not he goes into an office? He may go on to college; he may become a filling station attendant; in fact, there is an almost endless number of different situations in which the graduate may find himself. Regardless of occupation or profession, it is the duty of the school to equip students with such skills and information as they can put into practical use after graduation.

It is the aim of this study to outline a course in second-year typewriting which will meet this need. The average textbook for second-year typewriting is only an extenuation of first-year work: drill practice, legal forms, many letters to copy, etc. It is common practice for teachers

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[2] F. G. Nichols, Commercial Education in the High School, (D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1933) p. 21.

to spend an entire year doing these routine tasks. The result is inevitably a loss of interest. The aim must be much broader. L. N. Neulen says this concerning the aim of typewriting,[3]

> School men may soon realize that the aim of typewriting instruction is not that of producing expert typists but rather that of developing practical users of a skill which makes for greater efficiency in written expression.

The use of a typing text for a source of drill material is necessary, but this should only supplement the main part of the course. If all typing were to be mere copy work, then typing skill would be the sole objective. This is not the case however. In the event that a pupil does go into office service, he will probably do some transcription. This will involve all the mechanics of English besides the skill needed to type the letter. Should he not do office work, he will write letters, themes, and other types of material which will involve many factors other than manipulation of the machine. For example, does the pupil know how to divide words? If this was taught at all, it was taught at a time when he was not particularly interested. When he is confronted with the task of transcribing a letter there will be genuine motivation for learning how to divide words. The same is largely true for punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing, the use of figures, and the many other factors which enter into letter writing. Teaching will be done as pupils feel the need for

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[3] L. N. Neulen, "Broadening the Field of Typewriting Instruction," Federation Notes (National Commercial Teachers Federation Journal), Vol. III, No. 5, March, 1931, p. 12.

knowing. When they start transcribing, questions will arise. There is a desire to know the answers; now is the time to reteach old material and teach the new.

Much has been lost between the English class-room and the letter to be produced from the shorthand page. Some was never learned; much has been forgotten. It follows then that there must be a thorough review of English mechanics early in the course.

Perhaps some pupils have psychological problems. Certainly all have room for personality improvement. Pupils should study personality and character. Cameron Peck, in summing up the opinions of employers, says,[4] "There must be insistence upon such matters as Business Ethics, Character, Honesty, Accuracy, and Industry."

There must be integration of subject matter--that is the purpose of this thesis--to bring together in one course all possible of the material which will aid in training the commercial student so he will fit into many situations.

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[4] F. G. Nichols, op. cit., p. 158.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The selection of this thesis problem came about because of the writer's continuous search for materials which he believed suitable for second-year typewriting classes in senior high school. Something good was found in one book and something else in another. Perhaps an idea was gotten from another teacher, or from a magazine article. This search for material seemed necessary if the course was to be a practical one for the participant.

With the practical aspect of typewriting in view, the problem of constructing a working technique for second-year typewriting was chosen in 1934. During that year and the two years following the units presented in this thesis were written, taught, and rewritten. All were taught at least twice in the classroom.

The material logically falls under four heads: skill of operation, English mechanics, office practice, and personal problems and adjustments. Under skill of operation are included such things as a review of the typewriter, centering, and drill; under English mechanics those things which are necessary to a well-written letter; under office practice come all special phases of office work; and under personal problems and adjustments are considered personality adjustment, securing a position, health, and office etiquette.

The material has been selected from numerous leading textbooks on typewriting, English, office practice, and psychology; from observation of other teachers; from magazine articles; and some from experimentation in the classroom.

ADAPTATION OF THE COURSE

The material in this study has been written to meet a special need existing in the Hutchinson Senior High School, Hutchinson, Kansas. As is true in many high schools, Hutchinson offers two years of shorthand and two years of typewriting. No office practice course is offered. Students who enroll for second-year shorthand must take the second-year typewriting course bedause of the transcription requirement. This is a full-year course. The matter of text is difficult. A typewriting text offers little other than practice material, which is essential but should not be considered more important than some other factors. If a secretarial practice text is correlated with the typewriting text, two books must be purchased by the pupils. Also, much material in either text is unsuited to this course.

There is also the problem of doing work for the faculty, the school newspaper, and for organizations in the school. A second-year typewriting class should do as much outside work as possible as these jobs provide excellent practice material.

A third type of work to be done during typewriting recitation periods is transcription in connection with the second-year shorthand class. There is indication that many instructors spend too little time on this important phase of stenography. Shorthand is valueless to students unless it

can be written back into longhand accurately and swiftly. A student may be able to read his shorthand well, but to transcribe it on the typewriter is another thing. An entirely new set of habits must be set up. The typist has been accustomed to typing longhand copy; now he must visualize the longhand from the shorthand copy. To become expert at this requires a tremenduous amount of practice. Students should transcribe at least two or three times each week.

The need then is for a textbook or other material which will readily adapt itself to a course in which these different types of work must be done. This arrangement of material is the result of an attempt to meet this need.

Monday and Wednesday of each week are given over to extra work. Faculty members understand that all work must be done on these days. There is seldom enough extra work to keep all students busy for an entire period, so this enables students to spend part of these days on drill material. No regular assignments are made for these days. Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday are given over to regular class work; the first five or ten minutes of each period usually being used to transcribe a letter.

Chapter II deals with a review of the typewriter and should be the first thing studied. Students have forgotten much about the machine and have lost much of the skill they had at the close of the preceeding year, so the first few days may profitably be given to a general review of the

machine. Accuracy should be stressed from the beginning.

Chapter III deals with a thorough review of all English mechanics. This material is fundamental to transcription. As letters are transcribed, questions will arise concerning punctuation, spelling, capitalization, etc. These units should be taken up following the review of the typewriter. Care must be taken not to make these for specific assignments, to be ignored during the remainder of the year. These units must be studied from time to time during the entire year. They may be used for special assignments for the first time, but should then be kept for frequent reference whenever a problem arises.

The material in Chapters IV and V may be studied as time permits. Probably most of this material belongs in the second semester because of the great amount of time that should be spent on the study and application of Chapter III to transcription.

This material is prepared by students for classwork. Each student is responsible for the typing and reproduction of copies for the entire class on a certain unit or portion of a unit. This loose-leaf material is kept in a manila folder by each student.

The reader may offer as a criticism to this plan that there is insufficiency of material. If succeeding units were assigned day after day, it is quite true that soon all would

be covered. But it must not be forgotten that besides the material suggested here, there is another task to be done. Pupils must become expert typists. Much time must be spent on drill material, on writing plain copy, on taking speed tests, and on doing remedial work. This may be done as the teacher may desire, but the writer has found from experience that if proper time is spent on drill, transcription, and other things, that all will be busy, very busy in fact, from the first day of school to the last.

CHAPTER II

SKILL OF OPERATION

GENERAL OBJECTIVES:

1. To review the mechanics of the typewriter.

2. To review letter writing material studied during the first-year course, and to study advanced letter writing.

3. To review tabulation and to learn new techniques of tabulation.

4. To learn special skills required for carbon and stencil work.

REVIEW OF THE TYPEWRITER

A thorough review of the mechanics of typewriting should be first in this course. The first two or three weeks may profitably be devoted to drill, along with the review of other first-year material. Emphasis should be placed on accuracy rather than speed. Numerous short tests should be given, which should be graded for accuracy; special characters not on the keyboard should be mastered; and centering and tabulation thoroughly reviewed. This preliminary review period is fundamental for more advanced units. A pupil is not ready to do second-year work until he has these fundamentals well learned.

The following list of things a second-year typist should know at the beginning of the year will serve as a guide.[1]

1. What is the correct posture at the typewriter?

   The correct posture is with both feet resting on the floor and body leaning slightly forward.

2. In what hand should the paper be held while inserting it in the machine?

   In the left, between the first finger and thumb.

3. When the marginal stops are set at 10 and 75 on a pica-type machine, how long will the line be?

   The line will be 6½ inches long.

4. How many spaces should be used after a colon?

   Two.

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[1] V. E. Breidenbaugh and Irma Ehrenhardt, Balance Sheet, (South-Western Publishing Company) May, 1934.

5. What is the correct way to write one hundred and one in figures?

The correct way is 101 (Using the letter 1).

6. How is a dash made on the typewriter?

With two hyphens, as: and--although it was. . .

7. How many spaces are paragraphs usually indented?

Usually 5 spaces. Sometimes 7 and 10.

8. If you make too many errors on a timed test, what should you do to remedy your difficulty?

Usually concentrate more closely on the copy.

9. What should the typist watch when writing?

Always watch the copy.

10. What finger is used in operating the space bar?

The right thumb.

11. What key is used in indenting in order to keep from striking the space bar five times for each paragraph?

The tabular key.

12. What should be done when the ribbon fails to reverse automatically?

Try to reverse the ribbon by hand.

13. How should the carriage be returned?

By throwing.

14. If the bell should ring on the first letter of a word such as "million," how should the word be divided?

Between the l's.

15. What should you do after you have made an error? Should you remove the paper, erase, continue, or strike over?

You should continue with the copy. It is not necessary to finish the word if in a timed test.

16. How many spaces should there be after a comma?

One.

17. What is considered the home position on the keyboard?

The second row--asdfghjkl;--is the home row.

18. Should there be a space preceding and following the dash when the dash is used?

No.

19. When writing capital R what shift key should be used and with what finger?

Use the right shift key and little finger of right hand.

20. What should be done when the keys pile?

Separate the keys at the printing point.

21. When your marginal stop is set at 12 and you desire to begin one line of writing at 7, what procedure should be followed?

Press the right marginal release and pull the carriage back.

22. When matter is typed inside parentheses how many spaces are there between the typed material and the parentheses?

None.

23. How is the underscore made?

By depressing the shift key and striking the 6.

24. With what finger is the cipher made?

With the fourth finger on the right hand.

25. In computing the rate on a timed test, what is the average number of strokes for each word?

Five.

26. How is the arabic numeral "one" written?

1.

27. What is the shortest line you can have on a test?

Sixty-one spaces.

28. What is the longest line you can have on a timed test?

Seventy-six spaces.

29. How do you make a solid line?

By using the underscore.

30. How many words are deducted for each error on a test?

Ten.

31. How many strokes are deducted for each error?

Fifty.

32. Do you underscore spaces when underscoring words?

No.

33. How many errors shall be counted for each word?

Only one.

34. In order to center 10 single-spaced lines from top to bottom on a page 11 inches long, where should the writing begin?

On the twenty-ninth line.

35. How should tabulating be done when you write columns?

The material should be written across the page.

36. What is the correct way to write "five dollars"?

$5. Use the period only at end of sentence.

37. Where should the period be placed in the following, He said, "Please come home"?

Inside the quotation marks.

38. What is the proper way to write "five per cent"?

As 5% or 5 per cent.

39. A line 61 spaces long is centered on a sheet of paper 8½ inches wide on a pica-type machine. How many spaces does each margin have?

The margins contain 12 spaces each.

40. When is the sign for "and" used?

In names of firms and corporations, as: John James & Sons.

41. What should be done when the machine fails to space when the carriage is thrown?

Change the line space adjusting lever.

42. When the ribbon holder fails to move up and down, what should be done?

The stencil lever should be moved?

43. How many spaces are necessary after a semicolon?

One.

44. If you wish to move the carriage from pointer to some number on the marginal scale, how is it done?

By using the carriage release.

45. How do you make the exclamation point?

By writing the apostrophe above the period.

46. How many spaces are there after an exclamation mark?

Two spaces unless used within the sentence.

47. What should be done when the bell rings when you are taking a timed test?

Finish or divide the word being written.

48. How many carriage releases does a typewriter have?

Two.

49. How many spaces are there to an inch on a pica-type machine.

Ten.

50. Is it ever correct to space once after a period?

Yes, after abbreviations.

51. How often should the typewriter be cleaned?

Thoroughly at least each month.

52. Is the spacing on the tabular scale the same as the spacing on the marginal scale?

Yes.

53. Should the operator look up every time the carriage is thrown?

No.

54. Is it just as easy to center on a small sheet of paper as on a large one?

Yes, the procedure is the same.

55. In centering a line that has 53 spaces, how many spaces will each margin have?

One will have 26 and the other 27 spaces.

56. Is it a sign the machine is out of order when the capitals are out of line?

No, it is more likely a result of faulty shifting.

57. Can the lateral paper guide by moved?

Yes.

58. It is common practice to see someone practice centering a title on a practice sheet to see if it looks balanced? Is this necessary?

Not if the correct method is used.

59. What is the purpose of the back spacer?

Largely to correct ommissions.

60. How many strokes are there to an inch of elite type?

Twelve.

61. How many strokes would you have to write in order to write 50 words a minute for one minute?

You would have to write 250 strokes.

62. What key is used in taking the paper out of the machine?

The paper release key.

63. What kind of a stroke should be used in striking the tabular key?

A more firm stroke, not so quick and light as with other keys.

64. How many shift locks does the standard typewriter have?

Two.

65. In writing timed tests, how do you know when you have completed the first page?

By marking the bottom of the page with a pencil.

66. Where should 20 single-spaced lines begin on a page 11 inches long in order to be centered?

On the 24th line.

67. May a dash be written at the beginning of a line?

Yes, a dash may be, but a hyphen may not.

68. Is it necessary to use the shift key while writing arabic numerals?

No.

69. When we write single-spaced material, is it correct to double space between paragraphs?

Yes.

70. How is the paper held against the cylinder?

By paper fingers.

71. How is the carriage brought back into position?

By the carriage return lever.

