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FEDERAL COOPERATION

in

AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION WORK

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

and

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION

By

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FOREWORD

During the past quarter of a century there have been rather continuous and persistent efforts for Federal aid to education. Twenty-one years ago the Congress of the United States enacted the Smith-Lever Agricultural Extension Act, and 3 years later it passed the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act. Under the Smith-Lever Act and subsequent related legislation, agricultural extension work has been developed in this country on a large scale, involving an annual expenditure of more than twenty million dollars. Likewise, the Smith-Hughes Act and subsequent related legislation have resulted in the establishment of systems of vocational education which enroll annually more than 1 million persons and cost the States and the Federal Government more than 30 million dollars a year. An additional amount approximating 2 million dollars is spent annually for vocational rehabilitation. The appropriations have embodied the principle of cooperation between the Federal Government and the States in the control and administration of the educational program for which the grants were made. The important programs now operated on this principle together with the effects that they may have on educational practices, governmental policies, and social and economic situations make it advisable to record the early history of the development of cooperative educational programs by the Federal Government, to recite the legislative enactments authorizing them, and to review recent legislative proposals that would affect them.

Much information collected from widely scattered sources is here made available on (a) the social, economic, and educational background out of which came the movement for these forms of Federal participation in education, (b) the enactment of the legislation, and (c) the organization and operation of the systems of agricultural extension work, vocational education, and vocational rehabilitation. Thus, the study reported in this bulletin contributes not only to educational history but to an understanding of present-day questions. The bulletin should prove useful to students of education, sociology, economics, and government, and to other persons interested in the development of national policies in education.

BESS GOODYKOONTZ,
Assistant Commissioner.

INTRODUCTION

The object of this study is to trace the evolution of Federal cooperation in agricultural extension work, vocational education, and civilian vocational rehabilitation under the Smith-Lever, the Smith-Hughes, and similar acts. These acts are closely related in their purposes, their enactment, and their implications. The Smith-Lever Act was the first Federal law to establish a definite scheme of extensive cooperation between the Federal Government and the several States for educational purposes. The principle of cooperation was extended by the Smith-Hughes and subsequent acts.

Such a study seems timely because it touches on important educational and political issues of the day. During the past 25 years bills have been introduced in every Congress to extend Federal grants to education in a way that would result in far-reaching changes in our educational purposes and practices, should those bills be enacted into law. To secure an understanding of the present situation a study of the steps by which we have reached our present position should prove useful. It is hoped that this investigation may help in the attainment of that object.

This bulletin had its origin in an investigation entitled "Federal Cooperation in Vocational Education", which was completed in 1923. The report has not been published, but bound copies of the manuscript may be consulted in the libraries of the United States Office of Education and the University of Chicago. It is based on original sources. The report includes numerous details regarding the general social and economic background as well as a detailed history of the movement up to the enactment of the Smith-Hughes law.

The first 13 chapters of this bulletin constitute in part a summary of the earlier study, with some new material. Several publications issued since 1923 trace some aspects of the agricultural extension and the vocational education movements. Where such publications are based on, and summarize groups of original sources, they, rather than original sources, have been cited as references in order that the number of footnotes might be reduced. The last 8 chapters have been prepared to trace the movements since 1917 and describe the operation of the cooperative systems.

I desire here to express my appreciation of the courtesies extended to me in this study. Special recognition is due Dr. J. C. Wright, Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education, of the United States Office of Education, for his interest in the work and his generous cooperation in an effort to complete the manuscript for publication. Chapters II, III, and IV of part IV were prepared with the assistance of members of the staff of the Office of Education whose names are given in connection with the chapters.

The assistance of Dr. C. W. Warburton, Director of the Extension Service, Department of Agriculture, and of Dr. C. B. Smith, Assistant Director, Extension Service, and Chief, Office of Cooperative Extension, is greatly appreciated. They read chapter I of parts III and IV, offered suggestions for improving the chapters, and supplied up-to-date information on the extension work. It is a pleasure to acknowledge the permission granted by Dr. C. B. Smith and Mr. M. C. Wilson, authors of *The Agricultural Extension System of the United States*, to use information contained therein for chapter I of part IV of this bulletin.

The American Vocational Association granted permission to use manuscript records in its possession, showing the activities of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education. These records were carefully investigated in the office of the National Society for Vocational Education in New York City during January and February 1921. Miss Clotilde Ware, office secretary, generously assisted in locating the materials. Some of these records have recently been transferred to the Office of Education.

Finally, the encouragement from the former Commissioner of Education, Dr. George F. Zook, and the Assistant Commissioner, Miss Bess Goodykoontz, has been no small factor in completing this work. I am deeply indebted to them for the assistance they have given.

L. E. BLAUCH.

FEDERAL COOPERATION IN AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION WORK, VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, AND VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION

Part I: ECONOMIC, SOCIAL, AND EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

Chapter I

Economic and Social Factors

1. Industrial Development

Fundamental to an understanding of the movement which resulted in Federal cooperation in vocational education and agricultural extension is a knowledge of certain economic and social conditions at the beginning of the twentieth century. A careful analysis of these conditions suggests important reasons for the increasing interest in new types of education. Some of the conditions had a special bearing on the development of a national point of view regarding vocational education.

Of primary importance in this connection was the great industrial expansion of the United States, which on the one hand resulted in an enormous production of a great variety of goods and on the other hand brought phenomenal changes in the life of the people, changes which were especially marked in the occupational activities of the citizens. The outstanding feature of the industrial situation was the development of large-scale and power production. Industry was concentrated in large units and machinery was, so far as it was economical, substituted for hand labor. In other words, the factory plan became the prevailing form of industrial organization. Many processes of production were divided into simple operations which could be performed with machinery or by relatively unskilled labor.¹ An inevitable result of this evolution was a disintegration of many trades which had been developed before the age of machines. Although not all

¹Douglas, Paul H., *American Apprenticeship and Industrial Education*, pp. 109-117.

mechanical work attained a high degree of specialization, this evolution went far enough to have an important bearing on industrial training.

Under the industrial organization of earlier times the workers were trained through apprenticeship.² This training, in spite of its disadvantages and inefficiency, proved fairly satisfactory. When properly managed it prepared the youth to carry on the trade and it enabled the craftsmen to regulate the supply of labor. As the trades disintegrated the old form of apprenticeship declined.³ At the same time a demand arose for a form of industrial training which would be in keeping with the new conditions of production.⁴

One of the most significant features of the industrial revolution was the changing form of the conflict between the employer and the employee.⁵ As relations became impersonal in large-scale production, means for mutual aid and protection were evolved by both the employee and the employer. On the side of labor, organization increased rapidly at the beginning of the twentieth century. On the side of the employer numerous and strong associations were also formed. Some of the latter dated from about 1885, but in the early years of the twentieth century they developed considerable strength and a number of them became markedly belligerent.

A scheme of industrial education suited to conditions such as those described must take into account the industrial conflict and the interests of the various groups involved, since any provision for industrial training, if carried out in a large and serious way, is likely to have a marked effect on the industrial situation. It was natural, therefore, that both the employer and the employee should be much concerned about industrial training.

That the industrial situation in the early decades of the twentieth century was national rather than merely local is obvious. Industrial organizations were national in scope. The population moved easily from place to place. Workers trained in one locality were likely soon to be found in another locality. Strike breakers could be imported easily and quickly from great distances, even from foreign countries. The industrial situation was also closely related to the national immigration policy. These and other considerations emphasized the national aspect of prevailing industrial conditions.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 25-52.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 73-78.

⁴ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Bulletin No. 1, pp. 26, 28; Bulletin No. 3, pp. 11, 13, 20-21, etc.

⁵ Bonnett, Clarence B., *Employers' Associations in the United States*, pp. 3-34.

2. An International Aspect

The remarkable industrial development made it necessary to find new markets and strenuous efforts were therefore made to open new avenues for the distribution and consumption of American-made goods. The National Association of Manufacturers was organized in 1895 for the special purpose of improving the conditions of foreign and domestic trade.⁶ The result of these efforts was a rapidly growing export trade from the United States during the first decades of the twentieth century.⁷ The increase in the exports consisted, for the most part, of manufactured goods. In this situation foreign competition had to be faced because manufactured goods constituted a very large part of the exports of Great Britain and Germany.

This international competition led the great industrial and commercial rivals to study one another. European nations in their fear of the "American invasion" gave much attention to the factors in America's industrial development.⁸ The American producers and exporters likewise studied their foreign competitors. Shrewd business men noted that industrial and technical training was an effective means of promoting the growth of industry and the improvement of the product, and they began to inquire diligently about such education and the methods employed in the schools of foreign countries.⁹

Owing to her phenomenal economic development Germany received much attention.¹⁰ One of the important factors in that nation's success seemed to be its modern system of industrial education. Consequently, business men in the United States became greatly interested in the possibilities of industrial education, and one organization, the Commercial Club of Chicago, sent an agent to Europe to study the industrial schools of various countries.¹¹

The national as well as the educational significance of this situation is easily apparent. It was obvious that in the impending economic contest that nation bade fair to triumph which could marshal the greatest resources, natural and human, and could organize itself on the best educational and industrial lines. Consequently a number of countries interested themselves in industrial education and made efforts to estab-

⁶ National Association of Manufacturers, Proceedings, 1905, p. 241; Bonnett, Clarence E., *Employers Associations in the United States*, ch. X.

⁷ Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1920, pp. 782-785.

⁸ Stead, William T., *The Americanization of the World*, pp. 342-359; Prager, M., *Die amerikanische Gefahr*; Leroy-Beaulieu, Pierre, *The United States in the Twentieth Century*, pp. vii-xrvi.

⁹ See Commissioner of Labor, *Seventeenth Annual Report*, p. 8.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 869-984; Howard, Earl Dean, *The Cause and Extent of the Recent Industrial Progress of Germany*, pp. 94-109.

Cooley, Edwin G., *Vocational Education in Europe*, vol. I, p. 1.

lish systems of adequate training.¹² A farsighted and statesmanlike policy in the United States seemed to demand a concerted effort toward providing adequate facilities for developing industrial skill, if foreign competition was to be met.

In this connection two other considerations may be mentioned. First, although technical and industrial education is highly important, it is by no means the only factor in efficient production. Second, it might be argued that, since American foreign commerce was having a phenomenal development without any large provision for industrial education, there was reason to believe that it would continue along the same lines. This position could be maintained only in part. A nationalistic view suggested that, when nations improve their economic conditions, new measures must be adopted by their competitors. The United States was exporting much raw material—a practice which may not be highly desirable. It is often more profitable to manufacture the raw materials and export the manufactured goods. Certainly in developing the natural resources of a nation it cannot be regarded as a wise policy to neglect the human resources. However, it must be conceded that foreign competition did not at that time seem to be making pressing demands for an intensive industrial education. The lack of urgency probably accounts for the slow development of industrial education in the United States.

3. Agricultural Development

Along with the progress in industry certain factors operated to bring about a larger national interest in agriculture. With the rapid growth of cities agriculture became more and more a commercial proposition.¹³ Farmers used their acres not only to raise food for themselves but even more to produce food for market. In an increasing degree the large part of the food of the country came from localities and States far removed from the place of consumption. Thus the interest in food production steadily evolved from a local matter to one of national concern. The food supply of a people is not only important; it is basic to a vigorous national life. Obviously the remarkable development of in-

¹² In 1896 a British committee, headed by Sir Philip Magnus, made a report to Parliament on technical education in Germany. In 1913 the Canadian Royal Commission on Industrial Training and Technical Education made a voluminous report to the Canadian Government on industrial and technical education in leading countries of the world. The purpose of this report was stated thus: "Industrial efficiency is all important to the development of the Dominion and to the promotion of the home and foreign trade of Canada in competition with other nations and can best be promoted by the adoption in Canada of the most advanced systems and methods of industrial training and technical education." (Report of the Commissioners—the Royal Commission on Industrial Training and Technical Education, pts. I and II, p. vii.)

¹³ Taylor, Henry C., *Agricultural Economics*, pp. 20-30.

dustry and the increase in population, particularly in urban centers, could not continue unless agricultural production could also be increased. Therefore it became more and more clear that national prosperity was inseparable from production of all kinds, agricultural as well as industrial.

The situation may be summarized as follows: Agricultural production increased, but not as rapidly as consumption.¹⁴ However, it does not appear that there was any immediate danger of a depleted national food supply. When yields per acre were compared with those in Europe it was easily apparent that the farmer could make his acres produce much more than they were yielding, provided it were necessary to do so.

It is to be noted, however, that at the beginning of the twentieth century the nation was on the verge of important agricultural changes owing to the reduction in the amount of public lands available for agricultural purposes and to a rapid depletion of soil and soil fertility.¹⁵ It was evident that continued lack of attention to the latter would result in national poverty. The depletion of soil fertility and soil destruction strike directly at the root of prosperity and economic security.

The educational import of the situation was obvious. A shifting agriculture called for greater intelligence in its practice. In the development of dry farming, for example, many new and untried methods were necessary. A similar observation applied to the farming of irrigated and drained land. It seemed evident that the solution of further agricultural progress lay in part in agricultural education. In large measure the establishment of a system of permanent agriculture depended on training the farmer to do his work more skillfully and intelligently.

Finally, the social aspect of rural life attracted national attention.¹⁶ The industrial development had caused a great migration from the country to the city. This in turn brought about a condition which greatly disturbed some leaders who had the future welfare of the Nation at heart.¹⁷ The alarm seems to have been occasioned not so much by the number of people who moved from the country to the

¹⁴ Coulter, J. L., *Agricultural Development in the United States, 1900-10*. In the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, vol. xxvii, No. 1, pp. 1-26, November 1912.

¹⁵ Van Hise, Charles R., *The Conservation of Natural Resources in the United States* (7th ed.), pp. 297-358.

¹⁶ Taylor, Henry C., *Op. cit.*, pp. 380-404.

¹⁷ *Country Life Commission, Report*, pp. 5, 21; Hays, Willet M., *Agriculture and Rural Life in the Public Schools*, pp. 41, 42.

city as by the depletion of country life and leadership which it was feared might result from the migration.

As a result of the extensive discussion of country life great interest was manifested in providing wider opportunities for the growth and development of the country youth.¹⁸ The Commission on Country Life, appointed by President Roosevelt, reported in 1909 that so far as its investigation had gone there was no such unanimity on any other subject as better educational facilities for the rural districts. So important were these considerations that they held the attention of several national organizations, notably the Patrons of Husbandry and the Farmers' Educational and Cooperative Union.¹⁹ Agricultural life had become a question of national concern.

These conditions helped to pave the way for a national system of agricultural extension work and a plan of education in vocational agriculture. It was perhaps difficult to show that such systems were imperative, but that they were likely to prove helpful in the Nation's progress was not to be doubted.

¹⁸ Country Life Commission, Report, pp. 5, 53.

¹⁹ National Grange, Proceedings, 1898, pp. 122-123; 1905, pp. 115-117; National Farmers' Educational and Cooperative Union of America, Minutes, 1908, p. 40; 1910, pp. 30-32; National Education Association, Proceedings, 1901, pp. 785 ff.; 1902, pp. 223-223, 431 ff.

Chapter II

Educational Development: General and Agricultural

1. Literacy Education

Fundamentally the American elementary school exists for literacy purposes, that is, it deals primarily with those accomplishments of reading, writing, and computing which are of personal importance for social beings. This conception underlies all discussions of general elementary education. The high school has tended to expand this training in such a way that the tools of learning are used for the attainment of literary and scientific culture.

An important question which caused considerable concern in the early years of the twentieth century was the amount of schooling which the average child received. To the casual observer it was obvious that many children did not remain in school long enough to complete the course of the elementary school.¹ Indeed it was established in 1918 that the "average" person during his lifetime attended school a total of approximately 1,076 days and that in that time he completed 5.4 grades in school.²

Consequently many people concluded that the schools were not fully adapted to the needs of the masses of the population, most of whom would not engage in literary and professional pursuits, in other words, that the schools were adapted too largely to training select groups.³ This condition, it was said, was not at all in keeping with democracy's demand for equality of educational opportunity, or, in other words, the attempt to set up a system of universal education was successful only in part. In the discussion of this question there was, of course, much confusion as to the purposes and possibilities of education.

2. Manual Training

As this discussion proceeded a number of attempts were made to adjust the program of the schools to meet social demands. The first

¹ Gulick, Luther H., *Why 250,000 Children Quit School*, pp. 25-33.

² Bonner, H. R., *Waste in Education*. In the *American Schoolboard Journal*, 63: No. 1, p. 33, July 1921.

³ See John H. Lapp and Carl H. Motz, *Learning to Earn*, chs. I and II.

outstanding effort to give the school curriculum a vocational turn occurred in the seventies through the introduction of drawing into the schools of Massachusetts.⁴ The movement was led principally by the industrial interests of the State and the new subject was known as industrial drawing. The subject was frequently discussed in educational circles and an exhibit of the product of the Massachusetts schools at the Centennial Exposition in 1876 occasioned much comment.⁵

At the same exposition there was shown an exhibit of the method of shop instruction which had been developed in the technical schools of Russia.⁶ This also attracted much attention, and, together with experiments already under way in America, directed attention to the possibilities of manual instruction in school. Immediately following, and owing largely to the activity of Pres. John D. Runkle, the Russian system of shop work was introduced into the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and the School of Mechanic Arts, virtually a manual training school, was organized.⁷ Several years later (1880) the St. Louis Manual Training School was opened as a part of Washington University.⁸ Other schools of a similar nature followed. In 1894 the Bureau of Education received reports from 15 "manual training schools" which reported 3,362 students in manual training.⁹ It was reported in 1913 that 1,677 schools were giving instruction in manual arts to 183,571 students of secondary grade.¹⁰

Two reasons were urged for the development of manual training instruction. First, some advocates were interested in it for its economic, social, and vocational values.¹¹ They hoped to find a substitute for apprenticeship in the training of artisans. In this discussion a number of advocates confused manual training with trade training.¹² Others, although they realized that manual training was not trade training, hoped nevertheless that manual instruction would lay special foundations for a later specialized training in industry. Second, some advocates of the new subject were interested in its intellectual and disciplinary aspect.¹³ It was in part on this ground that manual training

⁴ Clarke, Isaac Edwards, *Industrial and High Art Education in the United States*, pp. 38 and 45E.

⁵ U.S. Centennial Commission, *Reports and Awards*, group XXVIII, pp. 287-296.

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 165-179; Struck, F. T., *Foundations of Industrial Education*, ch. III.

⁷ Anderson, L. F., *History of Manual and Industrial School Education*, pp. 155-177.

⁸ Woodward, C. M., *The Manual Training School*, pp. 4-11.

⁹ U.S. Commissioner of Education, *Report, 1893-94*, vol. II, pp. 2116-2119.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, 1913, vol. II, pp. 459, 473, 517, 519, 522.

¹¹ National Education Association, *Proceedings, 1884*, pp. 293-307; 1885, pp. 151-159; MacArthur, Arthur, *Education in Its Relation to Industry*, chs. XII and XIV.

¹² Barrows, Isabel C., *A Conference on Manual Training*, p. 101.

¹³ Woodward, C. M., *The Manual Training School*, p. 6; National Education Association, *Proceedings, 1882*, pp. 140-157; 1883, pp. 37-46, 84-99; 1885, pp. 259-261.

was admitted into the school curriculum and the instruction was given for disciplinary purposes. A report by the Massachusetts Commission on Industrial and Technical Education in 1906 stated that manual training was not making a strong connection with the mechanical trades, that is, manual training had departed from the vocational purpose which many early advocates had in view.¹⁴

3. Home Economics

More or less concurrent with the manual training movement was the effort to introduce instruction in home economics into the schools. By 1895, household arts as a subject was taught in the public schools of 21 cities and in 1913, 444 cities reported such instruction.¹⁵ In 1911, 6 percent of the girls reported enrolled in public high schools and 7 percent of those in private high schools took home economics.¹⁶ By 1916 these percentages were 17 and 13, respectively, which indicate a rapid growth in 5 years.¹⁷ At least three reasons were urged for teaching home economics: (1) Its direct vocational value, (2) its direct preparation for homemaking, (3) the intellectual worth of such training.¹⁸

4. Increasing Interest in Agricultural Education

In the early years of the twentieth century the interest in agricultural education became very evident. The principal reason for this is to be found in the agricultural tendencies of the Nation already mentioned. Various farmer's organizations such as the Patrons of Husbandry and the Farmers' Union discussed and advocated agricultural education of all grades.¹⁹ Undoubtedly the progress, prosperity, and influence of the land-grant colleges had much to do with the movement to provide what was said to be a more suitable education for agriculture and rural life. Finally, agricultural education was greatly stimulated by the activity of the United States Department of Agriculture.²⁰ Both the nature study and the school garden movements also helped to prepare the way for agricultural instruction in the elementary grades, which by 1915 was required by State legislation in all the public rural

¹⁴ *Op. cit.*, p. 196. Another development related to manual training was the Arts and Crafts movement. Anderson, L. F., *History of Manual and Industrial School Education*, pp. 188-191.

¹⁵ Andrews, Benjamin F., *Education for the Home*, vol. II, pp. 69-70.

¹⁶ U.S. Commissioner of Education, Report, 1911, vol. II, p. 1192.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, 1916, vol. II, p. 513.

¹⁸ Bureau of Education, *Circular of Information*, No. 1, 1879, p. 4; No. 4, 1879, pp. 5-10.

¹⁹ National Grange, *Proceedings*, 1898, pp. 122-123; 1900, pp. 155-156; Farmers' Educational and Cooperative Union of America, *Minutes*, 1908, p. 40; 1910, pp. 30-32, etc.

²⁰ True, Alfred Charles, *A History of Agricultural Education in the United States, 1785-1925*, pp. 329-331.

elementary schools of 21 States, and in probably half of these it was also required in urban schools.²¹

5. Secondary Agricultural Education

The agricultural education most directly related to the evolution of the Smith-Hughes Act was of secondary grade. The earliest provision for such instruction was made through separate agricultural schools of which there were three types. First, there were those schools which were maintained in close connection with, and sometimes under, the State college of agriculture.²² The earliest of these schools was established at St. Anthony Park, Minnesota, in 1888, under the College of Agriculture of the University of Minnesota. Two similar schools were later set up in other parts of the State. California in 1906 and Colorado and Nebraska in 1911 also established such schools. California, New York, and Vermont established State secondary schools of agriculture independent of colleges of agriculture.

Second, a number of States provided for district agricultural schools.²³ As early as 1889 Alabama established two branch agricultural schools and experiment stations. Later enactments provided for such a school in each congressional district, nine in all, by 1895. In 1906 the State of Georgia likewise provided for an agricultural school in each of its 11 congressional districts. Two years later Oklahoma made provision for an agricultural school of secondary grade in each of the five supreme court districts and in 1909 a sixth school was established. The legislature of Arkansas in 1909 divided the State into four districts and provided for an agricultural school of secondary grade in each. In the same year the legislature of Idaho passed an act to divide the State into two districts and establish in each a secondary school of agriculture with a branch experiment station. The schools of Georgia and Idaho were under the control of the regents of the State university, but those in the other States were independent of the higher institutions.

Third, in a number of States county agricultural high schools were established.²⁴ Wisconsin was the pioneer in setting up such institutions through a law in 1901 which empowered any county board of education to establish a county school of agriculture and domestic economy. In 1905 Minnesota also provided for such schools and 2

²¹ U.S. Commissioner of Education, Report, 1915, vol. II, p. 295.

²² True, Alfred Charles, *A History of Agricultural Education in the United States, 1785-1925*, pp. 324-327, 339-340, 342-344, 345-346.

²³ *Ibid.*, pp. 327-329, 340-342, 344-345.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 346-347.

years later Michigan enacted similar legislation. Mississippi in 1908 made provision for county agricultural schools for white children. Because this act was declared unconstitutional another act was passed in 1910 to meet the constitutional objection. In 1911 North Carolina empowered counties to establish county farm life schools and in the same year North Dakota provided for county agricultural and training schools to be maintained by the State and the county. By special acts Massachusetts in 1912 authorized a county agricultural school in each of two counties. New York in 1915 authorized the board of supervisors of any county outside New York City to establish a farm school. All of these county schools were granted State aid.

Another method of providing secondary agricultural instruction was through the public high schools.²⁴ The most common State action was to subsidize such instruction, though in a few States the instruction was required but not subsidized. The first laws granting State aid to public secondary schools, other than independent schools, for instruction in agriculture were, Maine, 1907; Virginia, 1908; Minnesota, 1909; Louisiana and Maryland, 1910; Kansas, Massachusetts, North Carolina, North Dakota, Texas, and Wisconsin, 1911; Arizona and Vermont, 1912; Nebraska, New York, and Pennsylvania, 1913. Several of these States had earlier provided for separate agricultural schools. Statistics on the situation in 1915-16 indicate that more students were receiving instruction in agriculture in the high schools than in the separate agricultural schools.