72. What does the left edge of the paper rest against?

The lateral paper guide.

73. How are spaces between words made?

With the space bar.

74. What finger is used in writing the letter "m"?

The first finger of the right hand.

75. How do we determine spaces between lines?

By the line adjustment lever.

76. How many keys are operated with the "j" finger?

Eight.

77. How many spaces are there in a line 6½ inches long?

Sixty-five.

78. When two letters occupy the space that one should occupy, what is the error called?

Piling.

79. What kind of movement is the carriage return?

A wrist movement.

80. How many lines does it take to make a vertical inch of pica type?

Six.

81. How many lines are there to a page of 8½ x 11 paper?

Sixty-six.

82. How many letters can be placed on a line 6 inches long on elite type?

83. Where is the tabular rack?

On the carriage.

84. Should the left thumb ever be used in typewriting?

No, not on the standard machine.

85. What is the use of the marginal release?

It is used for writing outside marginal lines.

86. Is rhythm essential to expert typing?

Yes, very essential.

87. How many letters of the alphabet are written with the left hand?

Fifteen.

88. How would you write number 100, using the symbol?

It is written #100.

89. How would you write 100 pounds, using the symbol?

It is written 100#.

90. How would you abbreviate the writing of 63 cents?

It is written 63¢.

91. How would you write the date April seventeen, 1937, in abbreviated form?

4/17/37.

92. How do you write degrees?

Write the number then turn cylinder back and strike the small "o" as: 90°.

93. What is the purpose of the paper clamps?

To hold the paper in place and keep it from making a noise.

94. What is the correct rhythm to use in writing capitals?

Waltz time, or 1, 2, 3.

95. With what kind of stroke should the keys be struck?

With a sharp staccato stroke.

96. Should your fingers be kept on the guide keys?

No, they merely hover over the guide keys.

97. Are erasures to be made in typewriting?

Not in first-year. Second-year students may erase.

98. How do you accomplish the writing of every letter with the same shade?

By writing rhythmically and with an even touch.

LETTER WRITING

AIMS:

1. To review first-year letter writing.
2. To study advanced letter writing.
3. To learn to address envelopes.
4. To learn how to use and care for carbon paper.

In order to do desirable transcription, a typist must be thoroughly familar with letter forms, placement, and other factors upon which a good letter depends. Students should be encouraged to take a personal interest in every letter. Each letter should be as nearly perfect in form, arrangement, and every other detail as it is possible to make it.

The Letterhead

The printed or engraved name and address of the individual, firm, or corporation sending the letter is the letterhead.

The Date Line

The month, day of the month, and the year are included in the date. Omit the period after the date. It is usually written so that it is in alignment with the right-hand margin of the body of the letter, but may be centered directly below the letterhead. If the stationery contains no letterhead, the address is written with the date.

The Inside Address

The inside address consists of the name of the addressee, the number of his place of business or house, the street, the city, and the state. It is considered good form to omit

punctuation marks at the ends of all lines in the inside address. This is known as "open punctuation."

Personal-Attention and Subject Phrases

A line reading "Attention of . . ." is included in firm or corporation letters when it is desired that the letter should go directly to some particular individual. To illustrate, if a letter is addressed to the A. U. Clark Company, and the writer wishes his letter to come to the attention of Mr. James, the words "Attention of Mr. James" are centered or written in alignment with the left margin either above or below the inside address. The salutation in such letters should still be "Gentlemen" as the letter is addressed to a firm and not to an individual.

The Salutation

The salutation of the letter begins flush with the left margin and two single spaces below the inside address. "Dear Mr." is considered less formal than "My dear Mr." and implies an acquaintance with the person addressed. The salutation of a business letter should be followed by a colon.

The Body of the Letter

The letter should be carefully paragraphed. It was formerly thought better form to indent each paragraph five spaces, but modern practice is to indent seven or ten spaces except in the Conventional letter.

The Complimentary Closing

A comma should follow the closing. It is customary to

include the word "yours" in any complimentary closing, and it usually begins slightly to the right of the center of the page. The first word only is capitalized. The complimentary close is written two single spaces below the last line of the body of the letter.

The Signature

The signature is usually pen written by the one who dictates the letter. The typed signature should be four spaces below the complimentary close. If a firm name is typed, it should be written in capitals two spaces below the complimentary close. The four spaces are then left below this for the pen signature.

Identification Initials

Identification initials are written two spaces below the typed signature on the left margin. The dictator's initials are written first; these are followed by the initial or initials of the typist. The colon should separate the initials, as: WTC:AC.

Inclosure Notations

Inclosures in a letter are indicated below the identification initials, thus:

CVC:R One inclosure--Check $50	or	CVC:R Inclosure--1

Styles of Business Letters

The Indented or Conventional Form

This style is commonly written either single or double spaced, depending upon the length of the letter. All paragraphs

are indented five spaces. Each new line of the inside address is indented five spaces from the point the preceding line started, and the typed signature is indented five spaces to the right of the complimentary close. Occasionally the inside address is single spaced and the body of the letter double spaced.

The Plain Block

All lines of this letter start on the left margin. This style must be single spaced because there is no indention for paragraphs. The plain block is not in common use because of the unbalanced appearance of the letter.

Modified Block

This is a combination of the plain block and the conventional form. The inside address is blocked, but each paragraph is indented from five to ten spaces. The complimentary close and typed signature are blocked. This style is rapidly becoming popular.

The Hanging-Indention

Each line of the inside address and the first line of each paragraph begin five spaces to the left of the regular margin of the letter. The indentification initials also begin to the left of the margin. This style is very uncommon. It contains less balance than any other style, and is particularly difficult to type because of the lines beginning to the left of the body of the letter.

Miscellaneous factors

Spacing and Arrangement

If a letter is single spaced, there should be two spaces before and after the salutation and between paragraphs. In letters of approximately one hundred words the date should be six spaces above the inside address, while in long letters it may be only two spaces above. In this size letter the margins should should be about twenty spaces. In long letters the margins may decrease to twelve spaces. If it is necessary to use less margin than twelve, it is usually best to make a two-page letter. The first line on the second page should be about one inch from the top of the sheet (this sheet must be plain paper), and should carry the page number, the initials or name of the addressee, and the date, as:[1]

Page 2--Miss Helen E. Sheridan, May 16, 1937

If the letter is quite short, it is advisable to use a half-sheet.

Addressing Envelopes

The first line of the address should start at approximately the center of the envelope in a four-line address, and slightly below center in a three-line address. The postal department prefers that the name of the state be on a line by itself, but common practice is to write the name of the city and the state on the same line. A recent style is to write the state in all capitals. This makes it stand out from the rest

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[1] J. R. Gregg, and R. P. Sorelle, Applied Secretarial Practice, (Chicago: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1934) p. 17.

of the address. The address should be the same on the envelope as on the inside address, only that on the envelope it should be double-spaced if not more than four lines.

In the upper left corner of the envelope a return address should be given. If the letter is to be sent to a person who receives mail in care of another person, the "Care of" may be written directly under the name of the addressee or it may be in the lower left corner. The latter place is preferable. The words "Care of" should be spelled in full, instead of using c/o, %, or some other symbol.

Folding the Stationery

Fold letters neatly; make each fold straight. To fold a sheet of paper 8½ x 11 first fold from the bottom to the top, leaving the top extend a little higher as this makes it easier to unfold. Then fold the right third to the left and the remaining left section to the right. To fold a half-sheet, follow the same procedure except for the first fold from bottom to top.

Carbons

Usually a carbon copy is made of all letters. This copy is filed and kept for future reference. Insert carbon without folds and be careful not to get carbon marks on the sheet which is to be mailed. Carbon should be kept in a box or folder so that it will not wrinkle.

Special phrases and Signatures[2]

The Randolph Construction Company
216 North Michigan Avenue
Chicago, Illinois

Attention of Mr. Hopkins

Gentlemen:

Subject: Metropolitan Air Derby

Industrial Oil Company
616 East Superior Avenue
Cleveland, Ohio

Gentlemen:

Industrial Oil Company
616 East Superior Avenue
Cleveland, Ohio

Subject: METROPOLITAN AIR DERBY

Gentlemen:

Yours very truly,

RICHARDSON PRODUCTS COMPANY

Wallace Howland
Personnel Director

Yours truly,

THE DUNCAN COMPANY

By

Very sincerely yours,

President

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[2] Ibid., p. 17.

The preceding paragraphs present a comprehensive outline of the information a second-year pupil should know before he can successfully participate in transcription. This unit should follow the review of the typewriter. The first letters may be given in longhand for review purposes. After these fundamentals of letter writing are well learned, the pupil should be asked to use first one style and then another in his transcription to familarize him with them. Probably the class would like to choose the style they like best for the standard, which will be used unless the teacher specifies otherwise.

Letter writing is important; all students should master it. Whether or not a pupil eventually does office work makes no difference. All will have frequent occasions to write letters. A poorly written or poorly typed letter is psychologically poor; the first impression one gets upon opening a letter is of its general appearance. Style , placement, margins, accuracy, even touch, and many other factors go to make up a neat letter. These things cannot be over emphasized.

CHAPTER III

ENGLISH MECHANICS

GENERAL OBJECTIVES:

1. To spell correctly the words commonly used in one's writing vocabulary.
2. To increase student's vocabulary.
3. To use one's writing vocabulary effectively.
4. To punctuate and capitalize correctly.
5. To paragraph effectively.
6. To use numbers correctly.
7. To pronounce correctly those words which are commonly used by students.
8. To divide correctly words which must be divided in typewriting.

The units in this chapter have been designed to give the student a thorough review of those things which are necessary for him to know if he succeeds in his transcription work. The finished letter is the measure of his success. Spelling, use of words, paragraphing, the use of figures, word division, punctuation, and capitalization all play an important role in the production of a letter.

The unit on pronunciation is included here for special attention, but this, like all the other units, should not be studied on the assigned day and then forgotten. This chapter especially deals with material which can never be learned in its entirety. During the first study of these units the

problems confronting everyone should be emphasized. To know rules of punctuation is worthless if they cannot be applied; correct pronunciation is not for certain days only, but rather something which must be constantly studied and practiced. The principles in these units should be diligently studied with the final goal that of everyday usage. Most of this material has been studied in English classes. Much of it has been forgotten. For the most part, to teach facts for the sake of facts is poor motivation. That is the way most of our teaching is done, but here the situation is different. A letter is to be written; without certain information this letter cannot be produced; here motivation is genuine.

SPELLING

AIMS:

1. To teach the student how to eliminate spelling errors.

2. To create and promote an interest in spelling which will culminate in the mastery of spelling demons for each student.

Misspelled words are disagreeable because they are on the surface and are therefore visible to everyone. Students in senior high school can best become good spellers by concentration on troublesome words. No general list can be as useful as an individual list made up by the person who has trouble with those words. This can easily be done if one keeps a record of the words he frequently needs to check in the dictionary for spelling. "It has been estimated that the average individual's difficulties in spelling involve from 20 to 50 words."[1] If this is true, the problem becomes much simplier than one might expect. Encourage each student to keep his own list; frequently combine the lists and dictate them to the entire class as a spelling test.

There is certainly no royal road to perfection in spelling, but with perseverance one can learn to spell. The pupil must first be sure of pronunciation; failure to pronounce a word frequently causes it to be misspelled. He must review the troublesome words many times. By mastering spelling the student will materially enlarge his writing vocabulary.

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[1] A. C. Babenroth, and E. J. McNamara, English in Modern Business, (New York: Prentice-Hall), 1932, p. 24.

There should be close correlation at all times of spelling, pronunciation, and vocabulary.

The following list of words is only a sample of some of the troublemakers:[2]

absence	calendar	lovable
accommodate	cemetery	misspelled
acknowledgment	changeable	ninety
adviser	deceive	occurring
amateur	disappoint	occasion
annual	emphasize	peaceable
anxiety	February	rhythm
athletic	foreigner	similar
biscuit	guarantee	sincerely
bulletin	judgment	vacuum
bureaus	knowledge	volume

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[2] Taken from a list made up by students in the writer's second-year typewriting class. Note that these are common words instead of unusual ones.

VOCABULARY

AIMS:

1. To help students increase their vocabularies by creating in each individual a desire to learn those words which are common but which he does not know, and by encouraging the use of these words in class.
2. To endeavor to develop the habit of using the dictionary to verify or determine the meaning and pronunciation of each word not known.
3. To encourage students to avoid using slang.

A good sentence cannot be made from a poor quality raw material. Many times there is one and only one word which will actually convey the exact idea which one wishes to express. The person with a large vocabulary is master over this situation while the person who has a meager vocabulary is necessarily lost. The one sentence is clear in meaning and masterfully constructed; the other is not clear and is weak in construction.

Every person has three vocabularies of varying sizes. The largest and least accurate is his reading vocabulary. The second is his writing vocabulary, and the third is his speaking vocabulary. To improve one is to improve all. If the reader, upon finding a word which is perhaps vague to him, would look up the word and carefully note the pronunciation and exact meaning, he can add it permanently to his vocabulary. After looking up the word, he must use it in writing or speaking as often as possible.

What type of words should one add to his vocabulary? For the average student, the simple word is most valuable. It is the word which is frequently met in reading which should be mastered. One should not try to learn too many new words at a time. No attempt should be made to compile a model vocabulary. The same words will not be suitable for all pupils.

The plan which has been successfully used by the writer during the past three years is as follows: Choose for a class project the making of a vocabulary test. Each student is to make his own list. He adds words to this list as he finds them in his reading or as he hears them. Frequently time is given in class for a discussion of all words which have been listed. Each word is discussed from the standpoint of meaning and usage. If the class agree that the word under discussion is common enough and one that several of them do not know, it is added to the final list. As this list grows it is frequently reviewed. After 150 or 200 words have been selected, the vocabulary test is constructed. This is not used as a measuring text, but rather as a teaching test. Pupils enjoy making it as well as taking it.

The following is a sample of such a test which was constructed in one of the writer's classes:

DIRECTIONS: Copy the number of the word which means the same or which most nearly defines the underlined word.

( ) 1. His <u>fiancee</u> was ill. 1. aunt 2. stockbroker 3. sweetheart

( ) 2. The circus had a <u>caliope</u>. 1. musical instrment 2. African animal 3. clown

Each member of the class should have a part in making the test. The teacher may give each student ten or fifteen words to arrange for the test. Of course he will be sure of the answers for his group, but this will make no difference in the scoring. The duplicating of these tests will give excellent class work to those who type and mimeograph or duplicate the copies.

Whatever words are chosen must conform to good usage. To satisfy the standards of good usage "they must be in reputable, national, and present use."[3] Slang and vulgarity should be eliminated. The use of slang indicates a cheap and flashy attitude that reflects on the character of the writer or speaker. A national word is one which is used in this country. Most words found in modern texts will conform to present use; however, occasionally an obsolete word will be found.

The teacher must allow complete freedom in this type of study. The study of vocabulary should be a game. If it is made otherwise, students will lose interest; but if they are encouraged to select their own words from whatever source they may get them, they will share in a most valuable study. Once the habit of word study is formed it will carry over a long period of time--even for a life time.

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[3] A. C. Babenroth, E. J. McNamara, op. cit., p. 32.

PUNCTUATION

AIMS:

1. To review the more common rules of punctuation.

2. To emphasize the need for correct punctuation in letter writing.

Punctuation marks indicate the proper degree of separation between words and groups of words which need to be kept apart for clearness. Punctuation is an essential part of letter writing, and it is the duty of the typist to punctuate transcription properly. The rules in this unit are only the more common ones. No attempt is made to give an exhaustive treatment of the subject, but rather to give a brief review, in a manner that all students may understand, of those simple rules for punctuation which are necessary in ordinary sentence construction.

> The life of a man actually hung in the balance a few years ago while a New Jersey court waited for a ruling as to whether a comma or a semicolon had been used in recording the original evidence of a holdup and murder case. The meaning that would have been implied by the use of the comma would have meant a life sentence, whereas a semicolon could have led to the electric chair.
>
> Less tragic, but equally dramatic, was the error made by an enrolling clerk in Washington. A tariff bill was being framed by Congress. Among articles enumerated for admission duty-free, the bill specified all foreign fruit plants, meaning plants imported for experimental purposes, transplanting, etc. The clerk who copied the bill inserted a comma, making it read 'all foreign fruit, plants, etc.,' which resulted in all foreign fruits being admitted duty-free for a whole year, at a loss of more than $2,000,000 to the Government.[4]

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[4] Huber A. Hagar, Lillian G. Wilson, E. Hutchinson, The Business of English, (Chicago: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1934), p. 185.

The Comma

1. In series. A comma should be placed after each member of a series printed without conjunctions as part of a continuous sentence. The best usage requires a comma before "and, or, and nor" when connecting the last two words of a series without other connectives.

   In business, three things are necessary: knowledge, temper, and time.

2. Direct address. Use a comma, or commas, to set off from the rest of the sentence a word or words used in direct address or in a salutation.

   You, madam, are one of the selected list.

3. Appositive. Use commas to set off an appositive.

   John Burroughs, the naturalist, knew much about bees.

4. Break in continuity. Use commas to indicate a break in the continuity of the thought of a sentence when the interruption is slight; otherwise use dashes or parentheses.

   The sweetest voices in the world, if any voice may be called sweet, come from Italy.

5. Short quotation. Use a comma to separate a short quotation from the rest of the sentence.

   "I mean to stand upon the Constitution," replied Webster.

6. Omission of a word. Washington was born in 1732; Jefferson, in 1743.

7. Dates, references, etc. A comma may be used to separate parts of dates, references, geographical locations, and addresses.

   Monday, June 15, 1943. Pittsburg, Pennsylvania.

8. Words or phrases in pairs. Use a comma to separate words or phrases that are arranged in pairs.

   Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I give my hand and my heart to this vote.--D. Webster.

9. Parts of a sentence. A comma should separate the different parts of a sentence whose meaning would not be clear without punctuation.

Ruth, your sister is calling you.
Ruth, your sister, is calling you.

10. Nonrestrictive clauses. Use a comma to set off a nonrestrictive clause. Restrictive clauses are not set off by commas.

The man, who was Frank's uncle, broke his leg.
The man who broke his leg was sent to the hospital.

NOTE: The use of the comma with nonrestrictive (non-essential) clauses gives more difficulty, perhaps, than any other comma use. Does the clause merely give information or does it limit the thought of the main clause? If it merely gives information, it is non-restrictive and must be separated by commas from the rest of the sentence.

11. Elements of a sentence. Any element of a sentence that is grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence must be set off by a comma.

The captain being injured, our team lost heart.

12. Introductory words. Use a comma to set off such words as "yes, no, indeed, surely, therefore, however, moreover, etc., when used as introductory words. When the words "therefore and moreover" begin the sentence and are followed immediately by the subject, they should not be followed by a comma.

13. Participial phrases. A participial phrase should be set off from the main clause by commas.

Being exhausted, the clerk made many errors.
The door was locked, the store being closed for repairs.

14. Dependent clauses. Use the comma to set off subordinate or dependent clauses when they precede the main clause. If any sentence begins with such words as: if, while, although, because, since, unless, or before, this should be a warning of a dependent clause and of the necessity of inserting a comma.

If you do not go, you may lose your position.

15. Coordinate clauses. Use a comma to separate two coordinate clauses joined by "and, for, but, or, nor, neither," if there is a change of subject and if the clauses are not closely connected in thought. The comma is not used between independent clauses not joined by conjunctions. Use a period or semicolon.

God heals, and the doctor takes the fee.--Franklin
The telephone rang but no one answered it.
Don't do all the talking. Be a good listener.
Don't do all the talking; be a good listener.

The Period[5]

The rules for the use of the period are the simplist of all rules of punctuation. Our British cousins call the period a "full stop," and this name describes its principal use exactly. Its purpose is to make the reader stop at the end of a complete thought before proceeding to the next.

1. At the end of a sentence. Use a period to mark the end of a complete declarative or imperative sentence.

2. Following abbreviations. Abbreviations should be followed by periods. If one comes at the end of a sentence, one period only is necessary.

The boat sails at 12 m.

Should an abbreviation come at the end of a parenthetical expression closing a sentence of which it is a part, the period marking the abbreviation goes inside the parenthesis, and, in addition, a sentence period is used.

Please arrive in time (the boat sails at 3 p.m.).

3. In decimals. The period is used to separate whole numbers from decimal fractions.

4. Following figures indicating subdivisions. The period is used after letters and figures designating divisions and subdivisions in outlines, unless the letters are enclosed in parentheses.

1. Officers
   a. Secretary
      (1) Recording

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[5] Ibid., pp. 177-180.

5. Cases in which period is not used.

A. Chemical symbols: Fe HgO
B. Per cent: five per cent is a good rate.
C. IOU and SOS, as these are not abbreviations.
D. Shortened forms for first, second, etc.
E. After letters used as names without specific designation: Mr. X said it was true.

The Semicolon

1. Compound sentences. Use a semicolon to separate the independent clauses of a compound sentence when there is no conjunction.

We demand that big business give people a square deal; in return we must insist that when anyone engaged in big business honestly endeavors to do right, he shall himself be given a square deal.--Roosevelt.

2. Enumerated items. Use a semicolon to separate parts of a sentence or enumeration which themselves are punctuated by commas.

Cash on hand September 1, 1932, $544.25; sale of tickets, $726.50; gate receipts, $873.20.

The Colon

1. In salutations.

Dear Sir: Gentlemen: To the Editor:

2. Introducing enumerations. The colon is used to introduce an enumeration of particulars, either in tabulated or run-in form, when introduced by such expressions as:

as follows: the following: thus: these:

The telephone companies offer the following types of service: (1) full rate, (2) deferred half-rate.

3. Introducing quotations. A colon is used to introduce a formal quotation or speech.

In introducing the speaker, the chairman remarked: Webster defines the word. . .

4. Illustrating a general statement. A colon is used to separate a grammatically complete clause from a second clause that illustrates or supplements it.

   We are sure of one thing: we will grant him no further credit.

5. In expressions of time and in proportions.

   9:04 a.m. a ratio of 2:1

The Question Mark[6]

1. The question mark should follow every direct question.

2. The question mark is not used after an indirect question, or a request placed in a question form for courtesy.

   Were ever words more fitly spoken.
   Will you please send us your new Fall catalog.
   May we hear from you soon.

3. The question mark may be used after any element of a sentence that brings the question to a head, even though other elements follow in the same sentence without capitalization.[7]

   What is the correct form of salutation for a congressman? a governor? a judge? a clergyman?

   NOTE: Only one space should follow each question mark.

4. A sentence may be declarative in form but interrogative in purpose and punctuation.

   We are not to enclose the statement?

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[6] T. K. Brown, The Secretary's Desk Book, (Chicago: The John C. Winston Company, 1933), p. 30.

[7] H. Hagar, L. Wilson, E. Hutchinson, loc. cit., p. 181.

General Typing Hints for Punctuation

1. No space should appear between the quotation mark and the enclosed matter.

2. Commas and periods always go inside the quotation marks.

3. Colons and semicolons are placed outside the quotation marks.

4. Question marks and exclamation points are placed inside the quotation marks if they are part of the quotation; outside if they are not.

   He inquired, "Will Monday be convenient for you?"
   Do you really believe that "a stitch in time saves nine"?
   "Halt!" said the sentry.
   How absurd to characterize him as "the best man in the game"!

5. Two spaces follow the exclamation point if it comes at the end of a sentence; one if within the sentence.

6. Two spaces follow a period at the end of a sentence, but one space follows an abbreviation within the sentence.

7. The spacing for the question mark is the same as for the period.

8. Two spaces always follow the colon.

9. No space should appear between the parenthesis and the enclosed matter.

10. Leave no space between the period and parenthesis. It makes no difference whether the period is before or after the parenthesis.

11. Write the abbreviations for morning and afternoon in small letters and without a space between.

    5 p.m. 4 a.m.

    Some authorities give other methods for time of day, but the more modern practice is as given here.

12. Two spaces should follow the numbers in a chronological list. When the tenth item is reached, the machine should be adjusted so number ten will be in alignment on the right with number nine. (This page is an example)

CAPITALIZATION

AIMS:

1. To give students a thorough review of capitalization before starting transcription.

2. To put before students a set of rules which can be used for reference when questions of capitalization arise in transcription.

Rules for Capitalization[8]

1. Proper nouns. Proper nouns, and adjectives derived from proper nouns, should begin with a capital.

2. First word of a sentence. The first word of every sentence or a word standing for a sentence should begin with a capital letter.

3. Quotations. The first word of every direct quotation should begin with a capital letter. Exception: Do not capitalize the first word of an interrupted quotation within the sentence.

   "No," he said, "do not go."

4. Word following a colon. The first word after a colon, when it begins a complete independent sentence, should begin with a capital.

   There is much to be said for the old proverb: A stitch in time saves nine.

5. I, O, Oh. The words I and O should be capitalized. The word "oh" should be treated as an ordinary word.

6. Roman numerals. Names or abbreviations followed by capitalized Roman numerals should begin with capitals.

   Vol. X, Div. II, Act VI.

7. Titles of books, plays, operas, etc. The first word and all important words of titles should begin with capitals.

8. Father, mother, brother, etc. These words, when used with the name of a person or in direct address,

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[8] Thomas Kite Brown, loc. cit., (Condenses from p. 7 ff.)

should begin with a capital; otherwise begin them with a small letter.

I know that Aunt Mary will be surprised.
May I go with you, Mother?
I saw my aunt standing on the doorstep.

9. Complimentary close. The first word only of the complimentary close of a letter should begin with a capital.

10. Salutation of a letter. The first word and all nouns of the salutation of a letter, and the first word following the salutation should begin with capitals.

11. Titles. All titles of honor and respect, whether civil, religious, military, or academic, if they precede the name of the person, and all academic degrees that follow the name, whether abbreviated or spelled out, should begin with capitals.

King George, General Pershing, Chairman Walworth, Dean R. T. Manning, the Pope, etc.

12. Government and official titles. The names of specific legislative bodies, executives, and chief magistrates should begin with capitals.

Congress, Parliament, legislature, General Assembly, Senate.

13. County, town, ward, precinct. These begin with capitals when used with or as proper nouns.

14. Deity. Names of the Deity and pronouns referring to the Deity, except who, whose, whom, are capitalized.

15. Religious denominations. The first word and principal words of the names of religious denominations, creeds, and confessions of faith begin with capitals.

16. Societies, conventions, etc.

City Welfare Bureau, Board of Health, Bill of Rights

17. Words used with proper nouns. Schools, buildings, streets, parks, avenues, courts, hotels, clubs, librarys, museums, universities, and many other common nouns are capitalized when used with proper nouns.

Arctic Ocean, Pikes Peak, Hudson River, Lake Erie, Kansas University, Wolcott Building, Central School.

18. Epochs, periods, ages.

The Age of Discovery, Renaissance.