Although the earlier tendency seemed to be toward establishing independent schools of agriculture, the later trend was clearly in the direction of encouraging agricultural instruction in the high schools, which were increasing at a rapid rate. Nothing is more obvious than the fact that there was great lack of uniformity in the progress of agricultural education in the several States. Many States made little or no provision for it while others, which attempted rather elaborate programs, experimented with various means and methods.

The agitation for Federal aid to secondary agricultural education began concurrently with the development of the independent agricultural schools. In fact, it was to provide for these schools that the earliest bills were introduced in Congress. Later developments were clearly away from independent schools and, as will be shown later, the bills were changed accordingly. It was probably fortunate that the granting of Federal aid for agricultural education was deferred until 1917.

²⁴ Ibid., pp. 347-354.

6. Other Forms of Agricultural Education

One of the most interesting movements in agricultural education was the organization of boys' and girls' agricultural clubs and contests.²⁶ This movement seems to have begun on a State-wide scale in New York in 1898. In the few years preceding 1904 agricultural clubs were formed in Illinois partly through farmers' institutes and partly through the activities of a number of county superintendents of schools. Similar clubs were organized in numerous other States. In the southern States, where the movement had a rapid development following 1908, it was fostered by the Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work and by the General Education Board. The Department of Agriculture in 1912 gave financial assistance to the club work in northern and western States.²⁷

Another far-reaching development in agricultural education was the farmers' cooperative demonstration work which was organized in 1904 to combat the ravages of the Mexican bollweevil in the cotton regions of the South.²⁸ The work was carried on under the Department of Agriculture, and the organizer was Dr. Seaman A. Knapp. A relatively capable farmer in a community was induced to work a portion of his land strictly according to instructions from an agent of the Department who visited him regularly. The plot which was cultivated in this way became an object lesson for other farmers in the community. Success was immediate. Confidence was restored in the panic-stricken areas and a new spirit was infused into the agricultural life of the threatened regions.

Two other important features of the farmers' cooperative demonstration work, which were developed after 1909, were boys' and girls' clubs and home demonstration work for women.²⁹ The latter was an outgrowth of the girls' club work, since the county woman agent who taught the girls to can fruit also found a willing audience in the mothers. This led to demonstrations in bread making, butter making, home sanitation, etc. About 1913 the home demonstration work assumed very substantial proportions.³⁰

²⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 393-394; Howe, F. W., *Boys' and Girls' Agricultural Clubs*, pp. 7, 9.

²⁷ U.S. Department of Agriculture, *Report on Agricultural Experiment Stations and Cooperative Agricultural Extension Work in the United States, 1913*, part II, p. 160.

²⁸ True, Alfred Charles, *A History of Agricultural Extension Work in the United States, 1785-1923*, pp. 58-73.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 65-68.

³⁰ The first home demonstration agent in the Western States was appointed in San Pete County, Utah, July 29, 1913, as a State employee, and the first one in the Northern States was appointed in Erie County, N.Y., in 1914, under the auspices of the Erie County Farm Bureau.

The farmers' cooperative demonstration work attracted widespread attention. The General Education Board, convinced of the effectiveness of the work, began in 1905 to subsidize a similar service in Southern States not as yet within the bollweevil area. The work supported by the board was carried on by agreement with, and under the direct supervision and control of, the Department of Agriculture. The agents were paid from board funds and they were given Department of Agriculture commissions as collaborators at salaries of \$1 a year.

By 1914 this undertaking had become rather extensive. During that fiscal year the funds expended for it from various sources were as follows: (1) Department of Agriculture, \$371,800.28; (2) General Education Board, \$187,500; (3) Other funds, \$411,179.21. On June 30, 1914, 1,138 men and women were employed in the work in 721 counties in 15 Southern States.

At first the State colleges had nothing to do with this movement except through informal contacts. In fact the relations of the colleges to the work were not always friendly. However, beginning with 1909, arrangements were made between several colleges and the Department of Agriculture for cooperative demonstration work and later the demonstration work was brought into closer relations with the State agricultural institutions and the way was opened for a more satisfactory system of extension work throughout the South.

The farmers' cooperative demonstration work had "many of the elements of a crusade to deliver southern agriculture from disaster and to relieve a deeply distressed people." One who spoke from first-hand knowledge said,

The agents and the people with whom they came in contact were led to believe that demonstration work had a higher mission than simply to teach the farmer to double his crop and increase his income. It was also to promote thrift; bring about better homes, schools, and churches; and improve the social and moral conditions of country life.³¹

In the northern and western States there was no emergency in agriculture such as that created by the cotton boll weevil and consequently agricultural education comparable to that of the farmers' cooperative demonstration work did not develop until after 1910.³² The Office of Farm Management in the Bureau of Plant Industry (Department of Agriculture) was organized in 1906 with authority and funds "to investigate and encourage the adoption of improved methods of farm man-

³¹ Ibid., p. 73.

³² Ibid., pp. 73-74.

agement and farm practice." In conducting its work the Office placed agents in districts and usually cooperated with the agricultural colleges and experiment stations. Not infrequently a district comprised two States.

In 1911 a county agent was employed in Broome County, N.Y., through a cooperative arrangement between a local chamber of commerce, a railroad, and the State college of agriculture. About the same time a county agent began work in Uintah County, Utah. The appointment of county agricultural agents in the northern and western States was promoted by various private organizations with or without cooperation with the Office of Farm Management, but soon the Bureau of Plant Industry determined to expand the county agent and boys' club work under public auspices and in cooperation with the agricultural colleges. Consequently Congress in 1912 made an appropriation "for farm demonstration work" amounting to about \$161,000. At once cooperative arrangements were made with the agricultural colleges in 20 States involving the employment of 113 county agents. The number of agents thus employed on June 30, 1914, was 203.

The idea promoted by the Office of Farm Management was that the significant thing to the farmer was an increased farm income rather than increased crop yields. To develop the basis of an extension program each agent was expected to study the business of farming in his county so he might know the agricultural situation and the needs of the farmers. Through special State and Federal farm management demonstrators the county agents learned to analyze the business of farmers and to aid the farmers in making needed adjustments.

Another movement in agricultural education was the effort made to provide agricultural extension work through the land-grant colleges and universities.³³ This was part of a larger movement to popularize education for adults along numerous lines. A committee of the association of the land-grant colleges recommended in 1906 that each of the institutions take steps to organize and maintain a department of agricultural extension. By 1913, 399 persons were engaged on extension staffs in land-grant colleges, and the funds available for extension work amounted to \$990,504.

The three forms of agricultural education described were closely related to the purposes of the Smith-Lever Act. They were the forerunners of the service which the Smith-Lever Act was designed to promote and stabilize. In them are found the early experiments in popularizing agricultural education.

³³ Ibid., pp. 42-57.

Chapter III

Educational Development: Industrial

In the province of industrial education there was quite as much stir as in the field of agricultural training. The early years of the twentieth century found numerous national organizations interested and the subject was freely discussed. Three points of view were distinctly in evidence, that of the employer, that of organized labor, and that of the educator. Each of these points of view was represented in important organizations.

1. The Attitude of Associations of Employers

Mention has already been made of the fact that in the industrial conflict employers organized themselves on a large scale. Among the employers' organizations interested in vocational training, the National Association of Manufacturers stands out conspicuously. The subject of industrial education first came before this group in a prominent way in 1904 when one of its members assailed the policy of the labor unions in restricting apprenticeship.¹ Their policy, he said, had brought employers face to face with a dangerous crisis and he was convinced that the only way out of the difficulty lay in the establishment of trade schools which would prepare full-fledged mechanics. For a number of years thereafter reports by the committee on industrial education of this organization urged the trade school.² In 1911, after organized labor had also become interested in industrial education, the committee on industrial education began to urge progressive measures to secure industrial training, including Federal and State aid.³

A second group of employers who took up the subject of industrial education was the National Metal Trades Association. In 1910 this organization discussed it at some length and decided to collect information on what the members of the association were doing in this direc-

¹ National Association of Manufacturers, Proceedings, 1904, pp. 129-137. This association was organized in 1895 to extend the avenues of trade and commerce, both foreign and domestic. Beginning with 1902 it became active and bitter in its opposition to organized labor. In 1904 a standing committee on industrial education was appointed.

² Ibid., 1905, pp. 141-151; 1906, pp. 49-57; 1907, pp. 109-129; etc.

³ Ibid., 1911, pp. 185-194.

tion.⁴ The next year the association pledged itself anew to the furtherance of industrial education and the apprenticeship system and set aside \$5,000 to forward the movement.⁵ Of this amount \$1,000 was contributed to the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education. The attitude of the association on industrial education was liberal and progressive.

What has been called the first convention in the interest of the trade school movement in the United States was held in Indianapolis, June 10-12, 1907.⁶ The object was to bring together men who were keenly interested in the movement in order that they might discuss what should be done to further industrial training. The moving spirit seems to have been largely antiunion and open shop. No permanent organization was effected.

2. The Attitude of Organized Labor

Organized labor had for many years before 1900 taken an active interest in apprenticeship.⁷ Control over apprenticeship could be used to protect the trade from an oversupply of workers, and it was also a comparatively easy means of shutting out the incompetent, whose competition tended to reduce wages. In fact, in the industrial conflict control over apprenticeship was frequently one of the difficult issues.⁸ So zealously had the labor unions devoted themselves to this objective that, according to a report in 1906, they had a large measure, in many cases complete control of the apprenticeship system.⁹ However, on the issue of industrial education in schools the trade unions were quite divided, some favoring it, some opposing it, and some not concerning themselves about it.¹⁰

Inasmuch as the American Federation of Labor comprised by far the greater part of organized labor, its interest and attitude are of special importance. The Federation's first important consideration of industrial and trade education seems to have occurred in 1907, when the secretary of the newly formed National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education addressed the annual convention of the Federation on the aims and plans of the society.¹¹ This address resulted in the adoption of a statement

⁴ National Metal Trades Association, *Proceedings*, 1910, pp. 24, 32-41.

⁵ *Ibid.*, 1911, pp. 21-35, 190.

⁶ *Proceedings and Addresses of the Citizens' Trade School Convention held at Indianapolis, June 10-12 1907*, p. 4.

⁷ Douglas, Paul H., *American Apprenticeship and Industrial Education*, pp. 62-67, 69-73.

⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 70-71.

⁹ Massachusetts Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Annual Report*, 1906, p. 8.

¹⁰ 63d Cong., H.Doc.No. 1004, vol. I, pp. 140-141.

¹¹ American Federation of Labor, *Proceedings*, 1907, p. 94.

in favor of the best opportunities for the most complete industrial and technical education obtainable for prospective applicants for admission into the skilled crafts of this country, particularly as regards the full possibilities of such crafts to the end that such applicants be fitted not only for all usual requirements, but also for the highest supervisory duties, responsibilities, and rewards.¹²

The following year the Federation elaborated the statement of its attitude, which emphasized labor's conflict with capital, and authorized the appointment of a special committee on industrial education.¹³ In 1909 the committee submitted to the annual convention a report which contained a statement regarding the growing demand for industrial education and the revival of apprenticeship by corporations.¹⁴ Any form of private control of industrial education was condemned in no uncertain terms, and on this ground the cooperative plan was opposed. Industrial education at public expense was favored. The report further recommended local advisory boards to include representatives of the industries, of employers and organized labor, to advise on industrial education. Favorable mention was made of the movement to secure Federal aid for public industrial education. The convention adopted the report and recommended the Federal legislation outlined therein.¹⁵

3. The Interest of Educators

The most important educational organization of the nation is undoubtedly the National Education Association. This group showed much interest in the vocational education movement. As early as 1900 and 1901 there were discussions of the demand for industrial education in the meetings of the Association.¹⁶ In 1903 a Committee on Industrial Education in Schools for Rural Communities was appointed to report conclusions as to what industrial education should be undertaken by schools for rural communities. It submitted reports in 1905, 1907, and 1908.¹⁷

The growing interest of the Association in this issue was also evidenced by the appointment in 1907 of the Committee on the Place of Industries in Public Education to deal with the wider field of industrial education. This committee gave much consideration to the subject, and in 1910 it submitted an excellent summary report.¹⁸ Even

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 319.

¹³ *Ibid.*, 1908, p. 234.

¹⁴ American Federation of Labor, *Industrial Education*, pp. 9-15.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 16.

¹⁶ National Education Association, *Proceedings*, 1900, pp. 492-493; 1901, pp. 665-680.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, 1907, pp. 409-454; 1908, pp. 385-447; Report of the Committee on Industrial Education in Schools for Rural Communities, 1905, p. 5.

¹⁸ National Education Association, *Proceedings*, 1910, pp. 652-783.

before this report was made the Association, in 1908, endorsed the establishment of trade schools, industrial schools, and evening continuation schools by municipal boards of education and recommended that, in order to make the instruction in the schools practical and efficient, the advice and approval of the trades be sought.¹⁹ Through this means it was hoped that the graduates of the schools would be qualified as advanced apprentices or journeymen.

In 1912 the National Education Association appointed another committee composed of educators, employers, employees, and social workers, to study the needs of adolescents with respect to vocational guidance and vocational education. The committee made statements in 1913 and 1914, and later it made an extensive report on definitions and introducing and carrying forward vocational education and vocational guidance.²⁰

These various activities and pronouncements indicate a great amount of interest in the new movement; but aggressive leadership did not emanate from the National Education Association as an organization. It made recommendations on vocational education, but it conducted no propaganda to promote the movement. The driving and organizing force as it was expressed in an educational organization was to be found in the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education.

4. The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education

Something has already been said regarding the issues involved in apprenticeship training and industrial education as between employer and employee. It was with a keen appreciation of these issues, as well as with a deep interest in industrial education, that, following some preliminary activity, a convention of about 250 people representing employers, labor, educators, and social workers was held in New York City in November 1906.²¹ A permanent organization was formed known as the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education. The central purpose of the Society was to organize as an effective means for propaganda the various forces working for industrial education and to crystallize thought on the subject.²² All persons interested in industrial education were eligible to membership.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, 1908, pp. 36-37.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, 1913, pp. 573-580; 1914, pp. 568-569; Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1916, No. 21.

²¹ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Bulletin No. 1, pp. 5-16.

²² *Ibid.*, p. 10. For an excellent history of the Society see Struck, F. T. Foundations of Industrial Education, ch. VIII.

At the first annual meeting, in Chicago in 1908, the Society appointed a Committee of Ten to consider the relation of industrial training to the general system of education in the United States. The final report of the committee, submitted in 1909, dealt principally with the nomenclature of industrial education.²³ An attempt was made to distinguish clearly between the various confusing terms then in use. The report stated the lines of study needed in the field of industrial education and suggested that the Bureau of Education be entrusted with such an investigation to be made with adequate congressional support.

One of the important acts of the Society was to invite Dr. George Kerschensteiner, Director of Education in Munich, Germany, to visit the United States.²⁴ Dr. Kerschensteiner had built up a system of continuation schools which was of international reputation. During his visit he delivered in several large cities a series of addresses on vocational training, which were widely circulated and undoubtedly were an important factor in developing sentiment favorable to vocational education.²⁵ His addresses were particularly important for two reasons. First, he called attention to the fact that the most successful and promising vocational school in Germany was not the day trade school; it was the continuation school, that is, a school which supplemented, rather than replaced, the system of apprenticeship. In bringing out this fact he performed a much needed service. Second, he stressed the civic and moral purpose of vocational education as contrasted with the narrow utilitarian view. At first Americans seemed slow to realize the full significance of this idea. However, it was fundamental in German industrial education as well as in the whole educational fabric of the empire.

The strength of the Society increased with the years. Its publications were widely circulated and the annual meetings were occasions of considerable note. In 1912 Charles A. Prosser was appointed secretary of the Society.²⁶ He immediately began to promote the movement

²³ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Report of the Committee of Ten, pp. 3, 5-16. Pres. Henry S. Pritchett of the Society hoped this committee might be "similar to that famous committee of ten . . . which some years ago dealt in so successful a way with certain standards of college and secondary training". The Society sent the reports of the committee to various Federal officials, including the President, and recommended to these authorities the serious consideration of industrial education from the point of view of the national and economic welfare. The Government published the report of the committee as S.Doc. No. 516, 61st Congress.

²⁴ Richards, C. R., Editorial in the *Manual Training Magazine*, 12: 178-180.

²⁵ Kerschensteiner, George, *Three Lectures on Vocational Training*. They were published and circulated by the Commercial Club of Chicago. The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education also issued a bulletin on the Trade Continuation Schools of Munich, by Dr. Kerschensteiner. (Bulletin No. 14.

²⁶ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, *Minutes of the Executive Committee* Feb. 17, 1912. Mr. Prosser had for 2 years been in Massachusetts as the Deputy Commissioner of Education, in Charge of Industrial Education.

for industrial education with much vigor. In 1915 he was succeeded by Alvin E. Dodd.²⁷

The Society carried on a variety of activities. It published numerous bulletins on various phases of vocational education. In 1912 the Society drew up a statement of principles and policies which it believed should underlie State legislation for vocational education.²⁸ In matters pertaining to legislation it took an active part such as drafting bills, etc.²⁹ The vocational education survey was a third type of activity in which the Society participated.³⁰

Regarding the activities and motives of the society there was a difference of opinion.³¹ There were those who held that the organization was controlled principally by a group of eastern manufacturers who were interested in vocational education for more or less selfish reasons and who were willing even to disrupt the existing school system to attain their ends. On the other hand members of the society were quite as emphatic that, although the society received important contributions from manufacturers and other business men and agencies, its policy was always controlled by the educational group. Whatever may be the facts regarding this matter, the organization was very influential and it succeeded in enlisting influential men in its work. This association finally brought to a culmination the movement to secure Federal aid for vocational education under the Smith-Hughes Act.

5. Development of Apprenticeship

Two suggestions were made to solve the problem of training industrial workers. One proposal was to revive apprenticeship and reorganize it on a basis which would be in keeping with the demands of the times. In this new apprenticeship a school was in many cases regarded as an integral part of the machinery of training. The earliest of these apprenticeship schools in America seems to have been established in 1872 by R. Hoe & Co., manufacturers of printing presses and steel products.³² Despite this early beginning little was done toward such systematic apprenticeship until about 1905 when

²⁷ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Bulletin No. 22, p. 387.

²⁸ Principles and Policies That Should Underlie State Legislation for a State System of Vocational Education, pp. 1-6.

²⁹ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Bulletin No. 18, pp. 43, 252.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 246, 252.

³¹ School review, 28: 721-723; 29: 83-85. In 1918 the name of the society was changed to the National Society for Vocational Education and in 1928 it was merged with the Vocational Education Association of the Middle West to form the American Vocational Association.

³² Commissioner of Labor, Twenty-fifth Annual Report, pp. 174-175.

the movement began to grow rapidly.³³ A report in 1914 listed 18 railroad companies and 66 other corporations maintaining such schools.³⁴ A number of employers' associations, notably the National Metal Trades Association, interested themselves in apprenticeship and actively promoted it.³⁵

The apprenticeship movement received much attention in Wisconsin.³⁶ In 1911 an apprenticeship measure was enacted in that State which prescribed a certain amount of instruction in English and other important subjects and required the registration of all apprentice indentures. This law was repealed in 1915 and a more specific and inclusive act was passed. Under the first law the Commission on Industrial Education had the right to approve certain branches of instruction for apprentices, but under the provision in 1915 the commission was given the direction and supervision of the apprenticeship system. The new plan promised success insofar as organization alone could change conditions. Insofar as the decline of apprenticeship was due to the reorganization of labor on the machine and factory basis the new plan probably did not reach the difficulty.

A move which materially strengthened apprenticeship and corporation training was the organization in 1913 of the National Association of Corporation Schools to aid corporations in the education of their employees by providing a forum for the interchange of ideas and collecting and making data available on successful and unsuccessful plans.³⁷ Its range was soon broadened to include the entire educational aspect of industry.

A second national organization which promoted apprenticeship and corporation training was the Conference Board on Training of Apprentices, organized in 1915.³⁸ It was formed by five national employers' associations, which together normally had more than five million employees. This board looked toward a national system of apprenticeship.

It is thus obvious that several groups of industrial concerns put forth considerable effort to promote the training of employees by industrial concerns themselves. On the one hand much could be

³³ National Association of Corporation Schools, Proceedings, 1914, pp. 404-415.

³⁴ *Ibid.*

³⁵ National Metal Trades Association, Proceedings, 1910, pp. 46-49; 1911, pp. 34-51.

³⁶ Wisconsin Laws, 1911, ch. 347; 1915, ch. 133; Douglas, Paul H., American Apprenticeship and Industrial Education, pp. 79-80.

³⁷ National Association of Corporation Schools, Proceedings of the First Annual Convention, pp. 26, 341. See also Douglas, Paul H., *Op. cit.*, pp. 214ff.

³⁸ Conference Board on Training of Apprentices, Bulletin No. 1, p. 1.

said in favor of this form of training.³⁹ It was not apt to be wasteful of effort for it was direct and to the point. It offered a place to the trainee, as a company trained for its own work. The training could be made a splendid combination of theory and practice. On the other hand the instruction might not be well organized. Since it was under private control the interest of the employer might easily become paramount. He alone shaped the policy of training and determined who was admitted. While these objections and others might have been eliminated through wise State supervision, it was by no means clear that apprenticeship or corporation training promised the best solution of the problem. Certainly for many establishments it was impracticable and it greatly limited the number of men who could receive training.

6. Legislation for Industrial Education.

Another proposal for industrial education was the industrial school at public expense. The first great impetus to this solution was given in Massachusetts. In 1870, the State, owing to a desire of manufacturers that industrial training be provided, made drawing a required study in all the public schools and required certain cities to provide evening schools for instruction in industrial and mechanical drawing.⁴⁰ Two years later a law authorized a town or a city to establish and maintain one or more industrial schools as a part of its school system.⁴¹ There seems to have been little demand for this legislation as under it only one school was opened, an evening trade school in Springfield in 1898.⁴² The next move occurred in 1895 when a law authorized a corporation to be formed in each city having at least 145,000 spindles in operation, this corporation to establish and maintain a textile school.⁴³

Since progress in Massachusetts under this legislation was not very promising the State legislature in 1905 authorized the Governor to appoint a commission to investigate the need for industrial education in Massachusetts and report thereon.⁴⁴ The commission, reporting in 1906, made two important recommendations the first of which was that the elementary schools give instruction and practice in agriculture and

³⁹ See Beatty, Albert James, *A Comparative Study of Corporation Schools as to Their Organization Administration, and Methods of Instruction*, pp. 103-113.

⁴⁰ Commission on Industrial and Technical Education (Massachusetts), Report, p. 12; Massachusetts, Acts and Resolves, 1870, Acts, ch. 248.

⁴¹ Massachusetts Acts and Resolves, 1872, Acts, ch. 86.

⁴² Commission on Industrial and Technical Education (Massachusetts), Report, p. 13.

⁴³ Massachusetts Acts and Resolves, 1895, Acts, ch. 473. Three such schools were established, as follows: Lowell, 1897; New Bedford, 1899; Fall River, 1904.

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, 1905, Resolves, ch. 94. It was popularly known as the Douglas Commission. See Struck, F. T., *Foundations of Industrial Education*, ch. VII.

the mechanic and domestic arts, that the high schools give their instruction a more direct turn to application in industry, and that new courses and evening and part time school facilities be added to the school provision already made by the towns and cities.⁴⁵ The second recommendation was embodied in a bill which with slight modifications became a law.⁴⁶ This law authorized cities and towns to provide independent industrial schools for instruction in agriculture and the mechanic and domestic arts and to establish part time classes in these schools. Evening courses for those engaged in the trades were also authorized. State aid was provided for the industrial schools.⁴⁷ Here was the first important attempt in the vocational education movement to provide industrial education. Various changes and additions were made in the law until 1911 when all this legislation was brought together in a code on State-aided vocational education.⁴⁸ By this time various terms had become more clearly defined and experience had been acquired in vocational education. Finally in 1913 an act authorized towns and cities to require the attendance of working children upon continuation schools.⁴⁹

While Massachusetts was trying to find a satisfactory way of providing industrial education Connecticut was also engaged in pioneer work along the same lines.⁵⁰ As early as 1903 the State legislature directed the governor to appoint a commission "to investigate practical means and methods of industrial and technical education". As a result of the commission's work town and school districts were in 1907 empowered to maintain trade schools in charge of the regular school officials. Two years later the law of 1907 was repealed and the State Board of Education was directed to establish a trade school in each of two towns of the State. Four years later this law was amended to authorize the State Board of Education, town school committees, and district boards of education to cooperate in maintaining trade schools or courses. Evidently the progress was not satisfactory for in 1915 the acts of 1909 and 1913 were repealed and the State Board of Education was authorized to maintain the existing trade schools and establish others.