19. Historical events.

the Mayflower Compact, the Louisiana Purchase, Peace of Paris, the Mexican Cession.

20. Wars. Names of conflicts or wars should begin with capital letters.

21. Points of the compass. Points of the compass, when they designate geographical sections of a country, should begin with capitals.

The North and the South settled the slavery question.

Note: Do not capitalize such words when they refer only to direction.

The storm came from the east.

22. Hyphenated Compounds. Capitalization affects only the first letter of a hyphenated compound.

Clean-up Week, Twenty-fourth Yearbook.

THE USE OF NUMBERS[9]

AIMS:

1. To teach students when to write numbers in figures and when to write them in words.

2. To emphasize the importance of writing numbers correctly.

The stenographer will have frequent occasion to use figures in letter writing. Whether to express the number in figures or to write it out will be the problem. There are fundamental principles governing the writing of numbers which must be followed in letter or theme writing. It is the aim of this unit to give to the student a working knowledge of the rules concerning the use of numbers.

1. In the isolated mention of numbers, spell out whole numbers less than 100, but use figures for numbers over 100.

   There were twenty-two students in the class.
   The population was 1,876.

   If numbers of this nature occur very frequently, however, as in statistical work, use figures for all cases, even when the numbers are below 100.

   Replies were received from 51 men, 43 women, 10 boys, and 17 girls.

   Also use figures for all numbers in a group if the largest one mentioned contains three or more digits.

   Please send us 4 tennis balls, 1 handball, and 125 price lists.

2. Spell out all round numbers, as hundreds, thousands.

   The attendance was nearly five hundred.

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[9] H. Hagar, L. Wilson, E. Hutchinson, loc. cit., pp. 151-155.

If, however, round numbers come in close connection with numbers that are not round, use figures for all.

Requests were received from 87 automobile manufacturers, 27 foundries, 100 repair shops, and 56 garages.

Note: In spelling out round numbers over a thousand, use the form: Twelve hundred, twenty-five hundred, etc., instead of one thousand two hundred, two thousand five hundred, etc.

3. Any number beginning a sentence, no matter how large, should be spelled out. Often this awkwardness may easily be avoided by recasting the sentence.

4. In legal matter, it is customary to spell numbers in full, and then to repeat them in figures, enclosed in parentheses, directly following.

We enclose ten dollars ($10) in payment of our account.

Some special rules[10]

1. Ages. Spell out ages of people, unless the ages include months and days.

Mary is ten years old.
Mary is 10 years, 6 months, and 5 days old.

2. Dates. Always use figures in the date of a business letter. The endings "st, th, d" should be used only when the day precedes the month.

The bill was received June 4.
The bill was received the 4th of June.

3. Decimals. Decimals should always be expressed in figures; if there is no whole number, a cipher should precede the decimal point.

7.89 0.43

4. Dimensions, Degrees, Weights, Measures, Distances, and other units of measure are written in figures.

8 feet 9 inches, 56°, 10 years, 5.2 grams.

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[10] William G. Campbell, A Form Book for Thesis Writing, (Los Angeles: University of Southern California Press, 1933), p. 41.

5. Fractions. Spell out common fractions in isolated cases.

These orders are one-fourth of those received.

Note: All fractions should be written the same. If several fractions are to be written, and some of them do not appear on the keyboard, use the diagonal for all.

1/2, 2/3, 5/6, 8/10.

6. Page and chapter numbers. Write as figures page, chapter, and section numbers.

7. Cents. Always spell out a sum in cents unless other amounts are mentioned.

We enclose thirty-seven cents in stamps.

8. Dollar sign. Do not use the dollar sign for amounts less than a dollar.

I paid seventy-five cents. Not: I paid $.75.

9. Even dollars. Do not write .00 after a figure designating an even number of dollars.

He owed us $575. Not: He owed us $575.00.

10. Mixed numbers. Use figures for mixed numbers.

16 2/3, 87 1/2.

11. Per cent. Use figures with per cent.

He learned that 25 per cent of the class had failed.

12. Time of day. When exact time of day is given in hours and minutes, use figures. Spell out other expressions.

3:15 8:35 half-past two three o'clock

13. a.m. and p.m. These abbreviations should be written in small letters without a space between them and should be used only with figures.

14. Numbers in dates. The numbers in dates should ordinarily be written as figures. In formal and legal writing they are usually written out.

PRONUNCIATION

AIMS:

1. To create a desire to pronounce words correctly by discussing the value of good pronunciation and by pointing out the results of poor pronunciation.

2. To learn to pronounce correctly all words which are used by students by emphasizing correct pronunciation each day and by creating in the class a feeling that questions of pronunciation should be settled when they arise.

Spelling and pronunciation are very closely related. It is necessary to pronounce words correctly if one is to spell them correctly. If one says "atheletics," he will, in all probability spell it that way. Growth in one's power of expression requires an increasing vocabulary. One must speak a new word correctly in order to learn it. Since pronunciation is so important in spelling and in building vocabulary, it is important that students pay careful attention to it.

It is not the uncommon word which needs attention; it is the common word which is used frequently but which is mispronounced. Power over words is important; words are the means by which ideas are expressed, and to mispronounce a word is almost worse than not to pronounce it at all.

This unit is not to be studied as a lesson and forgotten. Pronunciation should be a vital part of each day's work. Stress it always; make it a game. Students enjoy learning good pronunciation--they only need someone to lead

the way. Enthusiasm may be created by discussing the words which students mispronounce. This study requires the use of the dictionary, as does the study of spelling. If these things are continuously stressed, students will become dictionary conscious.

The study of pronunciation envolves a study of letter sounds. The majority of senior high school students have forgotten or have never studied letter sounds. They must know the standard dictionary markings; they must be taught the value of the accent mark; and they must learn to check questions of pronunciation in the dictionary.

This unit is not used for a definite assignment in the writer's classes; it is carried through the entire year in addition to the regular work. Students are urged to ask questions at any time regarding pronunciation. Words which give trouble are usually placed on the blackboard for a few days; gradually new ones replace the old ones. At all times the discovery of individual errors or difficulties is the basis for class study. No cut-and-dried list is given the class as an assignment, but such a list may be profitably used occasionally for a contest period. Such a list may be found on the next page.

Students soon catch the spirit of this type of study, and are eager to participate in it. They become more confident of their pronunciation and as a result, better students.

A list of some of the trouble-makers:[11]

address	cello	forehead
admirable	chauffeur	formidable
adult	clique	fragile
adversary	comparable	genuine
advertisement	conduit	gesture
alias	contrary	gondola
Alma Mater	coupon	hearth
almond	culinary	horizon
alumnae	data	hospitable
alumni	deaf	illustrate
apparatus	debris	indict
applicable	decade	infamous
apricot	defect	maintenance
architect	detail	municipal
arctic	digest	necessary
athlete	divan	often
athletic	drought	penalize
banquet	film	pianist
bouy	finance	recess
casualty	fiance (e)	romance

[11] Thomas Kite Brown, op., cit., (Condensed from pp. 85-86)

DIVISION OF WORDS

AIMS:

1. To give the student information concerning word division which will enable him usually to divide correctly without consulting a dictionary.

2. To help the student gain an appreciation of the importance of correct division by emphasizing the relation of correct pronunciation to division.

3. To stress the importance of consulting a dictionary when necessary to determine correct division.

The question of where to divide words is one of the most pertinent questions confronting a typist. Few persons become so skilled in word division that they need not consult a dictionary occasionally, but anyone can easily familiarize himself with a few of the more common rules which govern word division, and can thereby save much time consulting the dictionary.

Because dictionaries differ in their systems of syllabification, some recommending division according to pronunciation and some according to derivation, it is difficult to give definite rules. When a word must be divided, however, there are certain rules which should be followed; and it is these which will be presented in this unit.

Rules governing the division of words[12]

1. Use a hyphen to indicate syllable division.
2. Divide a word only at the end of a syllable.
3. Divide a word only at the end of a line.

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[12] Ibid., pp. 119-122.

4. Never divide the last word on a page.

5. Do not allow word divisions, with the resulting hyphen, to occur at the end of more than two successive lines.

6. If possible, divide a word so that the syllable or syllables before the hyphen are suggestive of the whole word.

   Thus, refer-ence is better than ref-erence.

7. Never divide a word of one syllable. This rule applies to such words as spasm, haven't, James's, as well as the more easily recognized monosyllables.

8. In general, do not divide a word of two syllables unless the word consists of six or more letters.

   Right: thor-ough, con-fide, fran-tic
   Not good: fu-ry, be-gin, ga-la

9. Do not divide a word so as to leave a single letter in either part, and unless necessary never leave only two letters.

   Wrong: read-y, a-cross, a-malgamate, fair-y
   Not good: pa-pering, deposit-ed, re-porter

10. Never separate:

   A. One part of an abbreviation from the other
   B. A qualifying sign, such as the dollar sign, from the matter following, or from the figures to which it belongs
   C. Digits in a group of three or fewer
   D. Marks of subdivisions, such as (1) from the following material

   If possible avoid separating:

   A. The given name or names, or the initials from the family name
   B. Degrees or titles from a name

Vowels and consonants

Syllables are formed about vowel sounds. Each syllable is composed of one and only one vowel sound although there may be other vowel letters in the syllable which are not

sounded. If two vowels occurring together are pronounced separately, they form different syllables and may be separated.

The vowel sounds are usually easy to distinguish, and difficulties of division are caused not by the vowels but by the intervening consonants. Shall they be kept with the preceding vowel or placed with the following vowel? In placing consonants the following rules will be useful:

1. When a single consonant occurs between two vowels, the position of the consonant in syllable division depends on the quality of the preceding vowel.
   A. If the preceding vowel is short, the consonant usually remains with it.

      sol-itude mem-ory sat-isfy

   B. If the preceding vowel is long, the consonant usually goes with the following vowel.

      so-bering ni-trate pri-vate

2. When two or more consonants occur between two sounded vowels, they are usually divided.

   for-tify num-ber res-tive baf-fling
   shel-ter par-cel mon-ster diph-thong

   An exception to this rule occurs when the preceding vowel is long and accented or when the following vowel is accented and the consonants are capable of beginning a separate syllable.

   ni-trate emi-gration sa-cred fee-ble

3. Words containing a prefix or a suffix usually should be divided on the prefix or suffix, except when such a division would contradict pronunciation.

   dis-appear anti-federal rain-ing south-ern

But words having the endings -able, -ance, -ant, -ence, -ent, -ible, -ic, -ical, -ive, -or are usually divided according to sound rather than on the suffix.

logi-cal defen-sive promi-nent abun-dance

4. In the division of words whose final consonant is doubled before a suffix, as: occur, occur-ring; shop, shop-ping; the added consonant goes with the suffix. When the word itself ends with a double consonant, the consonants are not divided, as: bluff, bluff-ing.

5. Compound words written with a hyphen should be divided only on the compound.

well-being far-reaching self-denial

6. The endings -cial, -cion, -cious, -geous, -gion, -sion, -tial, -tion, should never be divided.

gor-geous con-scious reli-gious

COMPOUNDING OF WORDS

1. In general, if a compound is made up of two words, one of which loses its accent in the combination so that the compound is pronounced with only one accented syllable, it should be written without a hyphen.

   bedroom broomstick bookcase daydream headache

2. When a word group is used as a single adjective and is placed before the word it modifies, the group is written as a hyphenated compound. If the group is placed after the word it modifies it is written without the hyphen.

a fair-weather policy	a forecast of fair weather
worn-out clothing	clothing worn out
a built-in cupboard	a cupboard built in
a birch-bark canoe	a canoe built of birch bark

   Exception: Proper nouns made up of two words do not take the hyphen although used as adjectives

   a New England farm

3. Expressions consisting of groups of words commonly used as single words are usually hyphenated.

   brother-in-law man-of-war well-do-to

4. Ordinarily a prefix is written with its stem without the hyphen.

   semiannual nonresident prepay sublease

   Exception: When a prefix is joined to a proper noun a hyphen is used, as: pro-German anti-Jewish

5. A hyphen is often used between a prefix and its noun to prevent an awkward piling of consonants or vowels.

   co-author re-use bell-like

6. Use a hyphen with compounds made up of two words if the first word is an adjective and the last a noun to which d or ed has been added, or which end in ing.

   red-headed broken-hearted able-bodied sure-footed
   nerve-racking far-reaching sweet-smelling

7. Use a hyphen with compound numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine.

DICTION AND IDIOMS

AIMS:

1. To enrich the student's vocabulary by learning the precise meaning of similar words.

2. To give the students a keener appreciation of good sentence structure by a careful study of the more common idioms of the English language.

> "A well educated gentlemen," wrote Ruskin, that master of English prose, "may not know many languages--may not be able to speak any but his own. But whatever language he knows, he knows precisely; whatever word he pronounces, he pronounces rightly."[13]

Certainly a high value should be placed on the ability of one to use words correctly and effectively. Correct pronunciation is essential to good speech, and careful diction is the basis of good writing; while a knowledge of the exact meaning and use of words and phrases is as necessary to the successful meeting and interviewing of people as it is to the competent handling of correspondence.

Many stenographers are given the responsibility of correcting any errors made by the dictator. This is not surprising if we recall that many persons of education have a working vocabulary of not more than 2,000 words, yet Webster's New International Dictionary contains over 400,000 words! Because many dictators have a small vocabulary, they are unable to choose the word which best conveys the desired meaning. Thus it is up to the typist to be prepared to give the letter the desired tone by making corrections.

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[13] Charles Reigner, English for Business Use, (Chicago: H. M. Rowe Company, 1935), p. 18.

Troublesome Idioms

The expressions characteristic of a language are called its idioms. Often idioms are illogical word combinations for whose origin no explanation can be given. All that we know is that certain words are used together to mean particular things, and that other combinations, even when more logical, go against the natural speech ways of our language; they are, in other words, unidiomatic.

In the following lists, those words and phrases are included whose meanings are most frequently misused or troublesome.[14]

Above. Often used incorrectly, as in the expression "the above statement." Say "the former statement." Above is an adverb or a preposition and not an adjective.

Advise. In commercial language often used for inform; as, "We wish to advise you that our agent will call."

Alike. Use without both. Wrong: They are both alike.

All right. Correctly written thus. The single-word form with one l has no respectable status.

Angry at. This is commonly used of things, animals, or causes; if angry at is used of a person, the anger covers not merely the point at issue but the whole range of personal relations.

Angry with. This is the idiom that should, as a rule, be used with respect to persons.

Anticipate, expect. It is best to regard anticipate as implying foretaste of some emotion, usually pleasure, and not to use it for expect.

I do not expect it to rain.
I anticipate the good times we shall have.

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[14] Thomas Kite Brown, op. cit., p. 57 ff.

Any. Incorrect in adverbial sense of at all. Correct as a pronoun or adjective.

Wrong: I cannot encourage you any.

Any place. Incorrect for to any place. Anywhere is uaually the appropriate expression.

Wrong: Shall we go any place today?
Right: Shall we go anywhere today?

Awful, awfully. Do not use to intensify an adjective. In using awful with nouns, recall that it means inspiring with awe or solemn.

Wrong: He was awful good to me.
She was awfully pretty.
Right: The awful majesty of God.

Back. Do not use for ago. Not: Three days back I saw him.

Back of. Do not say in back of. Idiom sanctions in front of but not in back of.

Balance. Do not use for remainder.

Between. Refers to two; among, to three or more.

Blame it on. This should be avoided.

Wrong: Don't blame it on me.
Right: Don't blame me for it.

But. Meaning only. Use no other negative in the same clause

Wrong: I haven't met but four.
Right: I have met but four.

Claim. Do not use loosely for say or for assert, unless there is some question of right or title involved.

Wrong: He claims that he saw you.

Complected. Do not use this or its compounds. Complexioned is correct, but a less awkward construction is often possible.

Correct but awkward: She is dark complexioned.
Improved: She has a dark complexion.

Data. To be regarded as plural.

Correct: The data are correct.

Died of, sick with. He was sick with fever, but died of pneumonia.

Different from. This is correct. Avoid "different than."

Enthuse. This word lacks sanction. Enthusiasm may be used.

Equally as. Use either word, but not together.

Poor: This plan is equally as good.
Right: The return trip was equally delightful.

Every which way. Use: In all directions.

Facts. Do not use with "true." All facts are true.

Fix. Correct in such uses as fixing a site, fixing the attention. We do not fix an automobile. Do not use for arrange, as: to fix the hair; or for prepare, as: to fix lunch.

Guess. Do not use for suppose.

Had ought to, hadn't ought to. Both forms are wrong. Say ought not to.

Hardly. This word itself carries a negative idea and should not be used with not.

Wrong: I couldn't hardly do it.

Hopes. When used of a single prospect, prefer hope to hopes.

Not good: I have no hopes of seeing him again.
Right: I have no hope of seeing him again.

Inside. Used as a preposition, this word should not be followed by "of." As a noun it may be.

Right: He stayed inside the yard.
Right: The inside of the house seemed dusty.

In under. Incorrect for under.

Wrong: It rolled in under the desk.

Kind of. Do not use in the sense of slightly.

Not good: He was kind of sickly.

Laundered. Not laundried.

Let on. Avoid in the sense of "pretend" or "make known."

Wrong: He let on that he was sick.

Let's don't. Wrong for the colloquial don't let's.

Like. Do not use as a conjunction equivalent to "as if" or "as though." It may be correctly used as an adj.

Wrong: It looks like it would rain.
Right: It looks as if it would rain.
Right: It looks like silk.

Only that. Prefer except that when this is the meaning.

Posted. Do not use for informed.

Present. In the sense of make acquainted, it is considerably more formal than "introduce," which is usually the suitable term.

Promise. Distinguish from "assure." Promise looks toward a later fulfilment by the speaker.

Wrong: I was there yesterday, I promise you.

Quite some time. Avoid. Prefer "a good while."

Reckon. Do not use for suppose.

Regards. Do not use for regard.

Wrong: I talked with him in regards to the bill.
Right: I talked with him in regard to the bill.

Seeing as how. Wrong for inasmuch as or since.

Settle. Do not use for pay, if there has been neither confusion nor controversy in the matter.

So. After negatives is generally to be preferred to as.

Not good: He is not as good as Charles.

Some place. Do not use as an adverb for "somewhere."

Wrong: let's go some place today.

Suspicion. Not a verb. "Suspect" is the verb; suspect is also a noun meaning a person suspected.

The reason is that. Not: the reason is because.

Very. Be careful not to use this word overmuch. Do not use carelessly with words that do not admit of being intensified.

Wrong: The pickles were very excellent.

"Very" is a much overworked word. It can be omitted in nine cases out of ten without the loss of emphasis.

Way. Not ways, in the sense of a short distance.

Wrong: He was a little ways ahead.

When. Do not use for "than."

Wrong: I had no sooner taken my place when he came.

When, where. (In definitions) Do not use "is when" or "is where" in defining.

Without. Do not use for unless. Not: I shall not go without he agrees.

Words often confused

Access, excess. Access means the act or opportunity of approaching. Excess means more than the required amount.

Addition, edition. Addition means the act of joining or adding. Edition means the published form of a literary work.

Adopt, adapt, adept. Adopt means to take. Adapt means to change so as to make suitable. Adept means skillful.

Advise, inform. Advise means to give counsel, and should not be used for inform. It is not good to say, "We wish to advise you that our agent will call next week."

Affect, effect. Affect means to influence. Effect, to bring about.

Aggravate, irritate, exasperate. Aggravate means to intensify something that is already bad; irritate means to vex or to excite. Exasperate means to provoke to intense anger.

Alley, ally. Alley means a long narrow passage. Ally as a verb means to unite by treaty or league; as a noun it means associated by these means.

Great Britain was an ally of France.

Allusion, illusion, delusion, elusion. Allusion means a reverence to or a mentioning of something. Illusion means the perception of something by the senses which is not the real. A delusion is a false idea of a fact or a false belief. Elusion is the act of escaping.

Already, all ready. Already means by or before a particular time. All ready means all prepared.

Altogether, all together. Altogether means entirely. The phrase means collectively.

Amateur, novice, professional. Amateur means one who is skilled in an art, a study, or a sport, but who cultivates it for personal gratification only. A novice is a person who is inexperienced; he is merely a beginner. A professional is one who gets paid for doing his work.

Among, between. Between should be used when only two objects are refered to; among for more than two.

Anecdote, antidote. Anecdote is a brief story. An antidote is a remedy.

Angry, mad. Angry means enraged or furious. Mad means insane.

Anxious, eager. Anxious means worried. Eager means keenly desirous.

Apt, likely, liable. Apt means quick to learn. likely means probable. liable means exposure to an unfavorable possibility.

Beside, besides. Beside means at or by the side of. Besides means moreover or in addition to.

Continual, continuous. Continual means occurring again and again; repeated frequently. Continuous means unbroken; going on all the time without interruption.

Council, counsel, consul. Council is a noun, meaning a body of people who come together for deliberation. Counsel is used both as a noun and as a verb. As a noun, it

means advice or the one who gives advice; as a verb, it means to advise, to give advice. Consul is a noun, meaning a person who is sent by a government to look after its business interests in another country.

Device, devise. Devise means to think out or invent. Device is the invention or contrivance.

Disinterested, uninterested. Disinterested means without a selfish motive. Uninterested means lacking interest.

Don't, doesn't. Don't is an abbreviation of "do not," and must not be used with he or other words in the singular number.

Eminent, imminent. Eminent means outstanding. Imminent means overhanging or about to occur.

Fewer, less. Fewer applies to members; less, to quantity or volume.

Formally, formerly. Formally means according to custom. Formerly means heretofore, or is past time.

Healthy, healthful. Healthy means in a sound condition. Healthful means beneficial or sanitary.

Last, latest. Latest differs from last as earliest differs from first; it is applied only to the order of time. The latest trolley may also be the last, but an author's latest book may not be his last.

Learn, teach. Learn means to acquire knowledge. Teach means to impart knowledge.

Leave, let. Leave means to depart from. Let means to permit.

Lend, loan. Lend is a verb meaning to grant the use of. Loan should always be used as a noun, meaning a sum of money.

Liable, likely. Liable means responsible. Likely means being such as to make probable.

Lose, loose. Lose is a very and means to be deprived of. Loose is usually used as an adjective, meaning free or not confined. Sometimes it is used as a verb, and then it means to make free.

He let loose a stream of angry words.

Mad, angry. Mad means insane. Angry means provoked, enraged.

Per cent, percentage. Per cent is a phrase meaning by the hundred (per centum). Percentage is used as a noun, meaning a certain part.

Principle, principal. Principle is always used as a noun, meaning a rule of action. Principal is generally used as an adjective, meaning first or most important. It is also used as a noun to mean a sum of money or the head of a school.

Precede, proceed. Precede means to go or come before. Proceed means to move forward or to carry on.

Provided, providing. Provided may be used as a conjunction, and means on condition, if. Providing is a verb meaning to prepare.

Remainder, rest, balance. Remainder applies to things only and implies that a comparatively small part is left. Rest applies to persons or things. Balance is applied only to the difference between the two sides of an account.

Respectively, respectfully. Respectively means in regular order. Respectfully means in a polite way.

A Supplementary list

Accept, except. Accept means a consent to receive. Except to make an exception.

Altar, alter. An altar is a shrine. Alter means to change.

Ascent, assent. An ascent is an upward slope. Assent means to consent.

Canvas, canvass. Canvas is a cloth. Canvass is a verb or noun meaning to solicit or a solicit.

Capital, capitol. Capital is the city. Capitol is the building.

Desert, dessert. Desert means to abandon. Dessert is a course served at the end of a dinner.

Diseased, deceased. Diseased means afflicted with sickness. Deceased means dead.

Hanged, hung. Hanged means to be executed by hanging.

CHAPTER IV

OFFICE PRACTICE

GENERAL OBJECTIVES:

1. To obtain a knowledge of office appliances.

2. To become familar with the different classes of mail, postage rates, wrapping packages, and other phases of the Postal Department.

3. To become familar with different means of communication: telephone, telegraph, cable service, wireless, and radio.

4. To become familar with the more common business papers: checks, notes, drafts, invoices, deposit slips, and others.

5. To learn how to alphabetize and to learn something of the different methods of filing.

Most of the so-called "office practice" texts contain much material that is of little or no value to the high school commercial student of the Middle West. In industrial cities there is perhaps more need for specialization; but because of the small percentage of commercial students who actually secure positions in offices, it is a waste of time in this section of the couhtry to teach something they will hot use.

The units in this section have been chosen because the material is important to all alike. Everyone should know how to use the telephone; all should be able to wrap properly a package; and certainly everyone should know how to use correctly his own letter file. All students should

know how to write a check, but probably very few will have occasion to use a trade acceptance. What can be taught in the average high school of the more complicated filing systems will be very little, and what can be taught will be forgotten very soon because of the lack of actual practice under actual office conditions.

The unit on the mail should be studied before the holiday season so students will have opportunity to put into practice their work on package wrapping. This will also give the instructor an opportunity to stress early mailing.

OFFICE MACHINES

AIMS:

1. To get acquainted with the different machines now used in office work.

2. To acquire some skill in the manipulation of the duplicating machine, mimeograph, and adding machine.

3. To become highly skilled in the use of the typewriter.

The present is often known as the Machine Age. Not many years ago the business man spent much time writing a letter with a quill pen; now a secretary writes several letters in the same length of time.

The modern office of today contains much complicated machinery. These machines may be grouped under five heads.[1]

> Those which reproduce the written page, as the mimeograph; those which reproduce the spoken words, as the Dictaphone and Ediphone; those which make business records, as the bookkeeping and billing machines; those which print addresses and other similar records, as the addressograph; and those which make various computations, as the adding machine.

Certainly no one questions the advisability of teaching business students in high school to use the typewriter, but many of these students graduate with a major in commercial subjects without even having heard of many office machines. Because of the expense, many schools will have only one or two office machines. Some have only a gelatin duplicating machine; others may have a mimeograph. Whatever the amount

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[1] M. I. Slade, M. H. Hurley, K. I. Clippinger, Secretarial Training, (Chicago: Ginn and Company, 1934), p. 133.

of equipment in the school, there is always the possibility of securing more from local stores or offices for demonstration purposes.

Duplicating Machines

There are three types of duplicating machines: those which require the use of a gelatin pad; those which use a stencil; and those which duplicate from type.

The more common duplicating machines requiring the use of gelatin are the Ditto and Speedograph. Many others are on the market. A master copy must be prepared by using a special carbon, ink, or ribbon. The master copy is laid face down on the dampened gelatin surface. The moisture slightly dissolves the imprint and thus the matter to be duplicated is transferred from the master copy to the gelatin. When paper is brought in contact with this the imprint is readily transferred back. Under favorable conditions as many as one hundred or more copies may be easily made from one master copy. This is the cheapest means of duplicating if a large number of copies is not required.