In the meantime Wisconsin enacted a law (1907) empowering cities and school districts to establish and maintain trade schools.⁵¹ Soon

⁴⁵ Commission on Industrial and Technical Education (Massachusetts), Report, p. 20.

⁴⁶ Ibid., p. 21; Massachusetts Acts and Resolves, 1905, Act, ch. 505.

⁴⁷ Massachusetts Acts and Resolves, 1911, Act, ch. 471.

⁴⁸ Ibid., 1913, Act, ch. 805.

⁴⁹ Trade Schools—Report of the Commission (Connecticut) Appointed in 1903 and Proposed Law, p. 2; Connecticut Acts, 1907, ch. 250; 1909, ch. 85; 1913, ch. 212; 1915, ch. 263.

⁵¹ Wisconsin Laws 1907, ch. 122. Another law, enacted the same year, empowered cities to establish technical schools or colleges (ch. 344). A third act in 1907 established the Wisconsin Mining School at Platteville (ch. 573).

the legislature authorized the appointment of a commission to report on illiteracy and the demand for evening schools (1909).⁶¹ This commission recommended an extension of industrial and agricultural education and suggested a number of important changes which resulted in an industrial education and apprenticeship law providing for continuation schools.⁶² In principle the early law gathered much from German industrial education. The legislation was unique in that it attracted much attention probably because of the strategic location of the State.

In New York an act passed in 1908 provided State aid for general industrial and trade schools in cities and union free school districts.⁶³ Two years later schools of agriculture, mechanic arts, and homemaking were added to the list of State-aided schools.⁶⁴ In 1913 the law was again amended to provide for continuation schools and evening vocational schools.⁶⁵

New Jersey was also one of the pioneer States to experiment with industrial education. As a result of the awakened appreciation of industrial training following the Centennial Exposition in 1876 the manufacturers of the State secured a law in 1881 which provided for State aid to cities, towns, or townships raising at least \$3,000 for an industrial school.⁶⁶ Only three schools were instituted under the law. Attempts were made later to improve the law, but apparently they did not promise much and in 1908 the governor was authorized to appoint a Commission on Industrial and Technical Education to study the situation thoroughly.⁶⁷ The result was a law in 1913 pertaining to industrial, agricultural, and household arts schools.⁶⁸ State aid was provided for these schools, which were to include day, continuation, and evening classes.

Several other States also enacted laws for industrial education. Maine in 1911 granted State aid for general industrial schools which taught trades.⁶⁹ In the same year Michigan permitted school districts to establish trade, industrial, and other vocational schools but granted no State aid therefor.⁷⁰ The next year Arizona granted State aid for

⁶¹ *Ibid.*, 1909, Joint Res. No. 53.

⁶² *Ibid.*, 1911, ch. 616.

⁶³ New York Laws, 1908, ch. 263.

⁶⁴ New York Consolidated Laws, 1910, vol. VIII, pp. 153-157.

⁶⁵ New York Laws, 1913, ch. 747.

⁶⁶ New Jersey Acts, 1881, ch. 164. Amendments were made in 1906 (ch. 20) and in 1909 (ch. 87).

⁶⁷ *Ibid.*, 1908, J. Res. No. 11.

⁶⁸ *Ibid.*, 1913, ch. 294.

⁶⁹ Maine Laws, 1911, ch. 133.

⁷⁰ Michigan Laws, 1911, No. 22. See also No. 222.

high schools giving "elementary training in agriculture, mining, manual training, domestic science or other vocational pursuits"⁶¹. Both Indiana and Pennsylvania enacted legislation in 1913 for vocational education.⁶² Virginia did likewise in 1914.⁶³

7. Types of Industrial Schools and Courses

A discussion of industrial education is rendered somewhat difficult because of the lack of clear definition of the terms used in the literature on the subject. In this study industrial schools are considered to be those which had a more or less direct vocational purpose. They are distinguished from manual training schools, which attempted to give training in some fundamental skills in the use of tools that might have vocational value but which were regarded primarily as having a general educational value.

The first type of industrial school which attracted attention was the trade school. Several private trade schools were established, beginning with the New York Trade School in 1881.⁶⁴ In the early days of the industrial education movement attention was given to the trade school and the Massachusetts Commission (1906) had it in mind as the core of its contemplated system.⁶⁵ The agitation and the legislation to establish such public schools met with little success. It has been estimated that in 1911 there were not more than 15 trade schools in operation and that the number by 1921 was probably only a few more than 20, a very meager showing indeed.⁶⁶ Numerous trade schools were operated for profit, but their service was probably of doubtful efficacy.⁶⁷

Closely related to the trade school was the trade preparatory, or intermediate industrial, school.⁶⁸ Its purpose was not to supplant apprenticeship but rather to give a basic preparation for later specialization. One of the earliest of such schools was established in Columbus, Ga., in 1906.⁶⁹ Under the New York law of 1908 several schools of the trade-preparatory type were opened in the State.⁷⁰ Similar schools were opened in Massachusetts in 1909.⁷¹ These schools gave a some-

⁶¹ Arizona Laws, 1912, ch. 45.

⁶² Indiana Laws, 1913, ch. 24; Pennsylvania Laws, 1913, No. 92.

⁶³ Virginia Laws, 1914, ch. 86.

⁶⁴ Commissioner of Labor, Twenty-fifth Annual Report, pp. 37-50.

⁶⁵ Commission on Industrial and Technical Education (Massachusetts), Report, pp. 21E.

⁶⁶ Douglas, Paul H., *Op. cit.*, pp. 193-198.

⁶⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 200-202.

⁶⁸ National Education Association, Report of the Committee on the Place of Industries in Public Education, p. 62.

⁶⁹ Daniel, Roland B., *Industrial Education in Columbus, Ga.*, p. 12.

⁷⁰ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Bulletin No. 11, pp. 15-22.

⁷¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 11-14.

what general training and dealt with the principles underlying groups of trades.

The technical high school adopted by several cities, notably Cleveland and Chicago, should be mentioned in this connection. These schools were designed to train the group of workers between the tradesmen and the engineers, that is, the foremen, superintendents, designers, etc.⁷²

Another form of vocational schooling which attracted much attention was the part-time cooperative plan.⁷³ This was an arrangement by which pupils alternated between the school and industry, one set of students receiving shop training in the industries while the alternating group was in school. The plan was first put into operation in the College of Engineering of the University of Cincinnati in 1906. In 1908 a similar arrangement was adopted in the high school of Fitchburg, Mass. A few other places tried the plan with some degree of success. It seemed to work well in furnishing vocational training. By this method the cost involved in vocational training was reduced, but certain difficulties were connected with it, particularly the cooperation of the employer and labor. In fact the special Committee on Industrial Education appointed by the American Federation of Labor in 1909 reported against the plan because vocational training under such a scheme was not completely under public control, that is, it gave the employer too much authority over the selection and training of the students.⁷⁴

The emphasis on the trade school in the early agitation and plans for industrial education was probably owing in part to a misunderstanding of industrial education in Germany. The visit of Dr. Kerchensteiner in 1910-11 undoubtedly did much to disillusion many on this point. He pointed out that it was the continuation rather than the trade school which was found so successful in his country. The continuation school operated during working hours, and it took the children for certain hours in the week or month, thus supplementing work with study. Even before Dr. Kerchensteiner's visit, Ohio, in 1910, passed a law permitting any board of education to require employed children between the ages of 15 and 16 years to attend continuation school not to exceed 8 hours a week.⁷⁵ Soon other States enacted continuation school laws, Wisconsin in 1911, and New York, New

⁷² National Education Association, Report of the Committee on the Place of Industries in Public Education pp. 81, 97.

⁷³ Douglas, Paul H., Op. cit., pp. 246-251.

⁷⁴ American Federation of Labor, Industrial Education, pp. 11-12.

⁷⁵ Douglas, Paul H., Op. cit., p. 233.

Jersey, Massachusetts, Indiana, and Pennsylvania in 1913.⁷⁶ Great differences obtained in these laws. Several States granted aid for continuation schools, others did not. The compulsory attendance phase differed considerably in the States. There were also other differences such as the type of training contemplated by the laws. Obviously the legislators were hesitant, but the large number of States adopting the school in 1 year shows much interest in it. Evidence has been collected which seems to indicate that by 1917, while perhaps not serving a large number of children this form of school was established in several States with some success. However, it was far from having been fully tried and proved.

In addition to the types of vocational schools already mentioned the evening and correspondence schools should be noted.⁷⁷ The former were, for the most part, an extension of general education rather than an effort to provide industrial education. Experience seemed to demonstrate that evening schools could not adequately meet the need for vocational education. Correspondence courses, prior to 1917, met with considerable success in the universities. The greater part of this work was, however, cultural in purpose, though some vocational courses were offered. The correspondence courses which were most important in point of numbers enrolled were probably in the private schools conducted for profit. Such schools although they did some excellent work, could hardly be looked upon as meeting any considerable proportion of the demand for vocational education.

⁷⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 254-262.

⁷⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 229-243.

Chapter IV

Educational Development: Issues and Conclusions

1. The Relation of Vocational Education to General Education

A problem which proved to be difficult was the relation between general and vocational education. One group of educators maintained that a form of general education which trained pupils to act in a broad-minded fashion was the prime consideration. Some even went so far as to insist that America's great success was owing principally to the liberal or general training which the public school afforded as contrasted with a highly specialized form of education. There were others, as may be inferred from the foregoing discussions on industrial education, who favored a highly specialized education as the means of national security and prosperity. This problem became the subject of much discussion.¹ Some leaders believed there was danger in specialized education in that youth trained in it might lose their capacity to adapt themselves to changing industrial conditions. Others asserted that vocational education was also cultural. They believed that vocational education was highly desirable from a civic point of view inasmuch as the most desirable citizen was the one who could honestly and adequately make his way among his fellows because he knew how to do something useful.

- From the point of view of the administration of the schools, the issue was a very practical one. One question was paramount: Should there be a single school system including all forms of education, or should there be a dual organization; that is, should there be one set of machinery for general education and another for vocational, or should both types of education be conducted under one control?

The first question was whether vocational education should be supplied in separate schools or through departments in schools already organized. In agricultural education the earlier tendency in the second

¹ Rogers, Howard J., *The Relation of Education to Industrial and Commercial Development*. In the *Educational Review*, 23: 490-502; Woods, Robert A.; Kennelley, Arthur C., and Roberts, Arthur N., *The Basis of an Efficient Education—Culture or Vocation*. In the *School Review*, 15: 333-374; Cubberley, Ellwood P.; Woods, Robert A., and others, *Does the Present Trend Toward Vocational Education Threaten Liberal Culture?* In the *School Review*, 19: 454-488.

dary field was toward separate schools.² However, the later tendency was in the direction of including agricultural courses in the high schools. In the field of industrial education independent schools had generally been established.³ The Massachusetts Commission on Industrial and Technical Education in 1906 recommended independent industrial schools and this type of school was provided in the law soon thereafter enacted by the State.⁴ State legislation elsewhere generally followed this arrangement, though not the phrasing. Under the Massachusetts law of 1911, the Indiana law of 1913, and the Pennsylvania law of 1913, vocational work might be carried on in the high schools, but the courses must be under separate organization. In Arizona and Virginia no such independent schools or organizations were stipulated.

Two organizations expressed their views on this point. The Special Committee on Industrial Education, appointed by the American Federation of Labor, reported in 1910 in favor of separate schools though not necessarily in separate buildings.⁵ The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education in a statement made in 1913 said that "the work in vocational education should be carried on separately and independently from that of general education, so that it might be left free to realize the dominant aims of fitting for useful employment", and the society also added the following statement: "This requires a separate organization, under a separate head or a distinctive management, and separate equipment, course of study, pupils, and teachers who shall have had extended practical experience in the industries or occupations they are employed to teach."⁶ Separate schools it believed to be the better plan.

The administrative provisions for industrial schools showed wide variations. The Massachusetts law of 1906 contemplated a system of independent industrial schools under the direct control of a State Commission on Industrial Education. There was no statement as to local administration, but subsequently the town or city appointed a committee to have charge.⁷ This committee was virtually the agent of the State commission. In 1908 a city or town was empowered to provide and maintain independent industrial schools in charge of a board of trustees. This organization soon came into conflict with the State

² *Supra*, pp. 10-11.

³ For references to the laws on industrial education see pp. 22-25.

⁴ Commission on Industrial and Technical Education (Massachusetts), Report, p. 21.

⁵ American Federation of Labor, *Industrial Education*, p. 14.

⁶ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, *Policies and Principles That Should Underlie State Legislation for a State System of Vocational Education*.

⁷ Commission on Industrial Education (Massachusetts), Report, 1907, pp. 23-25.

Board of Education, and as a result the State Commission on Industrial Education and the State Board of Education were consolidated. The local industrial schools were placed under the school committee of the town or city or under a board of trustees for vocational education, according to the law of 1911. Thus while vocational schools and general schools were separate, the local management might be united. The evolution was toward a single control.

The evolution of the control of vocational education in Connecticut has been set forth in a preceding chapter (ch. III, sec. 6).

The Wisconsin law of 1907 placed the local control of industrial schools under the regular boards of education, but it allowed these boards to appoint advisory committees to conduct the trade schools with the approval of the boards. The 1911 law established a separate system of industrial education by placing State-aided industrial education under a State board of industrial education and placing the local administration under a board of industrial education.⁸

In New York, Maine, Michigan, New Jersey, Indiana, Pennsylvania, and Virginia the industrial schools were entirely under the regularly constituted boards of education.⁹ In these States the central authority was vested in the power controlling the system of general education.

The principal difficulty which the advocates of vocational education feared was that, unless those who were directly and peculiarly interested had control of vocational education, provision for it would be dissipated in general education and fail to accomplish its purpose.¹⁰ To overcome this fear there was devised what was known as the advisory committee. Wisconsin was the first State to adopt it. New York in 1908, Massachusetts in 1911, and Connecticut and Indiana in 1913 required local boards to appoint advisory committees representing the local trades and industries. Pennsylvania in 1913

⁸ The State superintendent of education was a member ex officio of the State board of industrial education and the general supervision of the public industrial schools provided by the act was placed under an assistant in the department of education, appointed by the State superintendent of education. The local superintendent of schools was a member ex officio of the local board of industrial education. In these ways the separate system of industrial education was connected with the regular school system. The appointive members of both the State board and the local board were representatives of employers and employees. The local boards were optional in towns and cities of less than 5,000 and mandatory in towns and cities of more than 5,000.

⁹ The New Jersey Commission on Industrial Education in 1909 recommended a State commission on industrial education and local boards of trustees independent of the boards of education, but the recommendation was not adopted. The Maryland Commission on Industrial Education in 1910 was strongly in favor of placing industrial and agricultural education under the State board of education and the county boards of education.

¹⁰ E. g., H. E. Miles in Bulletin No. 16, National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, pp. 223-225, and in the *Survey*, 29: 682-685, February 15, 1913.

also authorized the appointment of advisory committees under a plan approved by the State board of education. These committees were expected to give counsel and advice in the administration of vocational education. Another device with a similar purpose was a representative board as provided in the Wisconsin law of 1911.

Three national organizations made pronouncements on advisory and representative boards. In 1908 the National Education Association recommended that vocational schools "have the advice and the approval of the trade interested, to the end that graduates of these schools may at once become advanced apprentices and journeymen."¹¹ The special committee on industrial education appointed by the American Federation of Labor reported in 1910 in favor of "local advisory boards, including representatives of the industries, employers, and organized labor."¹² In 1912 the National Association of Manufacturers adopted a comprehensive program one part of which recommended the "establishment of independent State and local boards of industrial education consisting of one-third each, professional educators, employers, and employees, thereby insuring, as in the more successful European countries, the proper correlation of the schools and the industries."¹³

2. A Unitary or a Dual School System

There was a fundamental difficulty in the administrative relation of vocational education to general education. The feelings of certain interested groups are clear from the foregoing statements. They desired more or less control to assure themselves that the vocational purpose would really be carried out. On this question there was a wealth of vigorous discussion. Arrayed against a separate system of agricultural education were a number of men who held that such a scheme followed blindly the stratified societies of Europe and that it would operate in America to destroy the social unity of the country and weaken and peasantize the farmer.¹⁴ Separate schools, it was urged, would greatly hinder the rapid extension of high-school opportunities into the rural districts. Furthermore, these men believed it would be very unfortunate for agricultural education, as

¹¹ National Education Association, Proceedings, 1919, p. 37.

¹² American Federation of Labor, Industrial Education, p. 15.

¹³ National Association of Manufacturers, Proceedings, 1912, p. 291.

¹⁴ Ellis, A. Caswell, *The Teaching of Agriculture in the Public Schools*, pp. 14-17; Davenport, Eugene, *The Next Step in Agricultural Education*, pp. 5-10; also his *Address at the Dedication of the Hall of Agriculture at the University of Maine*, pp. 14-16; Bailey, L. H., *The State and the Farmer*, pp. 150-164; also his *The Training of Farmers*, pp. 137-171.

well as for general education, if separate agricultural schools should be established, as each needed the enriching influence of the other to prevent a one-sided training. It was said that what was needed was not so much a new school as a redirection of the rural schools in the interest of rural life. In the movement for industrial education the debate was quite as vigorous.¹⁵ In Illinois there was so much difference of opinion on this point that the State failed to make provision for vocational education before the enactment of the Smith-Hughes Act.

On this issue two national organizations made emphatic statements. The National Education Association in 1914 went on record as follows:

The Association views with disfavor any proposal of a parallel system of schools exclusively for the trades and industries at public expense, but favors a comprehensive, unified system of public education, including all types and forms under the single administration of the constituted authorities in charge of the public schools.¹⁶

In 1915 the American Federation of Labor was equally insistent in its statement, which was, "That all courses in industrial education shall be administered by the same board of education or trustees administering the general education; that no Federal legislation on this subject shall receive the approval of the American Federation of Labor which does not require a unit system of control over all public-school studies, general and industrial."¹⁷ The question of control was obviously regarded as very important.

3. Conclusions

The outstanding fact regarding vocational education in 1917 was that the movement had not progressed to the point of agreement on many of the most important questions which had been raised during its development. That there had been much experimenting is obvious inasmuch as the laws were constantly amended and the laws enacted by the various States showed much variation. The variation was partly explained by different conditions in the several States but not wholly so. It was rather an indication that there had not been developed an extensive experience in the work of providing vocational education and the leaders had not arrived at an agreement on the fundamental policies and principles to be followed. No form of training seems to have been generally accepted as satisfactory.

¹⁵ For a summary of the argument see *School and Society*, I: 305-307, Feb. 15, 1915.

¹⁶ National Education Association, *Bulletin*, vol. III, no. 4, p. 46.

¹⁷ American Federation of Labor, *Proceedings*, 1915, p. 323.

In industrial education particularly there was great difficulty. The early proponents considered the German scheme seriously, but they more or less misunderstood it. Although the core of the Massachusetts system recommended by the Commission on Industrial and Technical Education was the trade school, it became obvious by and by that this plan was not the ultimate solution of industrial education. Forthwith the continuation school was tried. As to its success the country was not fully assured because it had not been sufficiently tried. This latter school seemed to be successful in Germany, but whether it would be equally successful in the comparatively new country of America was an open question.

Consequently in 1917 the direction which the development of vocational education was likely to take in America was uncertain. The movement was too recent, dating as it did from about 1905, to offer satisfactory solutions for the problems which had to be met before a satisfactory system of vocational education could be assured. Also it should be remembered that an important group of men interested in industrial training confidently expected apprenticeship and corporation training to play a leading role in training for industrial service. This fact further emphasizes the lack of understanding concerning the situation and the frequent disagreement on the whole problem.

Finally, the sectional interests of the country stand out prominently in the progress of vocational education. Provision for agricultural education was made principally in the Southern and Middle Western States which were devoted to agricultural activity. The States which essayed systems of industrial education were mostly the Eastern and Northern States, that is, those of the industrial section of the country. In any national movement for vocational education these sectional interests were apt to appear.

Chapter V

The Development of a National Point of View in Education

It is the purpose of this chapter to sketch briefly certain tendencies, political and educational, which were more or less evident in the early years of the twentieth century. Two such tendencies are pertinent and important for this study, first, the general movement toward greater centralization in administration and increasing dependence on the Federal Government, and, second, the development of a well-established Federal policy toward education.

1. The Unit of Educational Administration

Among the important developments in educational administration was that toward larger units of support and control.¹ The evolution proceeded in two ways. First, the local school district gave way to the township and, in many cases to the county, form of educational organization. In the city the district and ward system gave way to administration under the city as a unit.

Second, there was a development of the function of the State governments in promoting and controlling education.² Through State subsidies to localities the States more and more determined and enforced educational policies and standards in the localities. Thus there evolved the larger unit of educational support and administration which was needed to keep pace with social and economic changes.

From emphasis on the State as the unit of support it was but a step to urge that the Nation participate in education. The same conditions which emphasized the State interest turned attention to the Nation as a source of funds for the support of public education.

2. The Federal Government and the States

A unique feature of the American Government is the fact that two sets of political machinery have been set up covering the same territory, yet distinct and more or less independent. Both of these organizations

¹ Cubberley, Ellwood P., *State School Administration*, pp. 150f. and 207f.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 270-302.

are the creations of the people and both have direct and immediate relations to the citizens. Through the Federal and the State constitutions the people have granted powers to each organization and withheld powers from each. In general, State deals with matters of local consequence while to the Federal Government has been delegated the right to deal with affairs of national and international import. The general intention seems to have been to restrict the functions of the Federal Government to the minimum necessary for national welfare. For some functions the jurisdiction is clearly defined, in others it is not. There is no mention of education in the Federal Constitution, but, inasmuch as the tenth amendment reserves to the States all powers not delegated to the Federal Government nor prohibited to the States by that Constitution, there are many who regard education as a matter primarily for State control.

With the development of the country the actual working of the Constitution has been greatly modified through legislation, judicial interpretation, and habit and custom, in a manner probably unanticipated by the framers of the instrument. The great social and economic changes were not foreseen when the Constitution was drawn up. However, the framers of the document laid down a scheme of organization which has proved adaptable in a rapidly changing world. In the evolution which has occurred the Federal Government has waxed stronger and stronger.³

The evolution of Federal power is owing principally to three reasons. First, Congress has the power "to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises", which means the power of direct and indirect taxation.⁴ The latter method of securing revenue is indirectly a source of great power. Second, Congress has the power to regulate interstate and foreign commerce.⁵ This provision has been subject to a wide interpretation. President Roosevelt, for example, seized upon it as a means of greatly extending the activity of the Federal Government. The regulation of railways, express companies, and telephones is based principally upon this provision. Under the extension of the police power over such undertakings the Federal power has also greatly increased. Third, Congress is authorized to make all necessary and proper laws to carry out its powers and the powers vested in the Government.⁶ The mass of constantly changing legislation is an

³ West, Henry Litchfield, *Federal Power*, especially ch. V and VII; Pierce, Franklin, *Federal Usurpation*, especially ch. III, V, VI, and VIII.

⁴ Constitution of the United States, art. I, sec. 8, clause 12.

⁵ *Ibid.*, clause 3.

⁶ *Ibid.*, clause 18.

important factor in strengthening the Federal Government.⁷ An example of the development in Federal legislation is seen in the Morrill land-grant act of 1862. President Buchanan vetoed the bill on the ground that it was not constitutional, but later the bill was passed again and President Lincoln signed it.⁸ Since its enactment no one seems seriously to have questioned the constitutionality of the law, and it has not been brought into court for decision. In fact, the law has become a well-established precedent and it has been followed by important extensions. Thus precedents and practices cumulate, and no one objects because they benefit the people. No matter what may be one's reaction to the rights of a State in the abstract, the principle of "States' rights" is not necessarily followed in a particular instance. The fact is that in legislation the particular occasion rather than the general principle is apt to be the compelling force.

It has been stated that in some situations the jurisdiction of the State and Federal Governments is clearly defined, as, for example, counterfeiting. In other situations the line of demarcation is not so clearly drawn. The uncertainty thus occasioned gives rise to what may be called a "twilight zone."⁹ A case arising in this realm is apt to be dealt with according to the necessity of the occasion. Such a doctrine or principle finds its basis in the third point cited above. In fact this principle of necessity must frequently be invoked if the matter involved is of national rather than merely local import.

Coupled with these interpretations as a means of increasing Federal activity there was also a changing attitude of mind on the part of the citizens, who approved this development. Obviously, strong power was necessary to combat powerful industrial combines and other groups and associations organized on a national scale. As interstate problems became more and more pressing State lines tended to disappear.¹⁰ This evolution is reflected in the tendency to form national organizations and associations some of which were established partly to secure the enactment of Federal legislation. Obviously, the basis was laid for the Federal Government to extend its interest very greatly in the direction of social and educational legislation.