The mimeograph is the machine which uses a stencil. letters, forms, drawings, etc., may be produced in large quantities. The first step is to prepare the stencil. This is done by setting the typewriter on "Stencil" and typing the material directly on a chemically treated sheet of fibrous paper with a backing sheet.

> Before typing the stencil the operator must be certain that the type on her typewriter is clean. In typing the stencil she must use a sharp, firm touch. She must also bear in mind that certain letters, such as c, e, and o, which have a smaller printing surface, must be struck lightly to avoid cutting the letters, leaving a blot when printed. The characters &, $, #, %, and @, and the capitals M, W, and E have broad, flat surfaces and need a firmer touch than in ordinary typing in order to make a clear impression on the stencil. If typewriter keys seem to be too sharp for stencil work they may be dulled with emery cloth without injuring them for regular writing.[2]

Errors may be corrected by coating over the error with a layer of correction fluid, then re-writing over this fluid.

After the stencil has been cut, the backing sheet is removed and the stencil is placed face down on the cylinder of the mimeograph. Ink feeds through the cuts in the stencil from the cylinder. The modern mimeograph is run by a small electric motor and feeds the paper automatically. It also counts the copies.

Dictating Machines

There are several dictation machines on the market. Such a machine consists of three units: the dictation unit, the reproducing unit, and the shaving unit. The dictator places a cylindrical record on the dictation unit, which looks much like an old fashioned phonograph, and applies the needle to the record. He speaks into a mouth piece, and as he speaks the words are recorded on this record. Several letters may be put on one record. After a record is full, it is taken by the stenographer and placed on the reproducing unit. She

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[2] Ibid., p. 136.

wears earphones, and types the material as she listens to the record. The machine may be adjusted so that the voice is loud or soft and the tempo quick or slow. After the record has been transcribed, the cylinder is placed in the shaving unit and shaved so that it will be ready to use again.

Bookkeeping and Billing Machines

These machines are much more complex than calculating and adding machines, and an operator needs detailed instruction in order to master them. Some of these machines show almost human ingenuity. They add and subtract; they print debits, credits, and balances in different columns, and when a calculation results in a fraction of a cent, will even determine whether to drop the fraction or to add on another. Because these machines are too complex, they will not be discussed here.

The Addressograph

Where letters or circulars are sent constantly to the same list of persons, much time may be saved by using the addressograph. Stencils of paper or metal are made for each customer, and filed in trays. When the time comes to address the letters they are passed by mechanical means past a printing center, which has an inked roller that presses down on the top of the stencil and brings it in contact with the envelope. The envelopes are passed automatically through a slot under the stencil. This machine runs by electricity, so saves much time in addressing all sorts of mail.

Adding and Calculating Machines

Adding machines differ as to whether they print the figures and results on paper, or just show figures and results by means of figures which appear in little windows; and whether they are equipped with only ten keys, or with nine banks of several keys. Some machines just add, while the calculating machine adds, subtracts, divides, multiplies, finds square root, and many other things. Like the billing machine, the modern calculating machine is capable of doing many seemingly impossible things.

Envelope Stamper

This machine moistens and places postage stamps on the envelopes automatically. It uses stamps which are made in a roll. In offices where out-going mail is heavy these are necessary.

Envelope Sealer

This works somewhat like the stamper. It automatically moistens and seals the envelopes as they are fed through. This machine is also a time saver in offices having a large amount of correspondence.

Check Protectors

These machines are designed to print the amount on a check in such a way that it will be impossible for dishonest persons to alter the amount. The printing is usually in color, and the type perforates the paper, so that it is impossible to change it.

THE MAIL

AIMS:

1. To learn to prepare outgoing mail.
2. To learn the classes of mail and special features of each.
3. To learn to figure parcel post and other postage.
4. To study the special phases of the postal system, such as: registry, insurance, special delivery, air mail, stamp permits, and money orders.

Everyone enjoys receiving letters and packages, but few persons have information concerning the Postal Department or the rules and regulations which govern the carrying of these letters and packages to enable them to fully cooperate. This is a subject in which every student should be vitally interested, whether he intends to do office work or not.

The more important facts concerning the mails will be considered in this unit. If persons follow a few simple rules when mailing letters and packages, much needless confusion will many times be avoided at the post office, not to mention the delivery of parcel post in better condition. It is the duty of persons taking advantage of the postal system to cooperate by mailing letters and packages which are correctly addressed, wrapped, and packed.

Each year, several weeks before Christmas, the Postal Department is sending to the schools a sheet of information concerning the wrapping and mailing of packages. This unit should be studied at that time.

Classification of Mail

Domestic mail matter is divided by the postal laws and regulations into four classes, as follows:

First Class. This includes written matter (including typed matter), whether sealed or not; any matter sealed so that it cannot be inspected; postal cards and private mailing cards. Air mail, whether letters or parcels, is first-class mail. The rate of postage outside the local zone is three cents an ounce or fraction of an ounce on letters or other sealed matter; within the local zone the rate is two cents an ounce or fraction thereof. The rate on post cards is one cent, regardless of zone.

Second Class. This includes newspapers and periodicals. Publications may be mailed by others than news agents or publishers if they are marked "Entered as second-class matter." The rate is one cent for each two ounces or fraction thereof regardless of distance or weight.

Third Class. This includes chiefly books, circulars, catalogues, and other printed matter. A circular is defined in the U. S. Official Postal Guide as "a printed letter sent in identical terms to several persons." Anything handwritten or typed in the body of the letter for any purpose other than to correct a genuine typographical error, subjects the circular to first-class postage, even though unsealed. The weight limit is eight ounces. Parcels exceeding that weight should be mailed as fourth-class matter. The rate of postage is one and a half cents for each two ounces or fraction thereof.

Fourth Class. See parcel post.

Special-Delivery. Special-delivery mail is delivered soon after it reaches the post office in the city of its destination. A special stamp is needed or the same amount of postage extra. The fees on first-class are, in addition to the regular postage: up to 2 pounds, 10 cents; over 2 pounds and not more than 10 pounds, 20 cents; over 10 pounds, 25 cents. For other than first-class matter the fees are: up to 2 pounds, 15 cents; over 2 pounds and not more than 10 pounds, 25 cents; over 10 pounds, 35 cents.

Registered Mail. The registry system provides special safeguards for the transmission of money and other valuable mail to domestic destinations. All mailable first-, second-, and third-class matter for domestic destinations may be registered; the registry fees range all the way from 15 cents for a $15 valuation up to $1 for a $1,000 valuation.

Air Mail. The rate on domestic air mail is six cents an ounce, or fraction thereof. No other postage is required. Packages up to 70 pounds in weight may be carried by this means, provided the size does not exceed 100 inches, length and girth combined. Air mail may be insured, registered, or sent C. O. D. Special air-mail stamps are preferable but ordinary ones may be used. Air mail may be deposited in any street letter box, mail chute, or at the post office.

Parcel Post

Fourth-class mail is known popularly as "parcel post." It includes merchandise, catalogues, books, farm products, and other mailable articles that are not included in the other classes, and that weigh more than eight ounces. The weight limit is 70 pounds, and the limit of size of such packages is 100 inches, length and girth combined. The country is divided into eight parcel post zones, and the rate of postage is determined by these zones.

A letter or any writing must not be placed inside a package. This would subject the entire package to the first-class rate. Packages must not be sealed unless a special permit has been obtained from the government. They should be tied with a strong cord. The paper used to wrap a package should be tough and of heavy weight. Raw edges should not be left exposed because of the danger of tearing. It is usually a good plan to wrap the article in cardboard before

using the paper, especially if it is anything that might bend or break easily. Glassware or other material that might break very easily should be protected with extra wrapping, and the package should be stamped "fragile."

Third- and fourth-class matter, mailed at or addressed to any post office in the United States, may be insured against loss. The maximum amount of insurance is $200. The fee is 5¢ up to a $5 valuation; 10¢ for a valuation up to $25; 15¢ for $50; and so on up. These fees are in addition to the regular postage.

Third- and fourth-class matter and sealed matter of any class bearing postage at the first-class rate may be sent C. O. D. between money-order offices of the United States. The maximum amount collectible on a single article is $200.

The zones and rates for parcel post:

Zone	Distance	First pound	Additional pounds
1	50 miles	7¢	1¢ per 2 lb.
2	150	8	1.1 per 1 lb.
3	300	9	2
4	600	10	3.5
5	1000	11	5.3
6	1400	12	7
7	1800	14	9
8	1800 or more	15	11

COMMUNICATION

THE TELEPHONE

AIMS:

1. To learn a desirable telephone technique.

2. To learn the types and styles of telephones.

3. To learn how to make different kinds of calls.

Telephoning ranks second in frequency among secretarial duties.[3] A large percentage of the homes in the United States contain telephones. Certainly this common-place instrument is well known to all, yet there are many factors which go to make up a desirable technique of telephoning which are not known or are not used by many telephone users.

The following material is presented in outline form because it lends itself especially well to that type of study. Students may get additional information from the local telephone company for class reports and discussion. A visit to the local office would be of interest and of value.

A. Telephone etiquette
   1. Voice clear, low-pitched, well modulated
   2. Courtesy in answering very important
   3. Should be considerate of operator
   4. Should not re-ring operator immediately if she does not answer

B. Making a call on the manual telephone
   1. Be sure of number
   2. Speak with lips about ½ to 1 inch from mouth piece
   3. Pause between number groups: three-five:four-one
   4. If number ends in two zeros, as 3500, say: three-five hundred

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[3] Rupert Sorelle and John R. Gregg, Applied Secretarial Practice, (Chicago: Gregg Publishing Co., 1934), p. 210.

5. If number ends in three zeros, as 5000, say: five thousand
6. Use name of firm in answering

C. Recalling operator
When necessary to attract operator's attention, after placing a call, move hook slowly up and down.

D. The dial telephone
1. No operator
2. The dial tone a steady hum
3. Keep receiver off hook and dial numbers in clockwise direction
4. Let dial return to original position each time
5. After dialing a ringing signal--an intermittent buzzing sound--indicating that telephone is ringing
6. If line is busy, the busy signal: a prolonged buzz-buzz-buzz

E. Incoming calls
1. Answer call promptly and pleasantly
2. Do not say "hello" if in an office
3. Information given over telephone should be confirmed if important
4. Have pencil and paper handy; do not keep your caller waiting while you get them

F. Information
If number cannot be found, call or dial information and give name and address, if it is known. Usually the address alone is not enough.

G. Long Distance
1. Station to station calls
a. Caller willing to speak to anyone
b. less expensive than person-to-person
2. Person-to-person calls
a. Connection with a particular person
b. Expense greater than for station-to-station

H. Appointment calls
1. Definite time for conversation is set
2. Operator gets party and calls you at that time
3. Rates same as for person-to-person call

THE TELEGRAPH

AIMS:

1. To learn the types of telegraphic messages
2. To learn to write a telegraph correctly

Telegraphic communications are sent by wire. Only a few minutes are required to send a message from New York to San Francisco, whereas several days are needed to send a letter. There are two large telegraph companies in this country, the Western Union and the Postal Telegraph. Each have an office in practically every second or first class city throughout the country. The message to be telegraphed may be telephoned to the telegraph office, and the charge will be made on the next telephone bill.

Outline for study:

A. Telegraphic communications
   1. Sent by wire
   2. New York to San Francisco in less than 30 min.
   3. Telegrams emphasize the importance of messages
   4. Western Union and Postal Telegraph the largest
   5. Messages may be telephoned to telegraph office
   6. Business offices may have call boxes which, when rung in, register at telegraph office
   7. By arrangement private telegraph lines may be established between distant offices--thus speed and accuracy

B. Kinds of telegraphic communications
   1. Telegram
      a. Full rate messages which may be sent at any hour of the day or night
      b. Plain language, code, or cipher may be used
      c. Minimum charge for ten words
      d. In cases where more than one signature is used, such as James Scott and Arthur Brown, all except the last signature charged for
      e. No charge for family signatures
      f. Descriptive words added to a signature are charged, as: President, Treasurer

g. Code words that are not dictionary words are charged on a basis of five letters to a word
h. In cipher messages, charges are made on the basis of five letters to a word
i. If cipher contains figures, each figure is charged as a word

2. Day letters
a. Long messages that need not be sent and delivered in short time
b. Cost of day letter of fifty words is one and one-half times that for a ten word telegram
c. Minimum rate for day letters on fifty words
d. Telegrams given preference over day letters

3. Night messages
a. Equivalent to telegrams but sent at night
b. Accepted at any time before 2 a.m., to be delivered on the morning of the next day
c. Rates lower than for telegrams and day letters
d. least expensive means of sending short message

4. Night letters
a. Cheapest telegraphic service--inexpensive substitute for mail
b. Filing time up to 2 a.m. and delivered on morning of next business day
c. Cost one-fifth that for telegrams

C. Other points to know
1. The order "repeat back" may be given--charge one-half regular rate
2. The order "report delivery" may be given--small extra charge
3. Sender must keep in mind different time zones
4. Telegram may be sent to passengers on trains

Cable and Radio Service

These services are furnished by both the Postal and Western Union Telegraph Companies. The counting of words in these messages differs somewhat from the counting in telegrams. All words in cablegrams, including address and signature, are counted and words containing over fifteen letters are counted at the rate of fifteen letters to a word. There are sever types of cable and radio services. A higher charge is made for the more rapid service. As in telegraph service, night letters may be sent at a much reduced rate.

Wireless messages are used between ships and shore stations, between ships, from airplanes to ground stations, from country to country, and for any type of communication if there are stations equipped to send and receive the messages. Cablegrams are sent by means of submarine cables between countries separated by large bodies of water.

ALPHABETIZING AND FILING

AIMS:

1. To acquaint the student with the more important rules for alphabetic indexing.

2. To learn the different types of filing.

3. To stress the need for a systematic keeping of all valuable papers belonging to an individual as well as those in the business office.

Every person who keeps a personal file and every secretary or stenographer should have some information concerning the subject of filing. A good filing system is indispensible in an office because all business records must be kept so that they may be found without delay when they are needed. Filing is a system of properly classifying all business data and records and placing them in their proper places.

There are four methods of filing: alphabetic, numeric, geographic, and subject. The alphabetic system is more important for the average student than the others because this method is used to some extent in all offices and in the filing of personal papers, while the other systems are applicable to special types of businesses only.

The process of alphabetizing is preliminary to actual filing. If a mistake is made in alphabetizing a letter, it may be filed improperly and thus become lost. Only the more common rules for alphabetizing will be studied in this unit.

Rules for filing[4]

1. Transpose the names of individuals, considering the surname first, then the given name, and finally the middle initial if any.

   Henry J. Blackington Blackington, Henry J

2. Arrange all material in A-Z sequence of letters to the last letter of the item, considering each word separately.

   Abbot, Abbott, Abott, etc.

3. Names of firms, corporations, and institutions are indexed as written, except where they include the full names of individuals, in which case the surnames are considered first, then the given name or initial, and the remainder of title.

   John J. Harris and Company Harris, John J. & Co.
   Wilbur Stationery Company Wilbur Stationery Company

4. Parts of names which are ommitted in indexing and filing:

   A. The article "the" is disregarded, unless it occurs in a foreign name, when it is indexed as written. If "the" is a part of a name, it is placed in parentheses. If it is the first word of a domestic name, it is placed in parentheses and at the end.

      Grant & Kinsman the Jewelers
      Grant & Kinsman (the) Jewelers

      The Grant & Kinsman Jewelry Co.
      Grant & Kinsman Jewelry Co. (the)

   B. Phrases such as Dept. of, Board of, etc, applied to the federal government and to state and municipal governments, are placed in parentheses after the words they modify and are disregarded in indexing.

      Department of Health Health (Department of)

   C. Apostrophe s ('s) indicating the possessive case is not considered.

      Dodd's Book Shop before Dodd, Harry A.

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[4] Madeleine Slade, Mabel Hurley, Kathryn Clippinger, Secretarial Training, (Chicago: Ginn and Company, 1934), pp. 98 ff

D. Always abbreviate Esq., Jr., Sr., Mr., Mrs., and do not consider these titles in filing. Esq. and Mr. should be used only in correspondence--letters, envelopes, and stencils--never on other records.

5. Parts of names which are included in indexing and filing are the following:

A. Ltd., Inc., Co., Son, Bros., Mfg., and Corp. are considered and when abbreviated are treated as though spelled in full.

B. S apostrophe (s') is considered.

6. Surnames or other names when used alone precede the same name having initials or given names.

Stearns Stearns, L. A. Stearns, William

7. An initial precedes a name beginning with that initial.

C. B. T. Cohant, A. B. Conant, M. Blais

8. Hyphenated firm names are treated as separate words, but other hyphenated words are treated as if they were one word.

Oil-O-Matic Heating Company
Oilimatic Company

price-list, price-ticket, trade-mark as one each.

9. Names beginning with numerals are alphabetized as though the numerals were spelled in full.

10. Names beginning with Mac, Mc, or M' are usually arranged for filing in the same order as they are spelled. In some systems of filing, the Mc names are in a special file before the M.

11. In general, abbreviations are treated as if they were spelled out in full. Thus, Mt., St., and Ft., are alphabetized as Mount, Saint, and Fort.

12. Names of universities containing state or city names are indexed under the name of the locality.

Texas, University of

13. Church names are filed according to the way the name appears.

The Church of the Transfiguration

BUSINESS PAPERS

AIMS:

1. To learn to fill out properly the more common business papers.

2. To acquire important information concerning business papers.

3. To acquire an appreciation of the importance of using great care in the handling of legal papers.

There is probably no unit in this entire course of more importance to the future American citizen than this one. Everyone has certain financial duties. Most persons at some time have occasion to sign or handle legal papers. The importance of knowing how to write a check or of knowing what kind of endorsement to use cannot be overestimated. The more technical legal forms should not be studied in detail. Students should have opportunity to become quite familar with checks especially. Checks should be written in class in order that all pupils may learn the proper technique. Emphasis should be placed on the promptness of cashing checks.

The writer believes that very little time should be given to business papers other than checks and notes. The more technical forms will mean little to high school pupils. Emphasis should be placed on endorsement, especially as to when an endorsement should be made. Much material is available on business papers in commercial law texts. The following discussion is brief and should be supplemented by class reports.

Checks

A check is an order directing a bank in which one has funds on deposit to pay a specified sum of money to a payee who is named or otherwise indicated in the check. Checks are usually written on the conventional forms supplied by the banks. Great care should be taken in filling out a check, so that there will be less chance of alteration. The figures should begin close to the dollar sign and the amount written in words should begin close to the left side of the paper. Checks should never be endorsed until they can be presented for payment. This is especially true if a blank endorsement has been used, because anyone finding such a check could cash it. Banks recommend the following practices in writing checks:[5]

Do not sign blank checks.
Always make out your checks in ink.
Write close up to the left on each line.
Draw a line through all unused space.
Avoid flourishes in writing.
Destroy all checks spoiled in drawing.
Never make out checks to "Bearer" or "Cash."

Check Indorsements

Usually a person must indorse a check before he can cash it. This is done by the holder of the check writing his name across the left end of the check. The name should be placed close to the end and close to the left edge of the paper so that someone else can not write above it. The name should be written identical with that on the face of the check. If the name on the face of the check is incorrectly written, indorse first as the name appears and again below that with

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[5] John R. Gregg and R. P. Sorelle, op. cit., p. 62.

the correct indorsement. The signing of one's name on the back of a check is known as blank indorsement. This type of indorsement should never be made until the holder is ready to cash the check, because once this indorsement is made anyone may cash the check. If it should be lost and found by a dishonest person, he could pass it to someone else for full value.

A safer method of indorsement is the restrictive indorsement. In this indorsement the indorser designates what must be done with the check. For example, if a check is given to Mr. Brown and he wishes to give it to Mr. Smith to pay a bill, he may indorse it: "Pay to the order of John Smith" and sign his own name below. If this check should be lost no one could cash it but Mr. Smith. If Mr. Brown desires to send it to the bank for deposit he should indorse it: "For deposit in the First National Bank," and sign his name below.

Certified checks

A certified check is easier to cash where one is not known than the regular check. One simply writes his personal check and takes it to his bank, where the cashier writes or stamps the word "certified" and the date and his signature across the face of the check. The bank then reserves the amount called for by the check for its payment or, in other words subtracts that amount from the depositor's balance. Since payment of the check is guaranteed by the bank, the certified check is usually acceptable where one's credit is unknown.

Drafts

A commercial draft is a form of order, sent through a bank from one person to another, requesting that a certain sum of money be paid to the person named in the draft. A bank draft is an order of one bank drawn upon another bank directing the payment of money to a specified payee. Drafts are of two kinds--time drafts and sight drafts. Time drafts are payable at some future time, while sight drafts are payable on presentation.

Drafts are used frequently for collection purposes. If Mr. Smith owes Mr. Jones a bill, Mr. Jones might draw a draft through his bank on Mr. Smith. The bank would present it to Mr. Smith for collection, and when he accepted it the money would be placed to the credit of Mr. Jones. This saves time and usually one is more apt to accept a draft than to pay the money to a collector.

Promissory Notes

A promissory note is a written promise to pay to another person a stated sum of money at a specified time. The one who signs or promises to pay the note is called the maker, and the one to whom the note is payable is the payee. When two or more persons jointly sign a note, it is called a joint note; each signer is responsible only for his share.

A note is usually made out for a definite time, but it may be without a definite time; this is known as a demand

note because it is due whenever payment is demanded. If the note is to draw interest, the words "with interest" written or printed in the note are necessary. Without these words interest can be collected only for the time the note runs after the date of maturity.

Receipts

A receipt is a written acknowledgment of money received, or of goods delivered, or for any other transaction for which it is desirable to have written evidence. Before signing receipts, one should read carefully to see that there isn't something else printed on the form that he doesn't know about. Receipts should be kept for at least a year as they are the legal evidence that you have met your obligations. Everyone should have a file in which such papers can be filed away.

CHAPTER V

PERSONAL PROBLEMS AND ADJUSTMENTS

GENERAL OBJECTIVES:

1. To help the student make an analysis of his personality so that he may realize his problems.

2. To help the student improve his personality.

3. To learn a desirable code of ethics for the office.

4. To emphasize the need for physical fitness and to learn how to be physically fit.

5. To learn how to apply for a position.

6. To make the student conscious that personal factors are just as important to him as text-book learning.

Educators are more in agreement than ever before that a certain amount of psychology is important for all students. A thorough understanding of personality and what it means to develop a desirable personality is of utmost importance to all who expect to live in harmony with others. These units should be taught in such a way as to meet the actual problems of the pupils. It is not the writer's intention to make this a class in psychology; the theory should be left out. Each student, when he has completed these following units, should feel that he has himself in more complete mastery; that he understands himself better; and that he is better able to match wits with those of his fellow-men.

PERSONALITY

AIMS:

1. To enable pupils to enrich their personalities by studying the desirable and undesirable traits of personality and by analyzing their own personalities.

2. To emphasize the need for desirable personality traits not only because of their importance in helping one be successful in his work, but also because of their influence on one's personal happiness.

Many employers consider personality traits of more importance to the secretarial position than the mechanical skills. They do not mean that we may dispense with skills, but that skills may be quickly learned while traits are something that cannot be acquired by merely studying about them for a short time. Much time and thought must be given to bring about the slightest adjustment. This is true because of the many factors which influence personality and because many times the individual never becomes aware of the problem or does not know how to change the situation. This unit meets a most vital need for the average student, because life is becoming increasingly complex to him while he is traveling through the senior high school level.

There are numerous rating scales on the market which may be used as a help in making the personal analysis.* Each student should be guided in making an honest and critical analysis of himself. Once this is done the teacher may

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* See bibliography for Chapter V.

profitably have personal conferences with students, gaining their confidence and helping them to find solutions to their problems. Once the problem is apparent the solution will be much easier. The teacher should at all times encourage students to seek and maintain high ideals because as this is done during adolescence the chances are much greater for high-quality business dealings later.

The following list of traits is the result of a study made to ascertain, if possible, the most desirable traits for a secretary to have. The forty-five traits are listed in the order of frequency:[1]

accuracy	memory	curiosity
responsibleness	poise	forcefullness
dependability	self-confidence	foresight
intelligence	graciousness	thoughtfulness
courtesy	honesty	thoroughness
initiative	health	willingness
judgment	industriousness	modesty (Not conceit)
tact	executive ability	originality
pleasantness	loyalty	patience
personal appearance	pleasant voice	resourcefulness
interest in work	orderliness	self-control
speed	grooming	versatility
adaptability	alertness	fairness
business likeness	drive	self-respect
neatness	ambition	sense of humor

Supplementary list

promptness	education	consideration
good breeding	cheerfulness	professional skill
discrimination	discretion	

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[1] John R. Gregg, and Rupert P. Sorelle, Applied Secretarial Practice, (Chicago: The Gregg Publishing Co., 1934), p. 7.

In terms of the list of traits, the following are a few of the many questions which may be used for personal analysis:

1. Am I clean in my personal habits?
2. Am I neat and trim in my appearance?
3. Have I unpleasant mannerisms?
4. Am I interested in my work?
5. Do I appear modest and unassuming?
6. Am I tactful?
7. Am I abounding in good health and energy?
8. Am I courteous and thoughtful?
9. Do I have and use common sense?
10. Do I talk too much?
11. Do I stick to the difficult job or am I easily discouraged?
12. Am I open minded and willing to consider suggestions and to learn from others?
13. Am I cheerful in my relations towards others?
14. Am I ambitious and do I strive to improve?
15. Do I have a desirable type of dignity?
16. Do I always control my temper?
17. Do I take advantage of others for my personal gain?
18. Am I entirely dependable?

OFFICE ETIQUETTE

AIMS:

1. To learn factors which go to make up a desirable code of ethics for a stenographer.

2. To emphasize those things not usually found in text-books which are important to the success of anyone who must work with others.

It is a generally accepted fact today that there are many things directly responsible for the success of a stenographer other than just knowing how to do the work. Because a stenographer is mingling with strangers as well as with the regular personnel of the office, it is imperative that she make a favorable impression at all times; and many of the factors commonly considered unimportant may reap huge dividends of the wrong kind.

There is probably nothing in this unit which will sound new to any student. Yet most students have given no serious thought to a personal application. There is material here for much interesting discussion. Do not put this unit into the student's hands just for his reading, but rather spend some time discussing the reasons for these rules and how they may affect the student.

1. If the office opens at 8:30, the stenographer should be ready to go to work at 8:25; if closing time is 5:30, she should not be fumbling for the vanity bag at 5:25.
2. Look up words about which you are in doubt. A misspelled word may prove more serious than one may think.
3. A thing that has to be whispered isn't worth saying. It's hard to have faith in people who talk behind anyone's back.