⁷ Some argument for the expansion of Federal activity is also derived from the general welfare clause of the Constitution. President Taft, for example, in an address in 1911, said, "The welfare of the people is so dependent on improved agricultural conditions that it seems wise to use the welfare clause of the Constitution to authorize the expenditure of money for improvement in agricultural education." (William Howard Taft, *Conservation of the Soil*, p. 7.)

⁸ Kandel, I. L., *Federal Aid for Vocational Education*, pp. 15, 19.

⁹ See Kimball, Everett, *The National Government of the United States*, pp. 390-418; West, Henry Litchfield, *Federal Power*, ch. V.

¹⁰ The distrust of State legislatures was undoubtedly an important factor in this development. See Young, James T., *The New American Government and its Work*, pp. 643-651.

3. New Social Legislation

The broadening national interest as expressed in new forms of Federal legislation pertaining to social, moral, and educational matters is illustrated by the almost phenomenal development of the Department of Agriculture.¹¹ This department was established primarily for investigational and educational purposes. There are citizens who hold its activities unconstitutional,¹² yet it has grown by leaps and bounds because of the great need and value of its service. One measure following another has been enacted by Congress to extend the activity of this agency until it is now one of the largest of the executive departments.

A second development of social legislation on the part of the Federal Government is seen in what may be termed the field of morals. For example, the Immigration Act of 1907 contained a section to prevent the importation of alien women for immoral purposes and to extend this provision to 3 years after importation.¹³ In line with this legislation Congress in 1910 passed the Mann White Slave Act to prevent transporting a woman or a girl in interstate or foreign commerce for immoral purposes.¹⁴ This legislation illustrates the tendency of the Federal Government to extend its interest into the field of moral and social legislation.

A third type of Federal legislation of this general type concerns labor and related interests. In 1908 the employers' liability law made the employer responsible for accidents to workers in interstate operations and activities.¹⁵ The child labor law, enacted in 1916, prohibited interstate commerce in the products of child labor.¹⁶ The humanitarian interest of the Federal Government is also seen in the creation of the Children's Bureau in the Department of Commerce and Labor in 1913 to "investigate and report to said department upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child life among all classes of our people, and especially investigate the questions of infant mortality, the birth rate, orphanage, juvenile courts, desertion, dangerous occupations, accidents, and diseases of children, employment legislation affecting children in the several States and Terri-

¹¹ See Wankar, William L., *The United States Department of Agriculture*, pp. 9-32, 124.

¹² Pierce, Franklin, *Federal Usurpation*, pp. 183-193.

¹³ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 34, I, p. 809. This particular section was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, vol. 36, I, p. 825.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, vol. 35, I, p. 65.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, vol. 39, I, p. 673. The act was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. In 1919 Congress passed an act levying a high tax on goods manufactured by child labor. This act was also declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court.

ories."¹⁷ Finally, in 1913, the Department of Labor was established "to foster, promote, and develop the welfare of the wage earners of the United States, to improve their working conditions, and to advance their opportunities for profitable employment."¹⁸ These measures emphasize the growing national strength and influence of labor; they also illustrate a national emphasis on the social, educational, and humanitarian aspects of life on the part of the Federal Government.¹⁹

4. Federal Grants for Education

At a very early date the Federal Government exhibited considerable interest in education.²⁰ The Congress of the Confederation in May 1785, adopted a proposal to dedicate to the maintenance of public schools lot number 16 of every township in the western territory ceded to the Government by the States. At various times this legislation was extended so that large amounts of land were given for public education. In addition to the gifts of land there were also at various times money grants given to the States for their common schools. These land and money grants were given with practically no conditions and restrictions except the very general one that they were for public education. There was no Federal supervision in their management. The important feature of this legislation is that the Nation officially gave its sanction to free public education and adopted means to promote it.

One aspect of the educational interest of the Federal Government is found in its concern for the education of dependent peoples. Three classes of these people have received attention. Under the Freedmen's Bureau following the Civil War an important educational service was rendered to the Negroes of the southern States.²¹ The Indians constitute a second group of dependent people who have received educational service from the Federal Government.²² Finally, in 1893 the Government embarked on a policy of education and uplift for the natives of Alaska.²³ These are illustrations of education by the Federal Government for people who bore a peculiar relation to the Government.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, vol. 37, I, p. 79. In 1913 the Bureau was transferred to the newly established Department of Labor.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 736.

¹⁹ See *Cong. Rec.*, 30: 5377-5378, address by Congressman Fess, of Ohio, for a statement of the philosophy of this development.

²⁰ Cubberley, Ellwood P., *State School Administration*, pp. 15-76.

²¹ Commissioner of Education, Report, 1900-01, vol. I, pp. 437-451; Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1916, no. 38, p. 289.

²² Commissioner of Indian Affairs, Report for the Year Ended June 30, 1920, pp. 13, 148, 193.

²³ Commissioner of Education, Report, 1907, vol. I, p. 34. The Columbia Institution for the Deaf, located in Washington, D.C., is a unique institution of education established by the Federal Government and receiving Federal support. It reports directly to the Secretary of the Interior.

5. Proposals for the Eradication of Illiteracy

One of the most interesting series of attempts to secure Federal aid for education was related to the impoverishment of the Southern States subsequent to the Civil War and to the large illiterate white and colored population in that section of the country. It resulted in a great movement from 1873 to 1890 to secure Federal aid for common schools.²⁴ In Congress it culminated in the Blair bill, a measure which passed the Senate three times, but it was not passed by the House of Representatives.²⁵

The condition of education in the Southern States and the attempt to rectify it were occasionally mentioned in the discussions of Federal aid for vocational education.

6. The United States Office of Education

Although the Federal Government has no control over education in the States, it has not entirely neglected its opportunity to perform a necessary and very helpful service for the public schools of the Nation. The service has been rendered largely through the Bureau, now the Office of Education. This Office was established in 1867 as a Department of Education.²⁶ Two years later the Department was abolished and the Bureau of Education was created as an office in the Department of the Interior. In 1929 the present name was adopted.

The work of the Office of Education has until recently consisted principally of compiling reports on the progress of education, making studies of educational problems, giving expert advice on educational matters, and so forth. It had no administrative authority except (1) the general administration of the land-grant fund of 1862 and the Morrill-Nelson appropriations to the land-grant colleges, and (2) the administration of educational and medical relief for the natives of Alaska. The last-named service was transferred to the Bureau of Indian Affairs in 1931. In 1933 the functions of the Federal Board for Vocational Education were transferred to the Office of Education. Recently the members of the staff have had an important part in the organization and administration of projects for educational relief in the present emergency. The Office holds an important advisory position with reference to proposed Federal legislation on education.

²⁴ Mayo, A. D., *National Aid to Education, and Building for the Children of the South*. See also Bureau of Education, *Circular of Information*, no. 2, 1882, pp. 44ff., and no. 3, 1887, pp. 179-191.

²⁵ 63d Cong., 3.Dbc. No. 616.

²⁶ Commissioner of Education, *Report*, 1907, vol. I, ch. I.

7.. The Land-Grant Colleges.

One very important way in which the Federal Government has entered into and influenced education has been through provisions for education in agriculture and mechanic arts in the land grant colleges and universities. This legislation prior to 1907 is found principally in four important acts, as follows:

(a) *The First Morrill Act, July 2, 1862.*²⁷ This act gave to each State 30,000 acres of public land for each Senator and Representative to which it was entitled in Congress, the States not having enough public land within their borders receiving land scrip for the deficit. The money derived from the sale of these lands constituted an endowment fund the interest of which was used for the support of "at least, one college, where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts, in such manner as the legislatures of the States may respectively prescribe, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life." The legislative assent of a State to the provisions of the act was necessary before the State could participate in the benefits of the act.

(b) *The Hatch Act, August 30, 1890.*²⁸ Under this act Congress made to each State an annual appropriation of \$15,000 to be used by the State in conducting researches and verifying experiments in the agricultural experiment stations under the direction of the land-grant colleges. The appropriations were made from money arising from the sale of public lands.

(c) *The Second Morrill Act, August 30, 1890.*²⁹ Under this act there was annually appropriated out of money from the sale of public lands \$15,000 to each State and Territory for the further development and maintenance of the land-grant colleges, this being increased annually by \$1,000 for 10 years, after which time the annual amount for each State and Territory was \$25,000.³⁰ This money might be applied only to instruction, and none of it was authorized for buildings.

²⁷ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 12, p. 503.

²⁸ Ibid., vol. 24, p. 440.

²⁹ Ibid., vol. 26, p. 417.

³⁰ The Homestead Act (act of May 17, 1902) provided that in the event the annual sales of public lands were not sufficient to meet the payments to the land grant colleges and experiment stations under the second Morrill Act, the deficiency should be "paid by the United States." The Reclamation Act (act of June 17, 1902) contained a similar provision.

(d) *The Adams Act*, March 16, 1906.²¹ Under this act Congress appropriated to each agricultural experiment station for the year ending June 30, 1906, an additional appropriation of \$5,000 and increased this amount annually by \$2,000 for 5 years, after which time the annual appropriation to each State for this purpose was \$30,000.²²

Several important features of this legislation prior to 1907 may be noted. First, the Federal Government began this activity through granting public lands to the States for the maintenance and endowment of colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts. This action was a continuation of an early policy of granting public lands to the States for general educational purposes. A unique feature of the land-grant college legislation is that the lands were granted for a specific and largely new type of education. The appropriations for the agricultural experiment stations were in keeping with these land grants since the funds appropriated were derived from the sales of public lands. A similar statement applies to the appropriations under the second Morrill Act. However, in 1900 provision was made for payment to the colleges from any funds in the Treasury should the income from the sales of lands not be sufficient therefor. Finally, under the Adams Act payment was ordered to the agricultural experiment stations from any unappropriated money in the Treasury. There was thus evolved a provision which might not have been acceptable in 1862, the direct payment of Federal money to the States for educational purposes.

A second important feature of the later legislation is that it recognized or set up a form of contractual relationship between the States and the Federal Government. The act making the land grant of 1862 specified the use which was to be made of the grant as well as the method of its management. Before a State could become a beneficiary of the grant its State legislature had to accept the provisions of the act. This contractual relationship was again implied in the Hatch Act, which provided that there should be no impairment of the relation between the colleges and their respective States through the acceptance of the Federal appropriations under the act. In the same act Congress reserved the right to repeal any or all parts of the act, a provision which has been included in all the subsequent acts of this type.

²¹ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 34, p. 63.

²² In 1923 Congress passed the Furnell Act greatly enlarging the appropriations for the agricultural experiment stations. Under it additional appropriations were authorized which were increased until the year ending June 30, 1930, when they reached and remained at \$60,000 annually. (*Ibid.*, vol. 43, p. 970.)

Third, the Federal administration of the grants and funds is important. The first Morrill Act carried no Federal supervision of its administration. Each college was required to make to all other similar colleges and to the Secretary of the Interior an annual report on its progress and work, and the governor of each State was required to report annually to Congress regarding the State of the fund. No Federal machinery was provided to see to it that the States carried out the law properly.³³ The administration of the second Morrill Act was committed to the Secretary of the Interior while to the Secretary of Agriculture was entrusted the provision for the agricultural experiment stations.³⁴

Finally, the effect of this legislation has been far-reaching. The first Morrill Act represents a change in Federal policy from making grants in aid of education in general to grants in aid of specified forms of education. For this reason it plays an important role in the history of Federal subsidies for education. Its marked success has set a strong precedent and stimulated further extension of Federal aid for education.

A most important factor in the land-grant college movement was the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations. It was organized in 1887 with the object of considering and discussing "all questions pertaining to the successful progress and administration of the colleges and stations included in the Association."³⁵ The Association has been a leading agency in promoting the success of the land-grant college work. Nationally it is one of our most powerful educational organizations, especially in Federal legislation bearing on education. For several reasons the Association has been very successful in securing Federal enactments bearing on the work and progress of these colleges: First, it has a strong and influential leadership; second, it has effective support from the agricultural population; third, it promotes a measure at an opportune time; and, fourth, it unites all its forces on measures which have a possibility of being enacted.

Just what Senator Morrill and his adherents in this early legislation had in mind is an interesting question. The evidence seems to indicate that in urging the first act they had no clearly defined type of edu-

³³ The Assistant Attorney General has, however, ruled that the second Morrill Act and the Nelson Amendment of 1907 are in the nature of amendments to the first Morrill Act and that they authorize the Department of the Interior to require a detailed statement from the States and the colleges regarding the land-grant fund.

³⁴ Blanch, L. E., *Federal Legislation and Administration pertaining to the Land-grant Colleges*. In Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1924, no. 30, pp. 9-18.

³⁵ *Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, Proceedings, 1889, p. 13.*

cation in view, but so far as they outlined their purpose it seems to have been to train the practical farmer.³⁶ So indefinite was the conception that some of those charged with establishing the institutions had considerable difficulty in knowing how to proceed and what to do. The fact is these institutions were themselves to lead in a movement for vocational and technical education, which at that time had made only very meager beginnings. In all probability the training intended was directly and practically vocational.³⁷

The times since 1862 have seen phenomenal changes in American education. In the sixties the meaning of a college was not clearly defined. Many schools calling themselves colleges had far more students in their preparatory departments than in their college departments.³⁸ Others, while trying to do work of college grade, were really secondary in character if one may judge from the facilities which they possessed. Because of such conditions the distinction between work of secondary grade and that of college grade was not clearly drawn. Since 1862 secondary education has developed at a rapid rate. This growth, together with certain activities such as those of the famous Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies and various standardizing and accrediting agencies, has resulted in an increasing differentiation between secondary and college work.³⁹ However, to the present day there are in existence a number of secondary schools which call themselves colleges. This practice persists particularly in schools for Negroes in the southern States and in private commercial and business schools.

In this movement for standardization the land-grant colleges and universities played their part. At the same time they continued to prepare the farmer for greater vocational achievement. First, they set up secondary schools of agriculture, whose purpose was vocational rather than college preparatory.⁴⁰ Second, they established numerous short courses of from several weeks to several months duration to give practical vocational training in agriculture and the mechanic arts.⁴¹ Third, the colleges of agriculture developed extension work of various kinds to reach the citizens at their homes.⁴² In these ways the land-grant colleges continued to serve their constituencies vocationally.

³⁶ See Kandel, I. L., *Federal Aid for Vocational Education*, pp. 8, 82-85.

³⁷ *Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, Proceedings, 1904*, pp. 79-91.

³⁸ *Commissioner of Education, Report, 1870*, pp. 506ff.

³⁹ *Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1913*, no. 4, ch. I.

⁴⁰ True, Alfred Charles, *A History of Agricultural Education in the United States*, pp. 335-346.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 317-319.

⁴² *Ibid.*, 275-282.

8. The Grant-in-aid, an Important Device

It has already been pointed out that under the Federal form of Government the education of the citizenry has generally been conceded to be a matter lying within the administrative jurisdiction of the States and of local communities operating under the State law. Consequently each State has assumed certain educational functions and responsibilities in the organization and support of its school systems, which are generally administered by the local authorities working under State direction, and there is no Federal control over the State in this work. This condition has resulted in a great diversity of educational provision; which may probably be accounted for principally by the great inequalities among the States and within the States from locality to locality in their ability to pay for education, by the differences among the States in their desire for education, and by the educational leadership, or the lack of such leadership, in the several States. On the side of the Federal Government there has been noted a tendency to expand its field of activity into new lines of service. This tendency has developed partly because the citizens have demanded more services from the Government and partly because a means had to be found of effecting a more equitable adjustment of the burden of taxation under a system in which certain important sources of revenue are practically preempted to the Federal Government. Owing to the relationships between the several States and the Federal Government, and to the social and economic development of the country there arises the demand for Federal grants to education in the States.

The meaning of a Federal grant-in-aid is frequently not understood. A superficial view takes such a grant as a method whereby a State or a community conducts a raid on the Federal Treasury. The significance of a Federal grant is, however, of far greater import than such a view reveals. In England, where national grants-in-aid have been extensively used, they have, according to a keen student of the question, "become a governmental instrument of extraordinary potency for good or ill", and they are more and more being made "the pivot on which the machine really works."⁴³ In the United States Federal grants can be employed as a means whereby the Government can cooperate with the States in activities which are not expressly mentioned in the Constitution as falling within its province. The grant-in-aid is, under the Federal system, the easiest method, except by

⁴³ Webb, Sidney. *Grants in Aid*, p. 3. See also *The Development of a System of Federal Grants in Aid*, by Paul H. Douglas. In *Political Science Quarterly*, 35: 255-275, 522-544. June and December 1920.

constitutional amendment, by which the Federal Government can enter into such work as education for purposes other than those which are clearly national in their significance. States are likely to guard their traditional rights jealously so that constitutional amendment is slow and difficult. Federal grants-in-aid are therefore of great importance in the United States.

Some of the typical purposes for which Federal grants-in-aid may be used are: (1) To mitigate inequities under the system of taxation which is employed; (2) to encourage the kind of State and local expenditure most desirable in the interest of the Nation as a whole; and (3) to make possible the enforcement of a national minimum of certain types of activity and results. While all of these purposes do not always stand out clearly in the legislation on the land-grant colleges, some leaders saw much of the significance of such Federal action.⁴⁴ The later legislation shows tendencies to increase the Federal supervision over Federal grants to assure their use for the purposes intended by the legislators.

⁴⁴ See the summaries of the debates on this legislation, given by I. L. Kandel, *Federal Aid for Vocational Education*, pp. 3-58.

PART II: FEDERAL COOPERATION IN AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION WORK AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PROVIDED

Chapter I

Federal Aid for Training Vocational Teachers

1. The Burkett-Pollard Bill

(a) *Origin and introduction.*—The first direct move looking toward Federal aid for vocational education below college grade came from Nebraska, a State which has been aggressive in agricultural educational matters. In 1901 the State enacted a law which required for certain grades of teachers' certificates an examination in "the elements of agriculture including a fair knowledge of the structure and habits of the common plants, insects, birds and quadrupeds."¹ Almost immediately it proved difficult to secure teachers who were prepared in the new subject, for no teacher-training institutions were giving such service nor were they prepared to do so.

Because of this condition several educators of the State and the attorney general drafted a bill to secure aid from the Federal Government for normal school instruction in agriculture, manual training, domestic science, and related subjects.² The bill followed closely the precedents established in the land-grant college legislation. It was introduced in the House of Representatives by Representative Ernest M. Pollard, of Nebraska, on February 21, 1906, and in the Senate on the following day by Senator Elmer J. Burkett, also of Nebraska.³

(b) *The support of the bill.*—Soon after the introduction of the bill in Congress the proposal was indorsed by the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.⁴ In connection with the meeting of the Department of Superintendence in February 1907, there was a special meeting of a number of State superintendents

¹ Nebraska Laws, 1901, ch. 66.

² Statement by J. W. Crabtree to the author in a personal interview, Jan. 10, 1921.

³ 59th Cong., H.R. 15346 and S. 4642.

⁴ National Education Association, Proceedings, 1906, p. 34.

and presidents of State normal schools, which resulted in the organization of the National Committee on Agricultural Education to arouse public interest and unify the friends of the Burckett-Pollard bill so that Congress and the State legislatures might be strongly urged to accept the plan.⁵ In 1907, this committee was made a standing committee of the Normal Department of the National Education Association.⁶ It continued its agitation for the measure and in February 1908, appeared before the Senate committee in charge of the bill to urge congressional action.⁷

An interesting appeal to Congress to enact the bill came from the State legislature of Utah in 1907.⁸ It stated that such an appropriation would be very beneficial to the States of the arid West with their many and unusual agricultural problems. The State normal school of Utah was already to the extent of its ability successfully training teachers in these lines. However, it was stated that more financial assistance was needed by the school in this work than the State was able to supply.

(c) *Discussion of the bill.*—Several reasons for the enactment of the bill were urged by its promoters.⁹ Rural education, they stated, was receiving much consideration in some quarters and many rural schools were being consolidated. The public demanded that the schools give instruction in agriculture, but only a few teachers were prepared for this work. For this movement the normal schools were not prepared, it was said, nor could they easily provide the needed training. Agricultural education was a national, not merely a local problem, and the Government should share in making provision for it. Finally, the success of the land-grant colleges afforded ample precedent for the Government to continue its encouragement of agricultural education. It was also said that inasmuch as the normal schools were training the teachers who actually went out into the rural schools, Federal aid to the normal schools would be a way of extending assistance in a direction where it was greatly needed and where it would be most useful.

No special reasons in opposition to the bill seem to have been offered. However, it may be stated that members of the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations were also interested in training teachers of agriculture and they were fully cognizant

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 390.

⁶ *Ibid.*, 1907, p. 740; 1908, p. 704.

⁷ Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, Hearings, Feb. 26, 1908.

⁸ Utah Laws, 1907, pp. 275-276; Cong. Rec., 42: 118.

⁹ Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, Hearings, Feb. 26, 1908, pp. 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 14.

of the desires of the normal schools to reach into this field.¹⁰ Several members of the association believed that the land-grant colleges should do this work; in fact a number were already preparing for it. Although this interest on the part of the land-grant colleges cannot be considered as direct opposition to the Burkett-Pollard bill, it should be borne in mind that these colleges believed instruction in agriculture belonged in their field.

(d) *The bill in Congress.*—The Burkett-Pollard bill was first introduced in the Fifty-ninth Congress. Senator Burkett introduced it in the Senate of the Sixtieth Congress.¹¹ Senator McCreary, of Kentucky, also introduced a bill for a similar purpose.¹² Soon afterward Senator Burkett presented a slightly revised form of his bill, which was later introduced in the House of Representatives by Representative Charles F. Booher, of Missouri.¹³ During the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association in Washington in 1908 the Senate committee in charge of the Burkett bill held a hearing on it, which was attended by members of the National Committee on Agricultural Education.¹⁴

In February 1908, the Davis bill¹⁵ to provide Federal aid for secondary agricultural and industrial education was revised to include provision for the State normal schools and introduced in the House of Representatives. Thus the normal school bill lost its identity in the House and nothing further was heard of it in that body. Senator Burkett introduced his bill in the Senate of the Sixty-first Congress, which seems to be the last reference to the proposal to aid the normal schools through a separate measure.¹⁶ Such aid was included in the Dolliver bill, which was presented in the Senate in January 1910.¹⁷

2. The Nelson Bill

(a) *Origin and introduction.*—The introduction of the Burkett-Pollard bill in February 1906, was soon followed by activity in the land-grant college group. At the next annual meeting of their association (November 1906) the executive committee was authorized to have introduced in Congress a measure drawn as the Morrill Act of 1890 to

¹⁰ Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, Proceedings, 1907, pp. 80-90.

¹¹ 60th Cong., S. 302. Dec. 4, 1907.

¹² 60th Cong., S. 2864. Dec. 17, 1907.

¹³ 60th Cong., S. 3392 and H.R. 18931. Jan. 9, 1908, and Mar. 9, 1908.

¹⁴ Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, Hearings, Feb. 26, 1908.

¹⁵ *Infra*, pp. 101-102.

¹⁶ 61st Cong., S. 287. Mar. 22, 1909.

¹⁷ *Infra*, pp. 101-102.

increase the annual appropriation for the colleges.¹⁸ Accordingly in December 1906, such a bill was introduced in the Senate by Senator Knute Nelson, of Minnesota.¹⁹ It contained a clause authorizing the land-grant colleges to use a part of the contemplated appropriations in providing courses for the special preparation of instructors to teach the elements of agriculture and the mechanic arts.

(b) *The purpose and discussion of the bill.*—The argument for the increased appropriation revolved about the development of secondary and elementary education.²⁰ Out of the work of the colleges, it was said, had grown the movement to establish agricultural high schools, a movement which was growing. Moreover, the consolidation of rural schools pointed to a general reorganization of rural education. Under the stimulus of the land-grant colleges, instruction in manual training and mechanic arts, it was stated, was rapidly becoming a part of the curriculum of city schools. Finally, these colleges had rendered a pronounced service to the country by inaugurating instruction in home economics. In order that the leadership of the land-grant colleges might be continued, further Federal aid was needed.

Several objections were made to this increased aid.²¹ Representative Wadsworth, of New York, said the most serious objection was that it opened "the widest door toward centralization of power in the Federal Government." He feared that the public schools would be the next thing to come under Federal supervision and control. Representative Tawney, of Minnesota, strongly opposed the bill on the ground that it was an extravagant use of Federal funds and that it set a bad precedent of paternalism. Representative Scott, of Kansas, thought it preposterous that the States should ask further grants since they were themselves able to provide for their colleges.

(c) *The bill enacted.*—Senator Nelson was very active in promoting his measure. On January 7, 1907, he submitted to the Senate a statement to show why the bill should be passed.²² Nine days later he presented what was virtually the same bill, as an amendment which he intended to propose to the agricultural appropriation bill, and near the close of the month the Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry held hearings on his proposal.²³ In due time the amendment was offered to the agricultural appropriation bill while that bill was under consideration in the Senate, and it was accepted.²⁴ In the House of Rep-

¹⁸ Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, Proceedings, 1906, p. 62.

¹⁹ 59th Cong., S. 6680. Representative Charles R. Davis, also of Minnesota, introduced the bill in the House of Representatives (H.R. 22121).

²⁰ Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, Hearings, Jan. 30, 1907, pp. 70, 79f, 86; S.Doc. No. 189, Fifty-ninth Congress.

²¹ Cong. Rec., 41: 4490.

²² S.Doc., No. 189, 59th Cong.

²³ Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, Hearings, Jan. 30, 1907.

²⁴ Cong. Rec., 41: 3546-3547.

representatives the Nelson amendment aroused a lively debate, but it was finally accepted and thus became a part of the law.²⁵

The measure granted to each State and Territory an additional appropriation under the terms of the second Morrill Act. The additional appropriation began with \$5,000 the first year and increased by \$5,000 each year for 4 years, after which the annual amount was \$25,000. Under the Morrill Act of 1890 and the Nelson amendment, each State now receives from the Federal Government an annual appropriation of \$50,000 for instruction in its land-grant college.

(d) *The significance of the action.*—For several reasons the Nelson amendment is significant in the movement to extend Federal aid to vocational education. The dispatch with which it was passed by Congress indicates the popularity and the political strength of the land-grant colleges. There was clearly evidenced among these colleges a desire to have a prominent part in developing secondary vocational education. In fact, some of these colleges aspired to the headship of complete systems of agricultural and industrial education. This aspiration and the enactment of the Nelson amendment were ominous for the Burkett-Pollard bill as well as any other proposed extension of Federal aid for vocational training.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 3997, 4490-4494; U.S. Stat. L., vol. 34, p. 1281.

Chapter II

Federal Aid for Secondary Vocational Education: The Davis and the Davis-Dolliver Bills (1905-11)

1. Proposals from the South

From Federal aid for training teachers it is now necessary to turn to certain developments in the southern States. Reference has been made to certain conditions obtaining in those States following the Civil War.¹ In the closing days of 1903 Walter B. Hill, Chancellor of the University of Georgia, speaking before the Southern Educational Association, advocated Federal aid to deal with the illiteracy which hung like a great shadow over the Southland.² A year later, speaking again before the association, he said the time had come to extend the principles of the Morrill Acts to secondary and elementary education.³ This sentiment the association endorsed.⁴ Through the death of Chancellor Hill, in 1905, the South lost its most ardent champion of the cause, but in 1906 Pres. John W. Abercrombie of the University of Alabama advocated Federal funds for elementary education.⁵ A bill was soon afterward introduced in Congress by Representative Ariosto Wiley, of Alabama, to grant appropriations to the States for common and industrial schools.⁶ These proposals indicate one line of interest in the southern States which bears on further Federal legislation for education.

Another point of view is suggested by the legislation in Georgia, already mentioned, to establish an agricultural school in each congressional district of the State.⁷ This legislation proved very popular in

¹ *Supra*, p. 39.

² Southern Education Association, Proceedings, 1903-1904, pp. 85-93.

³ *Ibid.*, 1904, p. 55.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

⁵ *Ibid.*, 1906, p. 64.

⁶ 59th Cong., H.R. 25813. Feb. 25, 1907. Two other proposals were presented to this Congress. One, H.R. 16311, to incorporate the Industrial Education League of the South for promoting the education of whites who were not otherwise provided for, was introduced by Representative John Sharp Williams, of Mississippi. The other measure, intended as an amendment to the sundry civil appropriation bill, was proposed by Senator James Taliaferro, of Florida. It was to use certain funds in the Treasury of the United States for the industrial education of Negro youths in the South. (*Cong. Rec.*, 41: 1484.)

⁷ *Supra*, p. 10.

Georgia. The next move was in the direction of securing Federal aid for these institutions. In December 1906, Representative Leonidas Livingston, of that State, introduced a bill in Congress to grant annually \$10,000 for a similar school in each congressional district in the United States.⁸ In a few weeks Representative William Adamson, also of Georgia, introduced a bill in Congress to appropriate annually \$2,500 for each branch agricultural experiment station which each State or Territory would establish in congressional districts largely interested in agriculture.⁹

Thus from the South came the first proposal to Congress to extend assistance to secondary agricultural education on a plan similar to that provided for the land-grant colleges. It initiated a line of activity which continued for years before reaching a successful conclusion, a conclusion, however, which proved to be essentially different in character from the original intention.

2. Introduction and Progress of the Davis Bill

Although the first proposal for Federal aid to secondary agricultural education came from the South, it was left for men from northern States, the Republican Party then being in the majority in Congress, to elucidate and expand the original ideas and carry on the agitation. A few days after Representative Adamson introduced his bill, a bill which combined the Livingston and the Adamson proposals and added provision for mechanic arts and home economics instruction in city high schools was introduced in Congress by Representative Charles R. Davis, of Minnesota.¹⁰

The Davis bill was intended to grant to each State and Territory annual appropriations equal to 10 cents per capita of the population, for maintaining instruction in agriculture and home economics in secondary agricultural schools and instruction in mechanic arts and home economics in city secondary schools. The funds were to be used only for instruction in the subjects named, and at least half of the amount for each State and Territory was to be expended in agricultural high schools maintained under State authority in rural communities. There was to be not more than one high school for each 10 counties in the State or Territory. For each branch experiment station in connection with the agricultural schools there was to be an annual Federal

⁸ 59th Cong., H.R. 22891. Dec. 18, 1906. This bill was introduced in the Senate by Senator Alexander Clay, of Georgia, on Jan. 21, 1907. (S. 7967.)

⁹ 59th Cong., H.R. 24106. Jan. 14, 1907. This bill was introduced in the Senate by Senator Clay on Jan. 29, 1907. (S. 8200.)

¹⁰ 59th Cong., H.R. 24777. Jan. 22, 1907.

appropriation of \$2,500. The administration of the act was to be under the Secretary of Agriculture. The general provisions followed those of the land-grant, college and agricultural experiment station legislation. Near the close of the Fifty-ninth Congress Mr. Davis in an important address to the House explained the purpose of the bill.¹¹

At the opening of the Sixtieth Congress in December 1907, the House Committee on Agriculture, to which these bills had been referred, and of which Representative Davis had been a member in the Fifty-ninth Congress, was reorganized. Mr. Davis was omitted from the committee. For the most part, the members of the new committee did not favor the Davis bill.¹² Notwithstanding the disadvantage under which he now labored, Mr. Davis continued his work, and on the first day of the first session he introduced a slightly revised form of his earlier bill.¹³ Several months later his bill was again revised and presented in Congress.¹⁴ The new bill included an appropriation for State and Territorial normal schools for distinctive normal courses in agriculture, home economics, and mechanic arts. The administration of this provision, as that of the others, was to be under the Secretary of Agriculture.

In May 1908, Mr. Davis secured hearings before the House Committee on Agriculture.¹⁵ These hearings showed a widespread interest in the movement. Although the chairman stated that no affirmative action on the bills would be taken by the Committee; many members evinced more than a passing interest. The bill was redrafted and presented again in Congress early in January 1909.¹⁶ Two weeks later another revision of the bill was introduced in Congress.¹⁷

3. The Promoters of the Movement

Two men stand out conspicuously in the early propaganda for the Davis bill. The first of these was Representative Charles R. Davis, who was very active in promoting the idea. He delivered numerous addresses in various parts of the country to secure support for the measure.¹⁸ His address before the House of Representatives in March

¹¹ Cong. Rec., 41: 4499-4503.

¹² Personal statement by Mr. Davis to the author, Jan. 10, 1921.

¹³ 60th Cong., H.R. 534. Dec. 2, 1907.

¹⁴ 60th Cong., H.R. 18204. Feb. 27, 1908. This followed the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association in Washington in 1908. See *supra*: pp. 47-48.

¹⁵ House Committee on Agriculture. Hearings on House Bills Relating to Granting Federal Aid to Agricultural Education, etc., May 5, 1908.

¹⁶ 60th Cong., H.R. 24841. Jan. 4.

¹⁷ 60th Cong., H.R. 26737. Jan. 20, 1909. This bill was "to cooperate with the States" in providing vocational education of secondary grade. Mr. Davis introduced this bill in the 61st Cong. (H.R. 10952, June 24, 1909.)

¹⁸ Farmers' National Congress, Proceedings, 1907, pp. 46-62; National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Bulletin No. 9, pp. 101-112.

1907, was reprinted and widely circulated.¹⁹ The reports of the hearings in May 1908, were also sent out to those who were interested. An extensive correspondence was carried on to win support for the bill.

Working along with Mr. Davis was Willet M. Hays, Assistant Secretary of Agriculture. He had earlier been a member of the faculty of the University of Minnesota School of Agriculture. One of his interests was the development of a closely articulated system of agricultural education from the elementary schools up to and including the college of agriculture and the State university. In a number of important addresses Mr. Hays expounded the principles of the proposed law and he had a leading part in drafting the various forms of the bill, collecting material for reports and addresses thereon, and generally carrying on the propaganda.²⁰

4. Support of the Bill

Among those in high places who gave favorable consideration to this movement was President Theodore Roosevelt. In December 1906, he devoted a part of his annual message to technical and industrial education.²¹ He referred to the fact that the Federal form of Government limited national effectiveness in this direction for under it industrial and technical education were left primarily to the several States. He noted an exception, however, in the case of such activities as could be construed under the interstate commerce clause of the Constitution. This clause he hoped the legislative and the judicial branches of the Government would construe in the broadest possible manner. On various other occasions President Roosevelt showed his interest in agricultural and industrial education, and he heartily endorsed Federal aid for it along the lines of the Davis bill.²²

Several important groups of citizens also gave support to the Davis bill. Representing the agricultural interests, the Farmers' National Congress in 1907 and the National Grange in 1908 endorsed the bill.²³ Georgia indicated its continued interest by a legislative appeal in

¹⁹ Personal statement by Mr. Davis to the author, Jan. 10, 1921.

²⁰ Hays, Willet M., *Country Life Education*, pp. 9-13; *Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, Proceedings*, 1909, pp. 48-49; *Journal of Home Economics*, 1: 11-13, February 1909.

²¹ *Cong. Rec.*, 41: 28-29. This was after the introduction of the Burkett-Pollard bill but before any other bills were introduced to extend Federal aid to vocational education.

²² Address at Keokuk, Iowa, Oct. 1, 1907, pp. 36-41; Letter to Herbert Myrick, published in the *Orange Judd Weeklies*, Nov. 15, 1908.

²³ *Farmers' National Congress, Proceedings*, 1907, p. 101; *National Grange, Proceedings*, 1908, pp. 93-108.

1907.²⁴ The principal support, however, seems to have been from educators. A number of men from the land-grant colleges were emphatic in their endorsement though their association made no pronouncement.²⁵ The Southern Educational Association gave its endorsement,²⁶ but no such action was taken by the National Education Association other than to approve Federal aid for training teachers of agriculture, mechanic arts, and home economics. The manufacturing and commercial groups showed but little interest.

Thus it is evident that the early promotion of the movement was principally the work of a few individuals. This type of promotion continued until the fall of 1908 when the Orange Judd farm papers became active in furthering the cause.²⁷ They urged their readers to interest others in it and to send letters and petitions to Federal legislators to secure action on the bill.

It was owing principally to the efforts of a few individuals that the National League for Industrial Education was organized during the winter of 1908-09 to cooperate with all who were interested in securing the enactment of the Davis bill and its acceptance by the States.²⁸ The League carried on a vigorous campaign during January and February 1909. After that time it continued to support the measure, but it was not as aggressive as it had formerly been.

5. Argument for the Davis Bill

The arguments in behalf of the Davis bill were numerous. Many of them had to do primarily with the need for vocational education. The important arguments to be noted were those which concerned the national and the international aspects of the situation.

The question was asked, why not leave the new development to the States as was general education. Reply was made that vocational education was expensive and that the States were already carrying as heavy a load as they could bear.²⁹ Furthermore, although the States might perhaps carry the burden in part they would proceed slowly while the times demanded speed.³⁰ Stimulus and direction

²⁴ Georgia General Assembly, Acts and Resolutions, 1907, pp. 994-995.

²⁵ House Committee on Agriculture, Hearings, May 3, 1908, pp. 22, 52, 54, 57, 60.

²⁶ Southern Educational Association, Proceedings, 1907, p. 22; 1908, p. 21.

²⁷ The most important articles appeared on the following dates: Nov. 7 and 14, 1908, and Jan. 30, 1909. The three papers were the American Agriculturist, the Orange Judd Farmer, and the New England Homestead.

²⁸ National League for Industrial Education, Industrial Education, vol. I, p. 8.

²⁹ House Committee on Agriculture, Hearings, May 3, 1908, pp. 43, 44-45.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 53.

were needed from the Federal Government if an effective system of agricultural and industrial education was to be developed.³¹

The national aspect of the problem was emphasized by three other considerations. First, the ability to provide education varied greatly among the several States and sections of the Nation.³² The Southern States particularly were in need. It was therefore urged that a Federal appropriation such as that contemplated in the Davis bill would be a magnanimous act which would help the southern people particularly and as such it would appeal to every patriotic American. It would be a means of helping to adjust the educational inequalities which had arisen.

Second, the Federal Government was strong financially.³³ Through its power of indirect taxation it could secure large revenues without serious objection on the part of taxpayers. The States, however, employed principally the method of direct taxation, which made large revenues impossible. For the States to receive Federal money would be a material aid and it would result in decentralizing the power and work of the Government.³⁴

Third, the policy of the Government toward the land-grant colleges and agricultural experiment stations was a decided success.³⁵ Furthermore, it was urged that in the original Morrill Act Congress had in mind all education above the primary school as collegiate, but since 1862 secondary education had been differentiated from college training and the Federal aid had been devoted principally to work of college grade.³⁶ A new fund was therefore needed to carry out fully the purpose of the original land-grant acts by providing for secondary vocational education.

Finally, attention was directed to the international aspect of the problem.³⁷ Like a great spectre the economic and industrial power of Germany loomed on the horizon, a strength which it was believed had been acquired and was increasing because of its system of vocational training. The rapid evolution of transportation, it was stated, had suddenly brought all the peoples of the world together in close competition. In this competition those nations which used their labor, their land, and their products to the highest advantage would succeed. President Roosevelt was particularly interested in this feature of the question.³⁸

³¹ Cong. Rec., 41: 4499f.

³² House Committee on Agriculture, Hearings, May 5, 1908, pp. 27, 55-56; Bailey, L. H., *The State and the Farmer*, p. 146.

³³ Cong. Rec., 41: 4499f.

³⁴ National Education Association, Proceedings, 1908, p. 184; House Committee on Agriculture, Hearings, May 5, 1908, p. 26.

³⁵ Cong. Rec., 41: 4499-4503.

³⁶ Farmers' National Congress, Proceedings, 1907, p. 46ff; National Education Association, Proceedings, 1908, p. 185.

³⁷ Cong. Rec., 41: 4499f; House Committee on Agriculture Hearings, May 5, 1908, p. 24.

³⁸ Cong. Rec., 41: 28.

6. Opposition to the Davis Bill

In the fall of 1907 strong opposition to the movement represented by the Davis bill began to assert itself. The attack was led principally by Elmer Ellsworth Brown, Commissioner of Education, and Dean Eugene Davenport of the University of Illinois.³⁹ Other prominent educators followed in their wake or expressed doubt about the measure as drawn. The Secretary of Agriculture, although not expressing himself publicly, did not look with favor on the provision for secondary education though he was favorable to the proposal for training teachers. On several occasions the bill was discussed in meetings of the National Education Association, but the Association gave no endorsement to it.

One of the principal objections offered to the bill was that it would fasten on the country a separate system of agricultural and industrial schools.⁴¹ Such schools, it was contended, would tend to peasantize the American farmer and produce an undemocratic stratification of the people. Separate schools were unnecessary for vocational instruction and they could not be as good as those schools which included all forms of education. Furthermore, it was urged that to establish a separate system of secondary vocational schools would certainly injure the movement to establish high schools.

The Commissioner of Education strongly objected to placing the administration of the funds under the Secretary of Agriculture.⁴² In this matter he was emphatic and unyielding. Even after the bill had been revised so that the Secretary of the Interior "in cooperation with the Secretary of Agriculture and the Secretary of Commerce and Labor" was specifically charged with the administration of the law, Commissioner Brown maintained that the bill, if enacted, would lead only to the greatest confusion.⁴³ He frequently referred to the large sums to be administered, thus pointing to the important effect which the legislation would have on the department administering them, as well as on

³⁹ Elmer Ellsworth Brown, Letters to Charles R. Davis, Sept. 26, 1907 and Dec. 7, 1907; Letter to the Secretary of the Interior, Nov. 17, 1908; Davenport, Eugene, *The Next Step in Agricultural Education*.

⁴⁰ Eleventh Conference for Education in the South, Proceedings, pp. 197-198; National Education Association, Proceedings, 1908, pp. 191, 192; Bailey, L. H., *The State and the Farmer*, pp. 103-104, 143-146.

⁴¹ Davenport, Eugene, *Op. cit.*, pp. 1-17.

⁴² Charles R. Davis, Letter to Elmer Ellsworth Brown, Nov. 25, 1907; Elmer Ellsworth Brown, Letter to Charles R. Davis, Dec. 7, 1907; Letter to the Secretary of the Interior, Nov. 17, 1908. Mr. Davis defended the provisions relating to the administration of the funds on two grounds: first, the branch experiment stations would cooperate closely with the Department of Agriculture, and the leading men in those stations would carry on the distinctive work of the schools, which would be industrial rather than educational; second, the Department of Agriculture was needed to give the proper influence and direction, otherwise the agricultural and industrial work might be neglected for the work of general education.

⁴³ Letter to Herbert Myrick, Jan. 22, 1909.

the educational work of the whole country. His general attitude toward this question of administration found support among several groups, notably the National Association of State Universities and some members of the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations.⁴⁴

It was urged by several people that the bill was premature and that the country was not ready for it.⁴⁵ It was also held that the whole question of Federal aid, as well as that of secondary vocational education, was in need of thorough consideration before Federal funds were appropriated to such an extent as was contemplated.⁴⁶

Objection was also made on the basis that Federal aid for this purpose was unconstitutional.⁴⁷ Finally, it was suggested that for the Government to embark on this service was a paternalistic policy which suggested turning over to the Government the entire educational system. This objection raised an issue which involved the fundamental relation between the Federal and local Governments.⁴⁸

7. A National Commission Proposed

In one of Commissioner Brown's earliest discussions of the Davis bill he suggested that such a bill should be framed in conference with experienced school superintendents.⁴⁹ This idea he soon elaborated into a recommendation that, preliminary to any new Federal appropriation for educational purposes in the several States, Congress institute a special inquiry to cover the issues involved in a plan of Federal aid.⁵⁰ The inquiry, he thought, might profitably occupy from 1 to 2 years and cost from \$50,000 to \$100,000 dollars. In his contention for a preliminary investigation Commissioner Brown was supported by the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education.⁵¹ The National Education Association in 1908 also took the same position.⁵²

8. The American Federation of Labor Enters the Movement

Although the drive made by the National League for Industrial Education to force the Davis bill through the Sixtieth Congress, in the closing days of the last session failed, the interest in the movement

⁴⁴ National Association of State Universities, Proceedings, 1908, pp. 318-321; 1909, pp. 92-98.

⁴⁵ House Committee on Agriculture, Hearings, May 3, 1908, p. 35.

⁴⁶ *Infra*, sec. 7.

⁴⁷ House Committee on Agriculture, Hearings, May 3, 1908, pp. 51, 68.

⁴⁸ Eleventh Conference for Education in the South, Proceedings, pp. 197-198; Bailey, L. H., *The State and the Farmer*, pp. 103, 144-145.

⁴⁹ Charles R. Davis, Letter to Elmer Ellsworth Brown, Nov. 25, 1907.

⁵⁰ National Education Association, Proceedings, 1908, p. 296; Commissioner of Education, Report, 1908, p. 13.

⁵¹ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Report of the Committee of Ten, pp. 14-16.

⁵² National Education Association, Proceedings, 1908, p. 322.

continued. The Farmers' Union, in May 1909, endorsed Mr. Davis' efforts.⁵³ The National Education Association discussed the movement pro and con,⁵⁴ and the National Grange in November 1909 included the proposal in its legislative program.⁵⁵

Among the new forces which entered the movement the American Federation of Labor was one of the most important. It has been stated elsewhere that the Federation in 1909 approved Federal aid for industrial education.⁵⁶ The special committee on industrial education revised the Davis bill slightly and gave it to Senator Jonathan P. Dolliver, of Iowa, who introduced it in the Senate in January 1910.⁵⁷ Soon afterward Mr. Davis introduced it in the House.⁵⁸

9. The Interests of Organized Labor

Labor leaders were actuated by several motives.⁵⁹ The industrial conflict was always in the foreground of their discussion. Industrial education in some form, it seemed obvious, was soon to be provided. For labor two possible dangers were imminent, first, that such education might be under private control, and, second, that employers, who were actively urging it, might dominate or control the training in the public schools. In the prevention of such conditions the aid of the Government would be a strong influence. Two other and perhaps minor reasons for the federation's move may be stated. The federation was a strong national organization. Organized labor could thus bring its influence to bear more quickly and effectively on the Federal Government than on the large number of State and local governments. Second, several labor leaders had been closely connected with the organization and promotion of industrial education and had become enthusiastic about it. The developing interest of the federation was of no mean importance in furthering and giving direction to the movement.

10. The Promotion of the Bill

Through the activity of the national labor organization the movement took on new vigor.⁶⁰ The report of the special committee on industrial education, including the bill and other data, was printed as a

⁵³ Farmers' Educational and Cooperative Union of America, Proceedings in Mass Meeting of the Grain and Livestock Dealers, 1909, p. 13.

⁵⁴ National Education Association, Proceedings, 1910, pp. 485-492, 570-573, etc.

⁵⁵ National Grange, Proceedings, 1909, pp. 155-158.

⁵⁶ Supra, pp. 16-17.

⁵⁷ 61st Cong., S. 4675, Jan. 5, 1910. American Federation of Labor, Proceedings, 1910, pp. 41-42; American Federationist, 17: 135-136.

⁵⁸ 61st Cong., H.R. 20374.

⁵⁹ American Federationist, 17: 136; American Federation of Labor, Proceedings, 1910 pp. 275-276.

⁶⁰ American Federation of Labor, Proceedings, 1910, p. 274; American Federationist, 17: 135-136, 140-141, 246, 477, 701.

pamphlet and extensively circulated. The legislative committee gave the bill much attention and the American Federationist, the official organ of the federation, published editorials and news on the progress of the bill.

The National Education Association also showed an increased interest. In February 1910 the National Committee on Agricultural Education was reorganized for more effective work and a special committee was appointed to wait on President Taft and present the case for the bill to the Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry.⁶¹ The Department of Superintendence for the first time, in 1910, adopted a resolution favoring "the encouragement of agricultural education by national and State assistance."⁶²

The plan of the proposed campaign was to have the Orange Judd papers secure the support of the farmers and the women of the country, to have the American Federation of Labor rally the labor forces, and to have the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education enlist the interest of the educators, the manufacturers, and the employers.⁶³ The Federation of Labor began an active campaign. The Orange Judd papers also urged support in a number of issues.⁶⁴ It was in the third part of the triangle that the scheme failed, for the executive committee of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education in March 1910 refused to endorse the Davis-Dolliver bill because of the society's earlier action requesting an investigation of industrial education preliminary to legislation therefor.⁶⁵

In April 1910 the Senate committee in charge of the bill had hearings on it.⁶⁶ These were managed by Arthur E. Holder, of the American Federation of Labor. Two new groups were represented in the hearings as compared with the hearings in 1908. There were the American Federation of Labor and a number of people interested in home economics instruction. There was also some support from business men. Several executives from land-grant colleges submitted statements favoring the bill. The record of the hearings, together with additional statements, was printed and Senator Dolliver distributed the copies widely.⁶⁷ Undoubtedly this action was an important means of promoting the cause.

⁶¹ National Education Association, Proceedings, 1910, pp. 590, 1094.

⁶² Ibid., p. 148.

⁶³ Willet M. Hays, Letters to Charles R. Richards, Jan. 29 and Feb. 9, 1910.

⁶⁴ Orange Judd Farmer, Feb. 26, Apr. 9 and 16, 1910.

⁶⁵ Minutes of the Executive Committee, Mar. 10, 1910.

⁶⁶ Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, Hearings, Apr. 12 and 13, 1910.

⁶⁷ National Education Association, Proceedings, 1910, p. 591.