4. Ambitious men think nothing of working overtime, but girls often put up an awful fuss about it. Overtime work is usually the most important work, and is occasionally quite necessary.
5. Personal telephone calls from the office should be few and far between.
6. Never form the habit of visiting during office hours; it is easy to find people who are glad to visit.
7. The chewy-sing-song or brusque tone has no place in the office; use a courteous obliging one in its stead.
8. Remember that the professional actress does not make-up in public; why should the stenographer? Also remember that natural colors are much more valuable than artificial ones.
9. Don't type letters with lively fingers and a dozing brain; know what they are about so that mistakes may be corrected.
10. It goes without saying that the person who wishes to make a good impression will seek to make himself as attractive as possible.
11. Keep in mind that the standards of dress in a business office emphasize neatness, serviceability, and unobtrusiveness; a flashy or loud costume will probably prove disastrous.
12. Avoid excessive jewelry and perfumery.
13. Talk with a well modulated tone, and do not talk too much. Remember too, that slang is not good form.
14. "Smile and the world smiles with you," is an old adage; it is still true.
15. If you make a mistake, pay the price. Be a good sport; do not let someone else get the blame for your error.
16. The wasteful stenographer spends most of her time interviewing for new positions. Only inefficient workers are wasters.
17. Keep materials neatly arranged, and leave your desk clean. There is an old saying to the effect that a good housekeeper "has a place for everything and everything in its place."
18. Be considerate of the new members of the office force. Remember, you were very inexperienced yourself when you started.
19. Do not ask favors of your employer if he cannot grant to all employees the same consideration.
20. Some individuals are habitual fault-finders. This is a dreaded disease--keep immune to it.
21. Show your ambition; don't just talk about it.
22. Take pride in your work. Say to yourself: "I want this job to amount to something." Do not write a letter carelessly, or run the chance of having work sent back because it isn't neat.

23. Have ideas; try to find out more about your job than the other employees know.
24. Don't be afraid to change ribbons, cut stencils, or do other things that soil your hands--they will wash.

Someone has written this:*

"If I were a stenographer, I'd be proud of my independence and of my job. I'd get from it something more than money, something more than even experience--I'd get the assurance that comes from doing a thing well, the freedom that is the reward for achievement. I would have a goal beyond the weekly pay-check and I would find out how interesting, how downright exciting, modern business can be."

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* Source unknown.

PHYSICAL FITNESS OF THE STENOGRAPHER

AIMS:

1. To teach the pupil the important factors of physical fitness.

2. To teach what determines physical fitness as it is affected by the office.

Much of the efficiency of the office force depends upon the physical fitness of the workers. Unless the stenographer is mentally alert she will not be able to cope with the many situations of the day which demand accuracy, quick decisions, and speed. The factors which make for physical fitness may be considered under two heads: arrangement of the office equipment and care of the body. The following outline touches only the surface of this subject. The teacher may spend much additional time on it if she desires. Much material is available in any school library.

A. Arrangement of office equipment.

1. Place desk so as to get the benefit of natural light. Artificial light should be used on when necessary.
2. Arrange filing equipment, machines, etc. so that walking is reduced to a minimum. A systematic arrangement of tools makes for greater efficiency.
3. Use adjustable chairs or have tables the proper height. Both feet should rest squarely on the floor and the typist's position should permit the elbows to be slightly lower than the typewriter keyboard and on a level with the desk.

B. Care of the body.

1. Proper posture is very important in the prevention of fatigue. The back should be straight; it is easy to slump when sitting at a desk, but to do so develops

hollow chest and round shoulders. The person who habitually sits and stands correctly not only feels better, but appears more confident, self-assured, and capable.

2. The office worker must eat well-balanced lunches. Her efficiency during the day will depend upon the food she has eaten to provide that vitality. Eat plenty of fruits and vegetables and a minimum or rich pastries.
3. To keep physically fit, the average adult requires at least eight hours of sleep each night. This does not mean that the stenographer should deny herself all social pleasures, but the keeping of late hours should not be the habit. If such is the case, the result is dull spirits and tired nerves.
4. For the person who sits at a desk the greater part of the time, recreation is indispensible. Much of it should be out of doors. Swimming, tennis, archery, and similar light sports are fine. At least once a week a long hike is especially beneficial. Nature is a tonic for both body and spirit.
5. Wear clothing that is comfortable. Shoes that are too tight will result in a sour temper; the office worker owes it to herself to wear suitable clothing.
6. Take care of the eyes. Gaurd against abuse of the eyes. Poor light, lack of proper exercise for the eyes, and reading too long at a time are some of the things that should be guarded against. One should have his eyes tested each year.
7. Personal cleanliness is highly important. Probably little need be said about this factor, yet a job may be lost or a business deal not transacted because someone has neglected to follow the simple rules of body hygiene. Bad breath and body odors offend quickly.
8. Beautiful teeth are especially desirous, both in mental and physical fitness. Money spent for dental work is a sound investment and will pay large returns. It must be remembered that teeth cannot be beautiful unless they are clean; use a tooth brush three times a day.
9. Germs thrive under dirty finger nails; be sure your hands are clean--they are your personal representatives.

APPLYING FOR A POSITION

AIM:

To acquaint the student with the correct technique of applying for a position by giving him practice in writing letters of application, making his own personal data sheet, and by discussing the many factors that must be considered by the successful job seeker.

There was a time when a young man or young woman could, upon deciding that it was time to get a job, start out and go from place to place until something was found. That time is past; it is now necessary to employ all the skill and tact one possesses and even then the ranks of unemployed are overflowing.

The unexperienced student going to apply for his first position is tackling a big job. He must impress the employer, yet he must not appear egotistical. His manner of speech and dress, his ability to answer questions, his attitude concerning his ability to give satisfaction, references as to character, and many other factors will share in determining the success of the applicant. If the prospective office worker goes job hunting primed with all available information on applying for the first position, he will at least have some feeling of confidence and will not blindly make many of the errors that numerous job seekers do make.

This unit should be studied during the last six-weeks period of the second semester because some students will have

occasion during that period to apply for jobs. Pupils should write letters of application as part of their class work. These letters may be used for class discussion later. Each student should make his own personal data sheet. Members of the class may procure application blanks from numerous industries to study. These blanks may be discussed and compared in class and will serve as excellent class work material. Since applicants for positions usually need to fill in a printed form, this is good training.

Writing the Letter of Application

The wise merchant does not wait until the goods are on his shelves to plan his sales campaign; he gives this important problem careful attention early--even before the goods have been ordered. So, also, the practical business student will not wait until graduation day before considering how he may best secure a position.

The letter of application is one of the important factors in securing a position. If your letter is written on the typewriter, the letter itself will serve as an indication of your ability to use the machine, and, for this reason, care should be taken that the letter is well arranged on good quality paper, that there are no errors in grammar or spelling, that no typing errors appear, and that the type is clean.

A letter of application is a sales letter, because the writer is attempting to sell his services. Of course such a letter is usually highly competitive because many people will

be applying for the same position; therefore it is essential that the applicant present himself in the best possible way. One must be especially careful not to make statements that might be interpreted as being egotistical.

The letter should be brief and should be accompanied by a personal data sheet rather than contain such information which lends itself better to outline form than to letter form. First, the applicant should state that he wishes to apply for the position. He should call attention to the personal data sheet which he is enclosing, and should ask for an interview. If the applicant does not use the personal data sheet, he will need to include the same information in his letter. In either case, he will probably be asked to fill out a formal application.

The Photograph

It is better to apply for a position in person, but when this is not possible the photograph should accompany the letter of application and personal data sheet. The photograph should be small, approximately 2½ x 3 inches, and should be attached to the upper left-hand corner of the letter or data sheet. This picture should not be taken of the applicant dressed in evening clothes or with excessive make-up or jewelry. It should not be a side view.

The Interview

The interview is rapidly becoming the most important factor in securing a position. Usually the interview will be secured through the letter of application, although it may be

secured by a telephone conversation or some other way.

The employer will probably set the time or ask the applicant what time would best suit him. The applicant should be on hand at least five minutes before the hour set. It is during these few minutes of waiting that many persons fail to make a desirable impression. If you need to wait, take a seat on one of the visitors' chairs that are usually placed near the entrance to the office. Do not sprawl in the chair or tip the chair on its hind legs; let the feet rest flat on the floor; let the hands rest on the arms of the chair or in your lap; above all, do not powder your nose or straighten your necktie.

> When you are called for the interview, rise and walk alertly forward until you are within a few feet of the interviewer; then pause and stand at ease until until you are invited to be seated. Let the employer make the first advances and try to take your cue from his attitude.[2]

Be sure your campaign has been planned in advance. Have ready definite information regarding your education, your previous business experience, references, etc. If you have secured your appointment by telephone, and have not written a letter of application or sent a personal data sheet, it is good practice to prepare your personal data sheet and then present it to the employer at the close or during the interview. Have it neatly typed on good stationery. If no opportunity arises during the interview to present the personal data sheet, present it at the close.

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[2] Rufus Stickney and Blanche Stickney, Office and Secretarial Training, (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1933), p. 310.

One thing that will vitally affect your success when you appear for your interview is the first impression which you make, and it should go without saying that such assets as clean linen, polished shoes, clean finger nails, well-arranged hair, etc. are important.

Letters of Recommendation

Many times the one seeking employment will be asked to fill out a formal application for a special position. This form will ask for references, and if you need to fill out an application blank it may be necessary to submit names without first having an opportunity to secure permission from the persons whose names you have used. If this has been the case, notify them at your first opportunity, either by telephone or by letter. It is much better to secure permission before using the names, however.

Letters of recommendation may be secured in advance and taken with the applicant, but it is better to submit the names of persons you wish for references, and let the employer get in touch with them; because employers usually feel that the recommendation is much more valuable if made directly and not through the person seeking employment.

Letters of recommendation are addressed "To Whom It May Concern" or to the interviewer personally. The latter way is more valuable.

PERSONAL DATA SHEET

General Information:

Name Miss Anybody Date July 9, 1937

Address 769 E. Walnut Age 18

Nationality American Birth August 4, 1919

Education:

Hutchinson Senior High School. Graduated 1937.

Hutchinson Junior College. Attended 1937-38.

Experience:

Clerked at Kress Store for three summers.

Office work for Dr. Smith, summer of 1936.

Work especially prepared for:

Stenography

Typing

Simple bookkeeping

Mimeographing

References:

Mr. J. F. Gilliland, Principal, Senior High School.

Miss Ada Cannady, Instructor of English

Dr. K. Smith

Note: The personal data sheet may vary according to the needs of the individual. Other heads may be inserted if necessary. The photograph may be attached to this sheet.

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Babenroth, A. Charles, and McNamara, Edward J., English in Modern Business, New York: Prentice-Hall, 1932.

Brown, Thomas Kite, The Secretary's Desk Book, Chicago: The John C. Winston Company, 1933.

Charters, W. W. and Whitley, Isadore B., Analysis of Secretarial Duties and Traits, Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins Company, 1924.

Gregg, John Robert, and Sorelle, Rupert P., Applied Secretarial Practice, Chicago: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1934.

Hagar, Hubert A., Wilson, Lillian G., and Hutchinson, E. L., The English of Business, Chicago: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1934.

Neulen, L. N., "Broadening the Field of Typewriting Instruction," Federation Notes (National Commercial Teachers Federation Journal), Vol. III, No. 5, March, 1931.

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Stickney, Rufus, and Stickney, Blanche G., Office and Secretarial Training, New York: Prentice-Hall, 1933.

Weersing, Frederick J., University of Iowa Monographs in Education, 1928.

CHAPTER REFERENCES

Chapter II

The typewriting textbook used in class will contain sufficient review material.

Chapter III

English handbooks which are available in school library.

Babenroth, A. C. and NmNamara, E. J. English in Modern Business, New York: Prentice-Hall, 1932. An excellent treatment of English mechanics. Good on the various types of letters.

Brown, Thomas Kite, The Secretary's Deskbook, Chicago: The John C. Winston Company, 1933. Part I, pages 7 to 158 are excellent material on mechanics and correct usage.

Hagar, H. A., Wilson, I. G., Hutchinson, E. L., The English of Business, Chicago: Gregg Publishing Company, 1934. A handbook on English Grammar. Written in simple style and very accurate.

Reigner, Charles G., Applied Punctuation, Chicago: The H. M. Rowe Company, 1936. An excellent workbook on punctuation. Arranged in lessons for class use.

Sorelle, R. P., Gregg, J. R., Applied Secretarial Practice, Chicago: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1934. Section 2, Writing Effective English, pages 84-90, is well written but brief.

Chapter IV

Slade, M. L., Hurley, M. H., Clippinger, K. L., Secretarial Training, Chicago: Ginn and Company, 1934. A textbook written to coordinate the work of secretarial classes with the actual needs and requirements of the business employer. Especially good on filing.

Sorelle and Gregg, (See under Chapter III). An excellent treatment of office practice topics. Especially strong on filing systems.

Stickney, Rufus, and Stickney, Blanche, Office and Secretarial Training, New York: Prentice-Hall, 1933. A good text on the subject of secretarial training. Contains an interesting section on reference books, and is especially good in Chapter 10 on applying for a position.

Chapter V

Psychology texts which may be found in the school library may be used for special reports on personality.

The following rating scales are good:

"Personal Inventory" published by Hamilton Republican, Hamilton, N. Y.

"Personality Schedule" published by the University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois. By Thurstone.

"Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules" published by World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, and Chicago.

"Character-Conduct Self-Rating Scale for Students" Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas. By Dr. E. J. Brown. This scale is especially good for use in this class because it is exceptionally easy to use.