Chapter III

A Bill for Agricultural Extension Work and the Dolliver Bill (1909-11)

1. The McLaughlin Bill for Agricultural Extension Work

While the discussions of Federal aid for vocational education were going on, another movement took form, namely, that to secure Federal appropriations for agricultural extension work. After considerable debate and some objection in the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, the "general idea of a Federal appropriation" for extension work was approved by the organization in August 1909.¹ A bill was prepared by the association which embodied its principles.

Soon after this action the Farmers' National Congress went on record as favoring Federal appropriations for agricultural extension work through the land-grant colleges and for farm demonstration work among the Negroes of the South.² The National Grange likewise authorized its legislative committee to work for Federal appropriations for agricultural extension work.³

In December 1909 the bill was introduced in the House of Representatives by Representative J. C. McLaughlin, of Michigan, and early in the following January Senator Dolliver presented the bill in the Senate along with his bill for vocational education, already mentioned.⁴ The title stated that the bill was "for increase of appropriations to agricultural colleges for extension work." It provided an annual appropriation of \$10,000 to each State and Territory for the more complete endowment and maintenance of agricultural colleges under the land-grant college acts, to be applied by the colleges "in giving instruction and demonstrations in agriculture, home economics, and similar lines of activity to persons not resident in these colleges in the several communities, . . . and in conveying and imparting to

¹ Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, Proceedings, 1908, pp. 40-42; 1909, pp. 35, 39, 79.

² Farmers' National Congress, Proceedings, 1909, p. 121.

³ National Grange, Proceedings, 1909, pp. 155-158.

⁴ 61st Cong., H.R. 15422. Dec. 15, 1909; S. 4676. Jan. 5, 1910.

such persons information with reference to the improvement of rural life." In addition, after 2 years any State or Territory having accepted the previous appropriation and organized a department of extension work in its agricultural college was to receive annually from the Federal Government an amount equal to that appropriated for extension work by the State or Territory. However, it was provided that the amount of this additional Federal appropriation should not exceed 1 cent per capita of the State's or Territory's population.

The race issue in education was recognized by the bill. None of the Federal appropriations were available for a State college where a distinction was made on account of race or color, unless separate colleges were maintained for the races. In such cases the State legislature might propose a just and equitable division of the appropriations between the college for white students and the college for Negro students.

Several other important provisions more or less common to the land-grant college legislation were included in the bill. Not more than 5 percent of the annual Federal appropriations might be used for the erection, repair, and maintenance of buildings or the purchase or rental of land. In case of diminution, loss, or misapplication of Federal funds by a State the State could receive no subsequent appropriation until the portion illegally used was replaced. The Federal appropriations under the act were to be paid to the colleges quarterly upon the warrant of the Secretary of Agriculture. The colleges were required to make annual reports to the Secretary of Agriculture stating the receipts and expenditures of the appropriations.

At the request of the executive committee of the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, both the House and Senate committees in charge of the bill held hearings in February 1910. These were attended by the executive committee, each member of which made a statement. Three general arguments were put forth for the legislation.⁵ First, the national food supply was becoming a more and more acute problem and the cost of living was rising. Federal aid as proposed would assist in the solution of this problem. Second, many of the best people were leaving the farms for the city. The problem created by this situation was to cultivate the man and elevate country life. To fill the increasing need for assistance to the farmers some form of agricultural extension work was imperative. True it was that Federal money was already going to the land-grant

⁵House Committee on Agriculture, Hearings, Feb. 24, 1910, pp. 171f, 186; Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, Hearings, Feb. 24, 1910, p. 10.

colleges, but this, it was urged, was restricted in its use. The suggestion was also made that the Federal Government had "its hand on all the unconscious sources of revenue and [could] get it easily" while the States employed the less popular method of direct taxation to raise revenue, thus implying that the Federal Government could more easily finance the new work than could the several States.

Chairman Charles Scott, of the House committee, attempted to show that the States had already made a good beginning in this work and consequently needed no Federal appropriations therefor.⁶ He said the States were in the habit of asking for appropriations from the Federal Treasury when they were not willing to pay such amounts from their own treasuries. He intimated that the amount asked for the respective States was a small item and could easily be provided by the States themselves. Furthermore, he maintained that the appropriations from the Federal Treasury were regarded too much as in the nature of a gratuity.

Thus began a strong movement to secure more Federal aid for the land-grant colleges. In 1906 and again in 1907 Congress had extended the earlier provision for these institutions and it seemed not unlikely that the policy would be continued. The new proposal was not, however, to go through Congress with the dispatch of the laws of 1906 and 1907, though it might have done so but for the vocational education bill.

2. A Combination, the Dolliver Bill

In the Senate both the bill for vocational education and the bill for agricultural extension work were in charge of the Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, of which Senator Dolliver was chairman. The committee finally decided to combine both bills in one and in June 1910 the combined bill was submitted to the Senate with a favorable report.⁷ It was hoped by this action to rally many forces to the support of the legislation formerly proposed in the two bills. There were a number of reasons for uniting the two bills in one. Both bills were held to be extensions of the land-grant college legislation and both were intended to promote agricultural education. The administration of the act according to the combined bill was to be under the Department of the Interior, the Department which administered the Morrill-Nelson funds and the Department which, under the

⁶ House Committee on Agriculture, Hearings, Feb. 24, 1910, pp. 180, 181, etc.

⁷ 61st Cong., S. Rept. No. 907; S. 8809, June 22, 1910.

Dolliver-Davis bill, was to be in charge of the vocational education appropriation.

A number of organizations previously interested in the vocational education bill gave their support to the new bill. Among these was the Normal Department of the National Education Association.⁸ The Farmers' National Congress also came forward with an endorsement, but its interest was not marked.⁹ The National Grange, while it believed in the policy of the Dolliver bill, thought it would be well to make sure the details were carefully worked out so as to safeguard the interests of the farmers and "provide the greatest good for the greatest number."¹⁰ The committee on education favored high schools rather than separate agricultural schools. The support of the American Federation of Labor was as vigorous as before.¹¹

3. Opposition to the Combination

From another quarter, however, a storm of opposition arose. A number of men in the land-grant colleges had earlier given their endorsement to the vocational education bill, but its combination with the extension bill failed to meet the approval of many leaders in those institutions. The action occasioned a prolonged discussion in the association of the land-grant colleges.¹² Numerous objections were made to the appropriations for secondary schools, such as, that they would begin a new Federal policy; they would tend to educational uniformity among the States; they would make possible separate systems of public instruction in each State; and the States were not ready for such provision. Branch experiment stations, such as those provided for in the bill, were contrary to the policy of the association. Several land-grant college leaders, however, thought it best to support the Dolliver bill as the surest way to secure aid for extensive work.

Three objections of peculiar interest to the land-grant colleges were made to the Dolliver bill.¹³ First, under it the Government would overendow secondary education. Second, the dominant position of the agricultural colleges was threatened by Federal appropriations to the State normal schools. Finally, the large sums of money required on the part of the several States to provide for secondary education would halt the development of the agricultural colleges and

⁸ National Education Association, Proceedings, 1910, p. 564.

⁹ Farmers' National Congress, Proceedings, 1910, pp. 79, 150.

¹⁰ National Grange, Proceedings, 1910, pp. 14, 119-123.

¹¹ American Federation of Labor, Proceedings, 1910, pp. 273-277.

¹² Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, Proceedings, 1910, p. 62, 93-106.

¹³ *Ibid.*, pp. 96, 98.

experiment stations because there would not be sufficient funds available for them after secondary education received its support.

The association finally instructed its Executive Committee to use all legitimate means to secure the enactment of the McLaughlin bill at the ensuing session of Congress and it expressed itself as unprepared to pronounce on Federal aid for secondary education.¹⁴ It was decided, however, to make an investigation of the questions involved in the latter. Quite obviously here was a determined opposition, some of the most formidable which the vocational education bill had so far encountered.

4. The Attitude of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education

An interesting move was soon made in another quarter. Efforts had earlier been made to secure the support of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education for the vocational education bill, but no such support was forthcoming.¹⁵ The Executive Committee of the Society considered the Dolliver bill in January 1911 and reported that among the members of the committee there was a decided difference of opinion.¹⁶ The following significant statement was made:

We highly commend the general spirit and purpose of Senate bill 8809 (Dolliver bill). We have, however, grave doubts as to whether the bill as at present drawn will accomplish the purposes in view. It should be modified by the introduction of specific terms to the end that it shall clearly provide:

1. For cooperation on the part of the Federal Government with the several States of the Union in encouraging vocational education in the trades and industries, agriculture, and home economics; in founding agricultural experiment stations; and in providing means for the training of special teachers for industrial, agricultural, and home economics education;
2. For a definite limit to the amount of money appropriated under this act by the United States Government for each of the above-named purposes; and for an equitable means of distributing the sum appropriated among the several States in proportion to their approximate probable needs;
3. For the gradual availability of the sums appropriated to the end that the maximum limit may be reached only after a period of from 6 to 10 years;
4. For the contribution from each State of a sum equal to that contributed to said State by the Federal Government;
5. For a restriction limiting the use of the Federal contribution and the equal State contribution to the defraying of the expenses of instruction in these branches of study which the bill is intended to encourage, to the end that no part of said sum shall be used for general purposes;

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 104, 120, 123.

¹⁵ *Supra*, p. 61.

¹⁶ Minutes of the Executive Committee, Jan. 20 and Feb. 17, 1911.

6. For a provision permitting each State to propose the type and location of the schools in which vocational training is to be established, on condition that such proposal be approved by a properly constituted Federal authority;

7. For a requirement that each State shall propose its own methods of supervising any educational agencies established under the provisions of this bill, provided said methods of supervision shall be duly approved by a properly constituted Federal authority;

8. For a careful definition of the terms used relating to forms of education and experimentation, to the end that ambiguities and misunderstandings may be avoided;

9. For adequate Federal supervision that shall insure satisfactory results from the school established.

This pronouncement stands out as a landmark in the movement to obtain Federal aid. It was a clear statement of principles which were later written into the law. Occasion will be had later to refer to this statement in the evolution of the principal features of the bills.

5. Plans for Action

Soon after the action noted, the friends of the Dolliver bill decided not to push it for final consideration until the next Congress met.¹⁷ They planned a careful searching national campaign from Washington to concentrate all influences in favor of the bill and to bring them to bear on the Members of the Sixty-second Congress. These friends also planned to hold a conference on the measure before the meeting of the Congress "so as to make it conform in all details to the composite wisdom of those who [were] looking for a people's education of a broader character."

The National Committee on Agricultural Education in February 1911 prepared itself for the campaign by deciding to enlarge its membership "so as to have a live and active representative in every State."¹⁸ By July of the same year it was reported that 20 States were organized to promote the movement.

Thus the bill rested at the close of the Sixty-first Congress in March 1911. Senator Dolliver had succeeded in having it placed on the Senate calendar, but, as he died in October 1910, no action was taken.¹⁹ Had he lived he might have been able to secure early congressional consideration, as he was active and was increasing in strength and influence when he was overtaken. Another leader now came to the rescue, Senator Carroll Smalley Page, of Vermont, who had served with Senator Dolliver on the Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry. On the closing day of the Sixty-first Congress he introduced in the Senate a slightly modified form of the Dolliver bill.²⁰

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, Feb. 17, 1911.

¹⁸ National Education Association, *Proceedings*, 1911, pp. 706-707.

¹⁹ *Cong. Rec.*, 46: 773.

²⁰ 61st Cong., 3, 10903, Mar. 3, 1911. Senator Page was an influential business man in Vermont, where he had large banking interests. He had made a fortune by dealing in raw calfskins, which he bought and shipped to foreign countries principally Germany.

6. Retrospect

For 4 years the movement to aid vocational education had continued. There had been much discussion, some of it in strong support and some of it in vigorous opposition. Considerable interest had been aroused, but no legislation had resulted. Three reasons may be stated for this legislative inactivity: First, there is the inertia which is attendant upon legislation generally, especially upon legislation of an educational or social nature. Second, the movement had encountered opposition owing to certain principles at stake and to some objectionable features in the bills which the framers of the bills strove hard to retain. Two features in particular which served as grounds for contention were the separate agricultural high schools and their branch experiment stations, and the location and division of the national administrative authority. Third, an obstacle somewhat related to the second was the nature of the American educational organization. Each State is traditionally sovereign in matters educational. Each has consequently built up its own theory and system of carrying on such work. Scarcely two of the State organizations are alike. Different minds and traditions have gone into fashioning them. It was to be expected that those who had become accustomed to the several educational systems and those in charge of them would resent any Federal interference. A gift of Federal money is likely to be welcomed, but there is also the tendency to fear the Federal control which may lurk therein.

The movement had not been well planned and organized. It began with a wave of enthusiasm and by such methods it was hoped to put the measure through Congress. These methods might have brought success but for several strong opponents. The bills were frequently redrafted to meet objections and to win support. The first bill of prominence was a combination of two others, one for agricultural high schools and one for branch experiment stations, in addition to a provision for industrial education. Soon the aid requested by the State normal schools was included, as was also the plan evolved by the land-grant college interests to secure aid for extension work. The latter move gave rise to a powerful opposition.

It was apparent, however, that the movement would soon find expression in legislative enactment. Several strong organizations were interested and there was a fair degree of support in Congress. Here was an opportunity to do a large work of organization and direction. Any Federal legislation would have a far-reaching influence, especially inasmuch as the vocational education movement in the country was

only in its formative stages. The Federal Treasury was a most powerful means of controlling such a movement. The opportunity was one of the greatest that has ever been presented to a group of educators in America.

An agency of unification and direction was at hand. The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education had been organized for this very purpose—to bring together the promoters of vocational education and induce them to agree to a policy which would be effective in urging this new line of educational endeavor and putting it on the right track. Toward the particular issue of Federal aid the Society had been more or less passive, but during the winter of 1910-11 a few of its influential members took certain significant steps regarding the question. These men were acquainted with the attempts to organize vocational education in Massachusetts, and several of them had participated in this work. The Dolliver bill was criticized largely from the point of view of the Massachusetts situation. As a result of this study a series of principles was proposed to serve as a guide. These men endorsed the spirit and purposes of the Dolliver bill, but the application of those purposes, they served notice, must be radically modified before the measure would have their approval. Consequently, a committee was set to work on the preparation of a bill which would incorporate their views.²¹ The committee continued its work through the spring of 1911.

7. The State Matching of Federal Funds Adopted

Two acts of the Sixty-first Congress introduced an important principle in Federal legislation. The first of these, known as the Public Marine Schools Act, had its origin in an act passed in 1874 "to encourage the establishment of marine schools."²² The early act authorized the Secretary of the Navy, "upon the application in writing of the Governor of the State", to furnish a suitable vessel of the Navy, properly equipped,

to be used for the benefit of any nautical school, or school or college having a nautical branch, established at each or any of the ports of New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Norfolk, and San Francisco, upon the condition that there shall be maintained at such port, a school or branch of a school for the instruction of youths in navigation, seamanship, marine engineering, and all matters pertaining to the proper construction, equipment, and sailing of vessels or any particular branch thereof:

²¹ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Minutes of the Executive Committee Meeting, Mar. 17, May 20, and June 15, 1911. The members of the committee on the bill were David Snodden, chairman; Kenyon J. Butterfield, A. Lincoln Filene, Frederick P. Fish, Arthur Williston.

²² U.S. Stat. L., vol. 18, 1, p. 121.

It also authorized the President "to detail proper officers of the Navy as superintendents of, or instructors in, such schools."

In 1911 three marine schools of the character referred to in the act were in existence, one being maintained by New York City, one by Boston, and one by Philadelphia.²³ For each of these schools the Government furnished a vessel which could be spared from the navy and the city paid the expense of keeping the vessel going.²⁴ Many graduates of these schools were engaged in the marine service and the revenue cutter service, others entered the United States Naval Academy, while others still engaged in civilian occupations.

It was said that the expense of maintaining these schools was great.²⁵ Consequently Representative William E. Humphrey, of Washington, introduced a bill in Congress in 1910 authorizing appropriations for them.²⁶ It passed both branches of Congress with practically no opposition and became a law with the approval of President Taft on March 4, 1911.²⁷

Although the discussion was limited it shows some of the motives and purposes behind the bill. Representative William S. Bennett, of New York, stated that the large States were recognized in the "agricultural fund" on exactly the same plane with the small States in a way that was unequal and unfair.²⁸ This measure, he said, gave a chance for the larger States to participate in a slightly larger measure. Mr. Humphrey said he desired to give San Francisco and Seattle an opportunity to establish marine schools, as there were none on the Pacific coast.²⁹ The statement was made that the men trained in the New York Nautical School were to be found in lighthouses and in other positions in many parts of the country, thus suggesting that the Nation profited much from the marine schools.³⁰ The Senate Committee on Naval Affairs believed that the benefits to be derived from such schools in the way of giving proper training to boys attracted toward a seafaring life, and in giving competent officers to the merchant marine, would far outweigh the cost placed by the act on the Government.³¹

²³ 61st Cong., S.Rept. No. 1178, p. 1.

²⁴ Cong. Rec., 46: 748.

²⁵ Ibid., vol. 45, p. 5666.

²⁶ 61st Cong., H.R. 24145.

²⁷ Cong. Rec., 46: 749, 4123, 4337.

²⁸ Ibid., 45: 5666.

²⁹ Ibid., 46: 748.

³⁰ Ibid., p. 747.

³¹ 61st Cong., S.Rept. No. 1178, p. 2.

The law thus enacted formally inaugurated Federal aid to promote nautical education.³² For the maintenance and support of nautical schools or branches established in 10 designated ports of the United States the act authorized the appropriation of "a sum not exceeding the amount annually appropriated by any State or municipality for the purpose of maintaining such a marine school or schools or the nautical branch thereof." The annual Federal appropriation was limited to \$25,000 for any one school.

The other act of the Sixty-first Congress which provided for State matching of Federal funds was the Weeks Act under which \$200,000 was appropriated "to enable the Secretary of Agriculture to cooperate with any State or group of States, when requested to do so, in the protection from fire of the forested watersheds of navigable streams."³³ The Secretary of Agriculture was authorized "on such conditions as he deems wise, to stipulate and agree with any State or group of States to cooperate in the organization of a system of fire protection on any private or State forest lands within such State or States and situated upon the watershed of a navigable river." Under the act a State might receive Federal aid only after it had provided a system of forest-fire protection, and not more Federal aid could be expended in a State in any fiscal year than the amount appropriated for this work by the State for the same fiscal year.

These two acts represent steps in the development of the Federal policy of cooperating with the States in various enterprises. They are apparently the first laws requiring the State matching of Federal appropriations as a condition to participating in the benefits of those appropriations. The Weeks Act went a step further than the Public Marine Schools Act in making cooperation between the States and the Federal Government an important feature of administration. These relationships had already been the subject of some discussion in the movement for Federal aid to vocational education.³⁴

³² U.S. Stat. L., vol. 36, I, p. 1353.

³³ *Ibid.*, p. 961.

³⁴ *Infra*, pp. 119-121; 127-130.

Chapter IV

The Movements Organized (1911-13)

1. Bills in the Sixty-second Congress

The Sixty-second Congress convened on April 4, 1911. Senator Page at once introduced the bill which he had presented at the close of the preceding Congress.¹ In June Representative William B. Wilson, of Pennsylvania, introduced the same bill in the House of Representatives.² The interest of organized labor is here illustrated by the fact that Representative Wilson had been active in trade-union affairs and had for 8 years been secretary-treasurer of the United Mine Workers of America.

The agricultural extension bill was slightly revised and presented to Congress by Representative Asbury F. Lever, of South Carolina.³ Another bill for agricultural extension, drafted by the State Bankers' Association of Illinois, was later introduced by Representative William McKinley, of Illinois.⁴ This association began to take an active part in the movement. Through its work the Conference of Bankers' Committees on Agricultural Development and Education became interested in the effort and at its first annual meeting in August 1911 the McKinley bill was approved.

2. The National Soil Fertility League

While the bankers were at work on their project, another group of men became interested in agricultural extension.⁵ In the spring of 1911 a number of bankers, railroad officials, and other prominent business men of the Middle West organized the National Soil Fertility League to promote interest in the opportunities of agriculture as a

¹ 62d Cong., S.S. Apr. 6, 1911. On Apr. 24 Senator Lee Overman, of North Carolina, introduced a bill to grant aid for "farm-life" schools. (S. 1653).

² 62d Cong., H.R. 12156. June 29, 1911. On Apr. 10 he introduced the Davis-Dolliver bill of the preceding Congress (H.R. 2907). Representative Charles R. Davis introduced the same bill on Apr. 20 (H.R. 6333).

³ 62d Cong., H.R. 11542. June 12, 1911.

⁴ 62d Cong., H.R. 13489. Aug. 10, 1911. Conference of the Committees on Agricultural Development and Education, Proceedings (First), pp. 123-127, 140; Proceedings (Second), pp. 287-288.

⁵ The National Soil Fertility League (pamphlet).

vocation. Among its activities the league proposed to secure Federal legislation which would enable the land-grant colleges to place agricultural experts in the respective counties of the States to carry on farm demonstrations. A thorough campaign was to be organized to develop and promote a strong public sentiment for the proposed aid and work.

Among those who were consulted in the move was President Taft, who gave his support and was made a member of the league's advisory committee. In September 1911, he gave an important address in which he touched on both the vocational-education and the agricultural-extension movements in these words:

It is difficult to justify the expenditures of money for agricultural purposes in the Agriculture Department with a view to its publication for use of the farmers, or to make grants to schools for farmers, on any constitutional theory that will not justify the Government in spending money for any kind of education the country over; but the welfare of the people is so dependent on improved agricultural conditions that it seems wise to use the welfare clause of the Constitution to authorize the expenditure of money for improvement in agricultural education, and leave to the States and to private enterprise general and other vocational education. The attitude of the Government in all this matter must be merely advisory.⁶

In a further statement President Taft endorsed Federal aid for agricultural extension. This attitude was very different from that of President Roosevelt. The statement indicated that President Taft regarded agricultural extension and agricultural education, but not other vocational education, as of peculiar national concern. The statement was important as expressing the attitude of the administration on the two movements, which were more or less in conflict.

3. The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education Adopts a Policy

While the leaders and groups interested in agricultural extension were preparing to marshal their strength, the vocational education movement was also going forward. The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education held its annual meeting in November 1911, at which time the special committee to consider the Page bill made a report.⁷ The committee approved the objects of the measure, but it made five suggestions to be followed in such a bill, as follows: First, the provisions of the bill should be confined to the secondary

⁶ Taft, William Howard, *Conservation of the Soil*, pp. 7-8.

⁷ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, *Report Presented to the Executive Committee, by the Special Committee Appointed to Consider Senate Bill Number Three*.

school field and the provisions for branch experiment stations and for agricultural extension should be put in a separate bill. Second, the bill should contain a series of definitions of the types of education to be aided and of the standards of administration. Third, there should be a single national authority responsible for approving plans and policies, and in each State a single authority should be charged with the supervision and report of the work. Fourth, the units of local administration and the ratio of distribution of funds to the various types of vocational education should not be included in the bill; they should be left to the local system under the approval of the central authority. Fifth, the Federal grants should be made as reimbursements for expenditures, rather than as initial grants. These recommendations follow the lines suggested earlier by the society's executive committee. The report included a draft of a bill, sometimes called the Snedden bill, to conform to the committee's recommendations.

In presenting the report the chairman of the committee, David Snedden, stated that the Page bill placed the emphasis on agricultural education and that the support of the bill was largely from the southern and western portions of the country.⁸ The committee, he stated, doubted the advisability of encouraging normal schools, as they were then conducted, to train for vocational teaching. The point which he emphasized was an effective system. A consistent, effective policy, he said, was needed on the part of the society to make certain that the Federal money would be properly spent.

The report of the committee was adopted by the society and a committee was appointed to secure the cooperation of other associations in bringing the bill to the attention of Congress.⁹ The election of Representative William C. Redfield, of New York, as president of the society for the ensuing year gave the society an added opportunity to make its wishes felt in congressional circles. Another important move was the attempt of the society to bring about closer relations with the American Federation of Labor. It urged that the influence of the federation be exerted toward the appointment of a national commission to study the problems involved in Federal aid for industrial education before making further attempts to secure Federal legislation.¹⁰ These activities show clearly that the society planned to mass and control the forces interested in vocational education.

⁸ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Bulletin No. 15, pp. 126-134.

⁹ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Minutes of the Board of Managers, Nov. 29, 1911, p. 5.

¹⁰ American Federation of Labor, Proceedings, 1911, p. 137.

4. An Endorsement from the Land-grant College Association

A few days after the meeting of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education in 1911 the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations held its annual meeting, at which there was a prolonged discussion of the proposed Federal aid for vocational education and agricultural extension work.¹¹ Considerable difference of opinion existed regarding the bill for vocational education, some members favoring it, others strongly opposing it. The new Commissioner of Education, Philander P. Claxton, explained and endorsed the vocational education bill prepared by the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education.

The association finally reaffirmed its position favoring a Federal appropriation for extension work in line with the autonomy of the States as under the previous land-grant college and experiment station acts.¹² Federal aid for secondary vocational education was also endorsed. The drafting of bills to embody the association's principles was referred to the executive committee which was instructed to use its best endeavor in securing the enactment of these principles into law. Preference was expressed that the extension bill be given precedence.

5. Progress in the Winter of 1911-12

The Page bill.—During the winter of 1911-12 several events of importance occurred. On December 14-16, 1911, a conference was held in Washington to consider the Page bill.¹³ This meeting was attended by the executive committee of the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations and by representatives of the American Federation of Labor, the National Grange, and the National Committee on Agricultural Education, but not by representatives of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education. At the conference the bill proposed by the national society was not presented for consideration.¹⁴ Several minor amendments to the Page bill were adopted. The value of the conference lay in bringing together and combining forces on the Page bill.

An indication of the increasing strength of the bill is seen in the fact that after the Senate committee in charge of the Page bill had given it further consideration the bill was reported to the Senate on February

¹¹ Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, Proceedings, 1911, pp. 38, 70-71, 76-94.

¹² Ibid., pp. 114-124.

¹³ 62d Cong., S.Doc. No. 845, pp. 11-12.

¹⁴ Claxton, P. P., Letter to Kenyon L. Butterfield, Dec. 21, 1911.

26, 1912.¹⁶ As reported it contained the amendments suggested by the December conference. Two days later the department of superintendence of the National Education Association, for the first time, gave its direct endorsement to the bill.¹⁶

The Smith-Lever bill.—While the Page bill was being put forward the promoters of agricultural extension were also at work. The Lever bill was revised, and in January 1912, it was presented in the Senate by Senator Hoke Smith, of Georgia, and in the House of Representatives by Representative Asbury F. Lever, of South Carolina.¹⁷ Hearings were held in February and March by the House and the Senate committees in charge of the bill.¹⁸ These were attended by representatives of the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, bankers' associations, the National Grange, and the National Soil Fertility League.

During the course of the hearings the Page bill and its relation to agricultural extension was mentioned several times.¹⁹ Senator Page was alert to the situation and he argued for the enactment of the vocational education bill, rather than the less comprehensive measure. A letter was read from the Secretary of Agriculture, James Wilson, in which he showed himself lukewarm toward Federal aid for vocational education.²⁰ Toward the agricultural extension bill he was more favorably inclined.

6. The National Society Prepares a New Vocational Education Bill

The activities regarding the Page bill during the winter of 1911-12 indicated more and more that a strong hand must be used if the leaders of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education would attain their objective. A member of the Society's committee on the bill counselled with Senator Page, but in spite of this effort the bill as reported from committee showed no recognition of the Society's suggestions. The Society accordingly prepared itself to

¹⁶ 62d Cong., S.Rept. No. 405.

¹⁷ National Education Association, Proceedings, 1912 p. 332.

¹⁸ 62d Cong., S. 4563 (Jan. 16, 1912) and H.R. 18160 (Jan. 18, 1912). On Dec. 9, 1911, Representative William McKingley, of Illinois, introduced a modified form of his earlier bill on agricultural extension (H.R. 14928). Another bill for agricultural extension was introduced in the Senate on Jan. 25, 1912, by Senator Robert L. Owen, of Oklahoma (S. 4834), and in the House of Representatives on Feb. 15, 1912, by Representative Dick Morgan, also of Oklahoma (H.R. 20892). This bill provided that the instruction and demonstrations should be given to students in graded schools in districts of less than 25 square miles and to others who might be present at the time they were given.

¹⁹ House Committee on Agriculture, Hearings, Feb. 29 and Mar. 1 and 2, 1912; Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, Hearings, Mar. 1 and 2, 1912.

²⁰ Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, Hearings, Mar. 1 and 2, 1912, pp. 74-83.

²¹ *Ib. d.*, pp. 50-52.

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deal with the situation. Through January and February the committee on legislation was active.²¹ In February a move of much import was made when the executive committee of the Society appointed C. A. Prosser secretary for a period of 5 years to give whole time to the work of the organization.²² At the same time the subcommittee on legislation was instructed to consult with the committee on legislation regarding the revised Page bill and, after consultation with John Golden, to refer this bill to Pres. Samuel Gompers of the American Federation of Labor.

In March the newly appointed secretary proceeded to Washington in the interest of the vocational education bill.²³ -The following month he and others drafted a new bill which was somewhat more in keeping with the desires of the National Society than was the Page bill.²⁴ Telegrams were then sent to a number of interested people asking them to urge Senator Page to accept the modifications which had been made in his bill. The new bill was introduced in the House of Representatives by Representative William B. Wilson, of Pennsylvania, on April 20, 1912.²⁵

Three days after the bill had been introduced the House Committee on Agriculture held extensive hearings on it.²⁶ The report of the hearings shows a very wide interest in, and support of, the measure. Numerous activities and organizations were represented either in person or by favorable statements. Among these were the National Grange, the American Federation of Labor, the National Metal Trades Association, the National Association of Manufacturers, and others. Endorsements were included from 15 officials in land-grant colleges.²⁷

Although the Secretary of the Society favored the general spirit and purpose of the bill as drawn, he was not satisfied with some of its provisions and he therefore made up a new draft which omitted branch experiment stations and gave to each State a lump sum for vocational education of secondary grade and a lump sum for the training of vocational teachers, thus permitting each State to provide the kind of training it most needed.²⁷ The Secretary was authorized to propose

²¹ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Minutes of the Executive Committee, Jan. 6, 1912.

²² *Ib id.*, Feb. 17, 1912.

²³ C. A. Prosser, Letter to Charles Winslow, Mar. 21, 1912.

²⁴ C. S. Page, Letter to Philander P. Claxton, Apr. 22, 1912; C. A. Prosser, Letter to C. S. Page, Apr. 11, 1912.

²⁵ 62d Cong., H.R. 23581.

²⁶ House Committee on Agriculture, Hearings, Apr. 23-26, 1912.

²⁷ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Minutes of the Executive Committee, May 31, 1912.

this draft as a compromise measure to Senator Page and Representatives Wilson and Lever and to secure for it wide publicity and support.

In addition to giving attention to the provisions of the bill the National Society set out on a policy of winning support for the general movement. Believing that the task of obtaining Federal aid would be simplified by party endorsement the Secretary was "instructed to draft a tentative statement favoring Federal aid for vocational education and to use in every legitimate way possible the efforts of the Society and other friends of such education to secure the adoption of such a statement or others, embodying its general spirit and purpose, as a part of the respective national platforms of the Democratic and Republican parties."²⁸ Regarding this effort the Secretary reported in October,

The Democratic Convention passed a strong declaration for national grants to agricultural, household arts, and industrial training. The Progressive party endorsed the idea of part-time and continuation schools and favored agricultural education, little being said about Federal aid. The Socialist party at Indianapolis endorsed the idea of Federal aid as set forth in the Page bill. The Republican National Convention made no declaration on the subject.²⁹

The activity of the Society is further illustrated by the favorable action of other associations. For the first time the National Association of Manufacturers took an active interest in the bill to obtain Federal aid for vocational education. Through a circular letter in April 1912, the Association urged those persons who were interested to write to Senators and Representatives regarding the bill and to urge associations to do likewise.³⁰ A second group of manufacturers, the National Metal Trades Association, in April 1912, adopted a strong statement favoring Federal aid for industrial education.³¹

7. The Page Bill in the Senate

Mention has been made of the fact that on February 24, 1912, the Page bill was reported from committee and placed on the Senate calendar. On several occasions during the spring the bill came up for discussion, but no action was taken.³² An important event occurred on June 5, when Senator Page delivered a long and memorable address in the Senate.³³ He gave an excellent summary of the ideas which

²⁸ Ibid.

²⁹ Ibid., Oct. 19, 1912.

³⁰ H. E. Miles, Letter to Fred Dreier, Apr. 12, 1912.

³¹ National Metal Trades Association, Proceedings, 1912, pp. 94-95. The conflict between the Smith-Lever bill and the Page bill was extensively discussed at the second annual meeting of the Committees on Agricultural Development and Education, in 1912, and a compromise was finally adopted to favor the Page bill "or at least the Lever bill." Senator Page made a strong effort to secure the support of the Conference for his bill.

³² Cong. Rec., 48: 3486, 4861, 5168.

³³ Ibid., pp. 7663-7699.

motivated the supporters of Federal aid for vocational education. At the conclusion of the address the Senate ordered 1,200 copies printed as a Senate document.³⁴ That the address was widely circulated and used to win support for the bill is obvious from a statement by Senator Page on August 22 that he had ordered 10,000 additional copies.³⁵

In June the bill which had been drafted by the Secretary of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education and others was substituted by Senator Page for his bill.³⁶ During the summer several minor notices of the bill occurred, but it was not until August 19 that there was prominent mention of it.³⁷ While the Senate was considering Senate Joint Resolution No. 78, proposing an amendment to the Constitution relative to the presidential term, Senator Page requested unanimous consent that on August 21, immediately following the morning business, his bill be taken up and disposed of on that day. Senator Hoke Smith made objection and said the provisions of the bill did not harmonize with any State machinery with which he was familiar. Senator Lodge held the bill too important to vote on it at that session. While asserting that he "was not bred in the States' rights school", he raised the issue of expediency of the measure as related to the States and said, "I think the process of gradually absorbing the functions of the States and of the United States stepping in more and more to take up one function after another is a very serious matter, indeed; it is more serious than this bill or a dozen similar bills, because it can only lead to a gradual atrophy of the powers of the States." Senator Page's reply was that State autonomy had been left perfect and complete in the bill. Senator William J. Stone, of Missouri, inquired of Senator Page whether the letters and telegrams he was receiving in advocacy of the Page bill were written under his "persuasive influence", to which Senator Page pled guilty in part. Senator Page stated that 72 Senators were for the bill and he believed the time had come for action. He finally obtained unanimous consent that on the conclusion of the consideration of Senate Joint Resolution No. 78 his bill be made a special order subject to the consideration of appropriation bills and conference reports. It proved an unfortunate move, for the resolution was not disposed of until late in

³⁴ Ibid., p. 7700; 62d Cong., 8.Doc. No. 845.

³⁵ Ibid., p. 11524.

³⁶ Ibid., p. 8093.

³⁷ Ibid., pp. 11268-11273.

the next session, that is, near the close of the Sixty-second Congress, which held up the Page bill.

The last mention of the bill in the Senate during this session was 3 days later, when Senator Page again explained sections of it.³⁸ This occurred while the legislative appropriation bill was under consideration. The address conveyed practically no new information. Senator Page lost the floor without completing his address.

8. The Lever Bill in the House

While the Page bill was moving forward in the Senate the Lever bill for agricultural extension was receiving consideration in the House of Representatives. Early in April it was revised and again introduced and on April 13 the measure was reported from committee.³⁹ It did not come up for discussion in the House until July 18, when it was given privileged status.⁴⁰ On August 13 Representative Lever addressed the House and explained the reasons for enacting the bill.⁴¹

On August 22 the bill was considered again and several members spoke on it.⁴² A number wanted a wider provision such as that made by the Page bill. Two important objections were raised by members from southern States. Mr. Finis J. Garrett, of Tennessee, was in great doubt as to whether it was a sound Government principle "To make an appropriation out of the Federal Treasury conditioned upon another sovereign power making a similar appropriation." He held that the appropriation should be without any such condition. The second objection was that the law would destroy the farmers' cooperative demonstration work as then conducted and would transfer it to the land-grant colleges.

On the next day the bill was up for amendment.⁴³ The only important amendment adopted was to provide that the law should not interfere with the demonstration work. Several amendments were proposed to include provisions for vocational education, but none of

³⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 11512-11527. The address seems much like a filibuster.

³⁹ 62d Cong., H.R. rpt. No. 56. The revised bill was H.R. 22871 (Apr. 4, 1912). An important amendment was that not less than 75 percent of the appropriations available in any year for a State must be expended for field instruction and demonstrations. This was in keeping with the demand of the Illinois State Bankers' Association's committee.

⁴⁰ *Cong. Rec.*, 48: 9249-9252. Mr. Morgan, of Oklahoma, on July 9 inserted a statement in the Record in defense of his bill for agricultural extension. (*Ibid.*, Appendix, p. 310.) On Aug. 1 Representative Henry D. Flood of Virginia, introduced an agricultural extension bill which was to provide that an agricultural department be established in not to exceed one high school in each congressional district, as well as in the land-grant college of the State. (62d Cong., H.R. 26083.)

⁴¹ *Cong. Rec.*, 48: 10830-10861.

⁴² *Ibid.*, 11608-11641.

⁴³ *Ibid.*, pp. 11706-11743.

these were included. The bill was finally passed by the House on August 23, 1912.⁴⁴

Thus the agricultural extension bill won the day in the House of Representatives, the vocational education bill not having been reported from committee. The Lever bill then went to the Senate. In that body the Page bill was blocked by Senate Joint Resolution No. 78 and could not come up for consideration until the resolution was acted on. There were rumors, however, that the Lever bill would be given attention in the Senate by the friends of vocational education. This session (the second) of the Sixty-second Congress closed on August 26, 1912, without further action on any of the measures.

9. The Campaign During the Fall of 1912

The nature of the contest was now becoming clear. At least three attitudes were represented in it. First, there were those, led by the National Soil Fertility League, who insisted that the Lever bill go through and who had no interest in the vocational education proposition. Second, there were a number, headed by the National Association of Manufacturers, the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, and the American Federation of Labor, who insisted that the vocational education measure must pass if either of the two did. A third group, such as the bankers' committees, wanted both types of provision made but insisted on the Lever bill if the Page bill could not be enacted.

Discussion in Congress had proceeded to the point where a number of the lawmakers had declared their positions, at least tentatively. Consequently the struggle was carried on with increased energy after Congress adjourned in August.

During the summer the National Soil Fertility League circulated⁴⁵ a somewhat caustic criticism upon the Page bill from Dean Davenport.⁴⁶ The President of the League said in November, "Five hundred Chambers of Commerce and other organizations are back of us in this movement; 1,088 leading newspapers are supporting it; seven of the largest banks in the United States have sent out special letters to their correspondents with special circulars, asking them to get busy and enlist other instrumentalities in the work and to bring every possible pressure to bear upon the Senate for the speedy disposition of this the Smith-Lever bill."⁴⁶

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 11743.

⁴⁵ Conference of the Committees on Agricultural Development and Education, Proceedings (Second), p. 112.

⁴⁶ Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, Proceedings, 1912, p. 104.

The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education now entered on a vigorous campaign to enact the Page bill. Preparations were made to send out from its office Senator Page's address.⁴⁷ To meet the constitutional objection which Senator Lodge had raised a pamphlet on "Why Federal Aid for Vocational Education" was prepared and sent out by the Society.⁴⁸ The plan also included a circularization of the members of Congress. In November a circular letter was sent to each member of the Society instructing him how to secure support for the Page-Wilson bill and urging him to write to members of the House Committee in charge of the bill. Influential men in various localities were urged to interest their representatives and senators. Although the bill did not conform entirely to the wishes of the Society's leaders it was hoped that changes could be made in conference which would bring it into harmony with the principles advocated by the Society at the meeting in 1911.⁴⁹ At the annual meeting of the Society in December a session was given to "Federal Aid for Vocational Education."⁵⁰

The American Federation of Labor was likewise active during this time.⁵¹ At the annual convention in 1912 there was extended discussion of Federal aid for industrial education.⁵²

Early in September the Farmers' Union in annual convention endorsed "all pending legislation in Congress to promote vocational education."⁵³ However, the greatest interest among farmers was expressed through the Grange.⁵⁴ Numerous State granges and local organizations reported an active interest in the Page-Wilson bill and efforts to promote its enactment. The emphatic and complete endorsement of the National Grange was placed on the bill and the legislative committee was instructed "to make the Grange influence and assistance towards the enactment of the bill into law, vigorous and continuous, especially advising the active enlistment of the energies of every State Grange represented in this national body." It further urged that local organizations acquaint themselves with the bill and in various ways advocate its enactment.

At its annual meeting in 1912 the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations strongly urged the Lever bill

⁴⁷ C. A. Prosser, Letter to C. S. Page, Sept. 10, 1912

⁴⁸ Ibid.

⁴⁹ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Minutes of the Executive Committee, Oct. 19, 1912.

⁵⁰ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Bulletin No. 16, pp. 115-128, 135-136.

⁵¹ American Federationist, 19: 369; 62 Cong., S. Docs. No. 936.

⁵² American Federation of Labor, Proceedings, 1912, pp. 137-139, 269-276.

⁵³ Farmers' Educational and Cooperative Union of America, Proceedings, 1912, p. 32.

⁵⁴ National Grange, Proceedings, 1912, pp. 88, 130.

and, on the suggestion of Senator Hoke Smith, sent a memorial to the Senate to this effect.⁶⁵ The association also reaffirmed its action of 1911 on Federal aid for secondary vocational education and the training of vocational teachers.⁶⁶

10. The Struggle

Early in December the Sixty-second Congress convened for the short session. Senator Hoke Smith on the first day presented a number of endorsements of the agricultural extension bill.⁶⁷ A few days later Senator Page presented a memorial from the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education favoring the Page bill.⁶⁸ Both Senators were thoroughly awake to the situation.

On December 14 Senator Smith reported the Lever bill from committee and 4 days later he addressed the Senate on the bill and pressed for a speedy enactment.⁶⁹ The bill was not, however, considered in the Senate Committee of the Whole until January 17.⁷⁰ After the adoption of a minor committee amendment, Senator Page moved to strike out all after the enacting clause of the Smith-Lever bill and substitute the Page bill therefor.⁷¹ Senator Smith then stated that while he did not expect to fight the Page bill, he being in favor of Federal aid for secondary vocational education, he was nevertheless not able to satisfy himself on the details of the measure. His own idea was to pass the agricultural extension bill and then pass a joint resolution for the appointment of a commission of about 25 men to which the vocational education bill would be referred for working out a detailed plan with more definite limitations as to the way in which the appropriations could be expended.⁷²

A compromise bill was then drawn up and sent to Senator Smith in the hope that he would accept it, but the plan was not successful. On January 24 Senator Smith offered numerous objections to the Page bill regarding its appropriations, the Federal control involved, and other features.⁷³ The Page bill, he said, was soon to have its day in the Senate, hence it should not be attached to the Smith-Lever bill but

⁶⁵ Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, Proceedings, 1912, pp. 18-19, 99-101.

⁶⁶ Ibid., pp. 127, 130-131.

⁶⁷ Cong. Rec., 49: 15-17.

⁶⁸ Ibid., p. 564.

⁶⁹ 62d Cong., S.Rept. No. 1072; Cong. Rec., 49: 831-832.

⁷⁰ Cong. Rec., 49: 1659-1667.

⁷¹ Ibid., pp. 1659, 1663-1664.

⁷² In a letter from Pres. Kenyon L. Butterfield of the Massachusetts Agricultural College, which letter Senator Smith inserted in the Record on Jan. 2, 1912, it was suggested that the agricultural extension bill should be passed and then a conference of not to exceed 25 educational experts should be called to arrange the details of a vocational education bill.

⁷³ Cong. Rec., 49: 1955-1967.

should be considered on its own merits. There could be no hope, he thought, that the House of Representatives would accept the substitute bill for the agricultural extension bill. Senator Page, however, insisted that the proper procedure was to pass the substitute and let it go to conference from which a satisfactory measure might result.⁶⁴ He was certain the Page bill, should it pass the Senate, would in the press of business receive no consideration in the House. The two bills were, he maintained, not inconsistent as the agricultural extension provisions in both were practically the same.

The outcome of this sparring and parliamentary maneuvering was that the Smith-Lever bill, as amended by adding appropriations for vocational education, was reported from the Committee of the Whole to the Senate, and immediately thereafter Senator Page moved to strike out all after the enacting clause and insert the Page bill in its entirety.⁶⁵ His bill, he said, had been perfected, while the bill as it came from the Committee of the Whole was crude. To this proceeding Senator Hoke Smith objected vigorously. After much discussion Senator Page had his way and, by a vote of 31 yeas and 30 nays, 34 not voting, the part of the bill following the enacting clause was struck from the Smith-Lever bill and the Page bill was substituted.⁶⁶ An analysis of the vote shows that those voting from the northern States were principally for the substitution, those from the southern States were principally against such action, and those from the western States were about evenly divided. The vote came near being a party vote. The bill as it passed the Senate was sent to conference, where it died.⁶⁷

Thus the Sixty-second Congress closed with no final action on either bill. A tremendous effort had been made by both sides to the controversy to secure legislation, but as yet it proved of no avail. However, there were portents of future action. Senator Smith's suggestion for a commission to study the problems involved in Federal aid for vocational education was a step in a direction which should, perhaps, have been followed long before this time. At any rate it offered a way out of an awkward situation. At the same time those who were interested in the agricultural extension bill continued their efforts doggedly. On February 18, 1913, the House of Representatives agreed to a resolution ordering 2,000 copies of the hearings on the Lever bill,⁶⁸ obviously for the purpose of promoting the bill.

⁶⁴ Ibid., p. 1962.

⁶⁵ Ibid., p. 2216.

⁶⁶ Ibid., p. 2228.

⁶⁷ Ibid., pp. 2638, 2684.

⁶⁸ Ibid., p. 3343.

Chapter V

The Smith-Lever Law Enacted (1913-14)

1. The Convening of the Sixty-third Congress

The Sixty-second Congress (1911-13) was deadlocked over the quarrel between those promoting the agricultural extension bill and those insisting on the vocational education bill. In that Congress there was a Democratic majority in the House of Representatives and a Republican majority in the Senate. The election in 1912 gave the Democratic party a majority in the Senate also. Consequently, in the reorganization of the Senate in 1913, Senator Hoke Smith became Chairman of the Committee on Education and Labor and at the same time he was retained on the Committee on Agriculture and Forestry.¹ Senator Page was retained on both committees. In the House of Representatives Asbury F. Lever was Chairman of the Committee on Agriculture and Dudley M. Hughes, of Georgia, was Chairman of the Committee on Education.²

The first session of the Congress found both interests present. Senator Page presented the bill which he had introduced in the Sixty-second Congress.³ Senator Hoke Smith introduced the agricultural extension bill.⁴ At the same time he introduced a bill to create a fund for training vocational teachers in State universities, colleges, and normal schools.⁵ As a part of the same scheme Senator Smith introduced a Senate joint resolution to care for the vocational education movement.⁶ Here the ways of the two movements parted and there was practically no interference thereafter each with the other. The discussion will now proceed to a consideration of each movement separately, giving attention first to the agricultural extension bill.

¹ Official Congressional Directory, Dec., 1913, pp. 161, 163.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 185, 187.

³ 63d Cong., S. 3. Apr. 7, 1913. The vocational education bill was introduced in the House of Representatives by Representative William S. Goodwin, of Arkansas (H.R. 2874. Apr. 7, 1912). On May 1 Senator Lee S. Overman, of North Carolina, introduced his bill on Federal aid for farm-life schools (S. 1740).

⁴ 63d Cong., S. 46. Apr. 7, 1913. Representative Henry D. Flood also presented his earlier bill for agricultural extension (H.R. 156. Apr. 7, 1913).

⁵ 63d Cong., S. 45. Apr. 7, 1913.

⁶ 63d Cong., S.J.Res. 5.

2. "Cooperation" made Prominent in the Agriculture Extension Bill

In the spring of 1913 a movement developed to bring about a better understanding and a closer relationship between the colleges of agriculture and the United States Department of Agriculture. For some years an increasing amount of friction had been developing owing to what the colleges considered an encroachment on their functions by the Federal Department.⁷ In the growth of agricultural education and research there was no clear mapping out of the distinctive fields of service between the States and the Nation, that is, there was no division of labor which was explicit and generally recognized. This condition led to a considerable amount of discussion in 1913. In May of that year the executive committee of the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations and the Secretary of Agriculture went into the matter at some length and as a result a statement of principles was agreed on. The following minute was made regarding agricultural extension:

The executive committee approves the policy of unifying the administration of the extension service and is desirous of assisting in securing Federal legislation to that end on the basis of the following principles and conditions:

(a) That the extension service shall be administered wholly under the immediate direction of the college of agriculture. State leaders of extension service shall be appointed by said colleges and shall be recognized as college officials.

(b) That extension service projects maintained by Federal funds shall be entered upon only after mutual approval by the Department and the colleges.

(c) That the funds to be applied to the maintenance of the extension service shall be secured through congressional appropriations made to the Federal Department, to be distributed by it to the several States as provided by law on the basis of the fundamental provisions embodied in the Lever bill (H.R. 1692).

(d) It is understood that the appropriations made for extension service by the several States shall be under their control.

(e) It is further understood that the [Federal] moneys appropriated to extension service shall all be expended under the plans and agreements mutually approved by the Department and colleges, and that no outside cooperative arrangement for maintaining extension service shall be made with any corporation or commercial body, excepting as a corporation or commercial body may wish to donate funds to be administered in extension service exclusively by the colleges of agriculture in consultation with the Department.⁸

As a result of this conference the agricultural extension bill was redrafted and introduced in Congress by Senator Smith and Repre-

⁷ Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, Proceedings, 1913, pp. 125, 133, 141.

⁸ Ibid., p. 133. House Committee on Agriculture, hearings, Sept. 23, 1913, pp. 31, 32. Both Senator Smith and Representative Lever participated in the conference.

representative Lever on September 6, 1913.⁹ The new bill contained a provision for a *cooperative relation* between the Department of Agriculture and the agricultural colleges of the several States. The earlier bill proposed to establish agricultural extension departments in the agricultural colleges, and the Secretary of Agriculture, keeping himself informed through reports made to him, was to issue warrants to the Secretary of the Treasury to pay the Federal subsidies to the States. The new plan provided that before the beginning of each fiscal year projects setting forth the proposed plans for work to be carried on under the act were to be submitted by each college of agriculture and approved by the Secretary of Agriculture before the funds could become available for use.¹⁰ It was specifically stated " * * * this work shall be carried on in such manner as may be mutually agreed upon by the Secretary of Agriculture or his representative and the State agricultural college or colleges receiving the benefits of this act."

A national program of agricultural extension work might have been developed wholly under the control of the Department of Agriculture by extending the farmers' cooperative demonstration work. From a political point of view there would have been numerous objections to such a plan. It would have meant a direct contact between the farmer and the Federal department. Another way to develop a national extension program would have been to appropriate the Federal funds in the form of grants-in-aid, that is, the Federal funds might have been turned over to the colleges of agriculture to be used by them with little or no supervision by the Federal Government. This method, while it would have preserved State initiative unimpaired, might have been more or less objectionable from the Federal side, especially if the check on the expenditure of Federal funds proved inadequate. Furthermore, the Department of Agriculture had acquired a large amount of useful information and experience in extension work which might not be available under an extreme policy of exclusive State control.

A number of factors were involved in any plan for agricultural extension, as, for example, the question of what was to be done regarding the farmers' cooperative demonstration work then conducted by

⁹ 63d Cong., S.3091, and H.R. 7951. The provision, adopted by amendment in the 62d Cong., requiring that 75 percent of the Federal funds should be spent for "field instruction and demonstrations" was omitted in these bills, as was also the provision that the act should not interfere with the farmers' cooperative demonstration work. No funds were provided for the Territories; the earlier bills contained funds for this purpose.

¹⁰ The use of projects had been adopted by the Department of Agriculture in dealing with the agricultural experiment stations.

the Department of Agriculture. There was the necessity of guarding against the frittering away of funds on useless and unprofitable work, an ever-present possibility in a new undertaking. A new movement such as agricultural extension needed able direction. Furthermore, there was the necessity, or at least the desirability, that some national body bring together the experience of the country and correlate and promote the work. The danger in national oversight lay in the possibility of developing a stereotyped system with the consequent loss of local initiative, interest, and vitality, and the engendering of an obnoxious centralization of power in a Federal department. This latter feature might easily become important in view of the lack of clear definition in the bill and because much was left to the administrative officers in forming a policy of work.

The cooperative plan was an attempt to combine the advantages of local initiative, interest, and conduct of the work with such Federal oversight as would promote an efficient service. It seems clear that the plan was devised and nurtured by the Department of Agriculture.¹¹ The scheme had in it possibilities of good and ill and its success depended on the attitude of those administering it. That it meant a centralization of power as compared with the earlier agricultural extension bills was obvious.

3. The Extension Bill in the House and the Senate

The House Committee on Agriculture held a hearing on the bill in September 1913.¹² On December 8, 1913, the bill was favorably reported to the House.¹³ It was debated, amended, and passed in the House of Representatives on January 19, 1914.¹⁴ An amendment was adopted to prevent any construction of the act which might discontinue either the farm management work or the farmers' cooperative demonstration work conducted by the Department of Agriculture.¹⁵

The bill in the Senate was favorably reported from committee on December 10, 1913.¹⁶ The Senate debated the measure on January 17, 1914. On January 26 the bill passed by the House of Representatives

¹¹ House Committee on Agriculture, Hearings, Sept. 23, 1913. Statements by the Secretary and the Assistant Secretary of Agriculture.

¹² House Committee on Agriculture, Hearings, Sept. 23, 1913.

¹³ 63d Cong., H.Rept. No. 110. Four committee amendments were proposed, the most important of which was to omit the provision for a director of cooperative agricultural extension work included in the bill as introduced. It was adopted.

¹⁴ Cong. Rec., 51: 1932-1947.

¹⁵ Proposed by Mr. Lever. This statement was later modified in the Senate by the insertion of the following words: "pending the inauguration and development of the cooperative extension work herein authorized". (Cong. Rec., 51: 2744-2745.)

¹⁶ 63d Cong., S.Rept. No. 139.

was favorably reported with amendments to the Senate by the Committee on Agriculture and Forestry,¹⁷ and 2 days later it was substituted for the Senate bill.¹⁸ The three committee amendments proposed to change the initial appropriation to be prorated among the States on the basis of the rural population from \$300,000 to \$600,000; to change the annual increases in this appropriation from \$300,000 to \$600,000; and to change the number of years during which the increases were made from 9 to 4. The Senate accepted the first two of these amendments.¹⁹ The bill was debated at length by the Senate on various days from January 28 to February 7. On the latter date the upper house adopted a number of amendments and passed the measure.²⁰

The Senate made five important amendments to the House bill. One of these changed the permanent appropriations allotted to the States on the basis of the rural population from \$3,000,000 to \$4,800,000.²¹ Another amendment changed from 9 to 7 the number of years during which the appropriations were increased.²² A third amendment included in the bill a provision for the Territory of Hawaii.²³ A fourth important amendment provided that in a State having two or more land-grant colleges the governor and the Secretary of Agriculture should designate the institution to administer the agricultural extension appropriations.²⁴ A fifth amendment provided that "individual contributions" might be used to match the appropriations prorated among the States on the basis of the rural population.²⁵

4. Discussion of the Bill

In the discussion of the bill several matters received much consideration. The principle of cooperation was severely attacked, both in and outside Congress. A fear was expressed that the purpose was to extend the control of the Department of Agriculture into provinces

¹⁷ 63d Cong., S.Rept. No. 175.

¹⁸ *Cong. Rec.*, 51: 2426.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 2520.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 3130.

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 2520. Proposed by Senator Hoke Smith as a committee amendment subsequent to the committee report on the bill.

²² 63d Cong., H.Rept. No. 587. The amendment was proposed by Senator F. M. Simmons, of North Carolina, at the suggestion of Senator Albert B. Cummins, of Iowa. (*Cong. Rec.*, 51: 2427-2428, 2512.)

The *Congressional Record* apparently contains no definite note of the adoption of the amendment, but the adoption of a permanent annual appropriation of \$4,800,000 clearly implies that the annual increase of \$600,000 was to be made for 7 years.

²³ *Cong. Rec.*, 51: 2525. Proposed by Senator Clarence D. Clark, of Wyoming.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 3123. Proposed by Senator John E. Shafroth, of Colorado. The bill had delegated this authority to the State legislature.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 3129. Proposed by Senator Jacob H. Gallinger, of New Hampshire.

where it clearly did not belong; at any rate it was pointed out that such a development might easily occur in view of the past history of the Department's activities.²⁶ So strong was this feeling that during the course of the debate in the Senate, Senator Thomas Sterling, of South Dakota, proposed an amendment to strike the cooperative feature from the bill.²⁷ The amendment was rejected.

Another problem which occasioned much discussion in Congress was the method, or basis, of allotting to the States the appropriations above the \$10,000 which each State was to have. The bill made the rural population the basis of apportionment. To this basis Senator Albert B. Cummins, of Iowa, objected on the ground that the Southern States would receive an unduly large share, and he proposed an amendment to allot the appropriations on the basis of the number of acres of improved land in farms.²⁸ This basis would have increased the amounts for Iowa and several neighboring States, where the farms were large, and decreased the amounts for southern States, where the farms were relatively small and the farmers accordingly more numerous. It was replied that inasmuch as the proposition was educational the number of persons to be reached was the proper basis to employ.²⁹ After a long discussion the amendment was rejected.³⁰

A problem regarding which extended discussion occurred was that of making provision for extension work for Negroes. Inasmuch as the bill was silent on this point Senator Wesley L. Jones, of Washington, offered an amendment to guarantee that some of the funds for States having separate land-grant colleges for Negroes would go to those colleges.³¹ His amendment aimed at a provision similar to that in the Morrill Act of 1890 dealing with the education of Negroes in the land-grant colleges. The feeling was expressed that the Negroes would receive no benefit from the appropriations unless the law contained a specific provision on the point and that such deprivation would be a gross injustice. It was pointed out, however, that in the basis of allotting the funds to the States the Negro population would be included. The amendment was strongly urged by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. Senator Hoke Smith

²⁶ Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, Proceedings, 1913, pp. 121f.

²⁷ Cong. Rec., 51: 3126. See also pp. 2577-2578.

²⁸ Ibid., p. 2579. He also suggested as a basis the number of people engaged in agricultural pursuits.

²⁹ Ibid., p. 2737.

³⁰ Ibid., p. 2744. Representative Martin B. Madden, of Illinois, also objected to the basis of apportionment on the ground that the State of Illinois would pay more than it would receive. He suggested the total population as the basis.

³¹ Ibid., p. 2929. For other references to the discussion of this issue see pp. 2929-2948, 3031-3046, and 3115-3124.

insisted that the Federal appropriations for extension work were not for the benefit of any of the colleges as was, for example, the appropriation under the Morrill Act of 1890, and he strongly opposed the amendment. Furthermore, he held that it would not be wise to allow the schools for Negroes to carry on this work. Senator F. M. Simmons, of North Carolina, pointed out that the white demonstrator would be interested in the Negro farmer. The proposal brought on a long-drawn-out and sometimes acrimonious discussion of Negro education in which the northern and the southern points of view were freely expressed. The amendment was rejected. However, an amendment was adopted in the Senate requiring that the extension work should be carried on "without distinction as to race."³²

Two other amendments offered in the Senate were rejected. One of these, proposed by Senator John Sharp Williams, of Mississippi, provided that the extension agents must be mutually agreed upon by the Secretary of Agriculture and the State college or colleges receiving the benefits of the act.³³ Senator John W. Weeks, of Massachusetts, tried to amend the bill so as to permit some of the Federal appropriations to be used by State departments or boards of agriculture for extension work.³⁴

5. Objections Raised to the Bill

Although the opposition to the Smith-Lever bill was at no time serious some pronounced objections were made. In the House of Representatives the most outspoken opposition came from Representative John J. Fitzgerald, of New York, who thought the measure was "wholly obnoxious to our theory of government."³⁵ He believed "that questions relating to education along any particular line are questions of such vital importance to the States that that domain should not be encroached upon by the Federal Government." In the Senate the most vigorous attack was made by Senator John D. Works, of California.³⁶

The objections were varied.³⁷ It was held that agricultural extension was in no way a function of the Federal Government. The Government had collected the information for the farmers and there its obligation ended, it was said. This measure, so it was said, was

³² Ibid., pp. 3124-3125. Proposed by Senator Gilbert M. Hitchcock, of Nebraska.

³³ Ibid., pp. 2521-2525.

³⁴ Ibid., pp. 3128-3129.

³⁵ Ibid., p. 1944.

³⁶ Ibid., pp. 2572ff.

³⁷ Ibid., pp. 1944, 2574.

simply another move which proceeded on the assumption that the need to provide for the general welfare was a sufficient warrant for attacking any provision of the Constitution.

Several Members of Congress were lukewarm toward the proposition because they thought the legislation would not reach the difficulty in agriculture. It was argued, for example, that the crux of the situation was not an underproduction of agricultural products; it was rather an inadequate distribution of them. The whole scheme was considered a superficial method of promoting the development of agricultural education.³⁸ It was also denounced as an extravagant undertaking which was not worth the money it would cost.³⁹ The farmers, it was said, were not asking for this legislation and some of them actually opposed it.⁴⁰

The measure was also opposed on the ground that it was class legislation.⁴¹ The Federal Government had done enough already for the farmer; there was no more reason to educate him than there was to educate the mechanic. The farmer, it was said, was being educated to depend too much on the Federal Government. It was only because he had strong political power that such legislation was put through Congress.⁴²

The arguments pro and con were practically those of the earlier years. Very little that was new was developed on either side. The opposition at no time assumed formidable proportions. With the way cleared so far as opposition from the friends of the vocational education bill was concerned there was no question about the enactment of the bill.

6. The Bill Becomes a Law

When the House of Representatives received the amended bill from the Senate it disagreed with the amendments and the bill was sent to conference where an agreement was reached.⁴³ By the agreement the Senate receded from three of its amendments. The first of these gave the Governor of the State and the Secretary of Agriculture authority to designate the land-grant college to participate in the benefits of the act in States having two or more of these colleges. The provision of

³⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 1834-1835.

³⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 2575-2577, 3116.

⁴⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 1834. Sen. Joseph L. Bristow, of Kansas, stated that the Farmers' Union of Kansas had passed a resolution against the Lever bill and that the farmers resented farm demonstration. Other Senators, he said, made similar reports. Senator Asah J. Gronna, of North Dakota, stated he had the first farmer to find who was asking for the bill.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 2572-2573.

⁴² *Ibid.*, pp. 2573, 1944.

⁴³ 63d Cong., H.Rept. No. 587.

the House bill prevailed which vested this authority in the State legislature. The second of these amendments provided that the extension work should be carried on without discrimination as to race. The third amendment from which the Senate receded was the one making provision for agricultural extension work in the Territory of Hawaii.

The disagreement regarding the appropriations was compromised. The appropriations to be prorated among the States on the basis of the rural population were finally set to begin at \$600,000 and to increase \$500,000 a year for 7 years, after which the sum of \$4,100,000 was permanently appropriated for this purpose. These appropriations were in addition to the annual appropriation of \$480,000 of which each State received \$10,000.

To the Senate amendment that the Federal funds requiring an offset might be matched by "individual contributions" the conference added the phrase "from within the State." According to one of the leaders in the extension movement this wording was intended to prevent contributions from large interstate corporations and in particular to exclude the General Education Board from participation in the enterprise.⁴⁴

The conference agreement was ratified by the House of Representatives on April 27, 1914, and by the Senate on May 2.⁴⁵ On May 8, the bill was approved by President Wilson.⁴⁶

7. Conclusion

Undoubtedly several factors were responsible for the Agricultural Extension Act. First, the land-grant colleges were well organized and had much political power. They were also strongly and ably backed by a number of business groups and organizations interested in agricultural development from a business and financial point of view. Second, the proposition was a relatively simple one. It was in line with a well-beaten track which the Federal Government was following the success of which was evident in every State. Furthermore, no new administrative and political machinery was involved on the part of the State and practically none on the part of the Federal Government. Third, similar work, such as the farmers' cooperative demonstration work, had met with phenomenal success, and agricultural extension therefore readily appealed to the imagination. Fourth, the agricultural extension measure involved a much smaller expense than

⁴⁴ True, Alfred Charles. *A History of Agricultural Extension Work in the United States, 1785-1923*, p. 113.

⁴⁵ *Cong. Rec.*, 51: 7309, 7646.

⁴⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 8719.

the vocational education bill, which is an important factor in Federal legislation.

In some respects the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act were similar to those of the original bill for agricultural extension work, but there were also several important differences.⁴⁷ The appropriation of \$10,000 for each State⁴⁸ was the same in both measures, but the basis of making the "additional appropriations" and their apportionment to the States, was changed from 1 cent per capita of the total population to stated lump sums apportioned on the basis of the rural population. Both measures required the matching of the Federal appropriations apportioned on the population basis. The McLaughlin bill definitely required the use of the Federal appropriations by the States in such a way as to give assurance that the Negroes would share in the benefits, while in the Smith-Lever Act this issue is not recognized except in the provision that in any State having two or more land-grant colleges the Federal appropriations shall be administered by such college or colleges as the legislature of the State may direct. An important feature of the Smith-Lever Act not included in the original bill was the emphasis on cooperation between the Department of Agriculture and the land-grant colleges in agricultural extension work. The administrative provisions of the act fully incorporate this idea. There was little change in the provisions regarding reports, method of payment of appropriations by the Federal Government, and the diminution, loss, or misapplication of Federal funds by the States.

⁴⁷ See *Supra*, pp. 62-63, and 257-259.

⁴⁸ The McLaughlin bill included appropriations for the Territories on the same basis as for the States; no such provision was made by the Smith-Lever Act.

Chapter VI

The Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education (1913-14)

1. The Commission Proposed and Discussed

The Sixty-third Congress enacted the Smith-Lever law. At the opening of the first session a significant step was taken by Senator Hoke Smith, who introduced in the upper branch of Congress a resolution for the creation of a commission "to consider the need and report a plan not later than December first next, for national aid to vocational education."¹ The language indicates a foregone conclusion in the mind of the Senator that such aid should be granted, inasmuch as a plan was to be reported. In fact Senator Smith had earlier expressed himself in favor of Federal aid for this purpose.² The only question which troubled him was the relation between the Federal Government and the States in a plan for Federal aid.³ It was largely on this ground that he had objected to the Page bill, which he said carried too much Federal control. Agricultural extension was not to be included in the investigation, that is, the problem of Federal aid was to be looked into only insofar as it pertained to vocational education.

To smooth the way for legislation by securing agreement on the issues seems to have been uppermost in the minds of those who advocated the resolution.⁴ There was, as Representative S. D. Fess, of Ohio, urged, a sufficient need for some clarifying plan as a basis for intelligent action. The vocational education movement was new, and many intricate problems were involved both as to the effect of such training on the social order and as to the effect of Federal aid on the political system. The confusion is all too evident in the congressional debates on the question. It was also said that a commission was needed to study the subject because of the size of the undertaking.

¹ 63d Cong., S.J. Res. 5, Apr. 7, 1913.

² Cong. Rec., 49: 1663-1664.

³ House Committee on Education, Hearings on S.J. Res. 5, pp. 3-4.

⁴ See Cong. Rec., 50: 5350-5360, 1611-1613, and 51: 713-717 for the principal discussion of the resolution.

Members of Congress not having time to devote to such an extensive piece of work in their own committees.

Opposition was directed against the proposal for several reasons. It was urged that by creating such commissions Congress was abrogating its proper functions. A congressional committee, it was held, should deal with the case since the point at issue was not so much one of fact as of policy, a large body of fact having been accumulated through extensive hearings and study. Some Members of Congress resented the dictation of a commission. They argued that the report of a commission would be more or less binding on Congress and would have the approval of the President. There was also some opposition owing to the fear that a commission would delay and perhaps defeat the Smith-Lever bill for agricultural extension work. At any time the bill might come up the fact that a commission was at work on the problem could be used to prevent consideration. Finally, there was the general opposition to Federal aid for education, which opposed a commission as a step in the wrong direction, since it was merely moving in the way of Federal control of education, which must be avoided at all cost.

Several national organizations expressed themselves regarding the proposal. At the opening of the Sixty-third Congress the secretary of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education was engaged in drafting a new bill on Federal aid for vocational education.⁵ It was hoped to introduce this bill in Congress before the first of June 1913, but that was not done. At the request of the secretary the membership of the society wrote to Members of Congress urging support of the resolution for the creation of the national commission.⁶ No intensive campaign was waged by the society because of the feeling that the passing of the resolution depended on factors over which the society had no control. At its annual meeting in 1913 the society strongly endorsed the resolution.

Members of the National Association of State Universities also became interested in the proposed commission, principally because of the rivalry of those universities in several States with the land-grant colleges. A desire was expressed that the commission cover the whole field of Federal aid for education.⁷ The president of one of these State universities wanted very much to have the State universi-

⁵ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Minutes of the Executive Committee, Apr. 2, 1913.

⁶ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Minutes of the Board of Managers, Nov. 22, 1912.

⁷ Frank L. McVey, Letter to the President, July 4, 1913; Stratton D. Brooks, Letter to the President, July 7, 1913; James H. Baker, Letter to the President, July 12, 1913.

ties which were not land-grant colleges represented on the commission.⁸

The National Education Association, although not actively advocating the appointment of a commission, authorized the president of the Association to appoint a committee of five, representing, respectively, the city school superintendents, the State universities, the normal schools, the State superintendents of public instruction, and the agricultural colleges, to confer and advise with any national commission which might be created.⁹

The Commission Created

On January 20, 1914, more than 9 months after its introduction, the resolution to create the Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education was approved.¹⁰ It authorized the President to appoint a commission "of nine" for the purpose already indicated. None of the members of the commission were to receive compensation other than necessary expenses. The commission was to report not later than June 1, 1914. The appropriation for the study was \$15,000.

The appointment of the commission was a matter of much interest. The executive council of the American Federation of Labor in January 1914 directed that a list of names for membership on the commission be submitted to the President.¹¹ In certain quarters fear was expressed that the commission might be packed with extreme States' rights advocates who would favor Federal aid without adequate supervision—a situation which might easily defeat the purpose of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education.¹²

The members of the commission appointed by the President were:

Senator Hoke Smith
Senator Carroll S. Page
Representative Dudley M. Hughes
Representative S. D. Fess

Miss Florence M. Marshall
Miss Agnes Nestor
Charles A. Prosser
Charles H. Winslow
John A. Lapp

The congressional members of the commission had all declared themselves in favor of Federal aid for vocational education. The fact that the lay-members were members of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education¹³ also implied a friendly attitude toward such aid.

⁸ Thomas F. Kiste, Letter to the President, Sept. 19, 1913.

⁹ National Education Association, Bulletin, vol. II, no. 1, p. 14.

¹⁰ Cong. Rec., 51: 2016.

¹¹ American Federationist, 21: 253.

¹² Prosser, C. A., Letter to A. Lincoln Filene, Jan. 28, 1914.

¹³ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Bulletin No. 20, p. 229.

Thus was provided a commission to study the proposed legislation. Such an investigation had been advocated by the Commissioner of Education, Elmer Ellsworth Brown, as early as 1908 and the idea had been endorsed by the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education and the National Education Association.¹⁴ However, it cannot be said that the commission was intended to make the thorough investigation which the earlier advocates had in mind.

3. The Work and Report of the Commission

Early in April 1914 the commission organized and set to work. It decided to consider the following six questions:

1. To what extent is there need for vocational education in the United States?
2. Is there a need for national grants stimulating the States to give vocational education?
3. What kinds or forms of vocational education should be stimulated by national grants?
4. How far can the Federal Government aid through expert knowledge vocational education in the various States?
5. To what extent should the Federal Government aid the States through national grants for vocational education?
6. Under what conditions should grants to the States for vocational education be made?¹⁵

Several methods of study were employed. The questionnaire was used to collect facts and opinions from school officials and various organizations interested. Public hearings covering a week were held. Various publications on the situation were studied and discussed. The report was submitted on June 1, 1914, together with a bill embodying the ideas of the commission.¹⁶

The report, containing two volumes, was an extensive statement of the case for Federal aid for vocational education and the issues involved therein. It also included explanations of the commission's attitude and the principles which actuated the commission in its recommendations, together with the proposed bill. The commission was fully convinced that Federal aid should be granted to the States for vocational education. The report is an excellent summary of the favorable thought on the question.

The report occasioned both favorable and unfavorable comment. One of the most critical statements came from the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. It was,

¹⁴ *Supra*, p. 59.

¹⁵ 63d Cong., H.Doc. 1004, vol. I, p. 10.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 82-87. S. 5706 and H.R. 16952 of the 63d Cong.

It is essential that such a revolutionary measure be considered from all angles. The one large experiment in the provision of Federal support for education, the Morrill and supplementary acts, failed for nearly 40 years, and the failure was due to the absence of an educational policy. Only when the States really took up the objects, and only when a general social demand arose, was success possible. However sound the theoretical arguments for vocational education may be, all the arguments adduced by the Vocational Education Commission or the supporters of the Federal aid bills in behalf of Federal aid could be applied with equal weight to any other department of education or social activity. The need of education, the extensiveness of the problem, the mobility of population, the need of trained teachers, and the need of a central information bureau are all reasons that could be applied equally in support of any other kind of claim on the Federal treasury. Of much greater importance than the unsoundness of these claims is the absence of an educational policy underlying this type of legislation. There has been sufficient piecemeal tinkering with educational problems. Federal interference together with an attempt to patch up a small part of the whole simply perpetuates a system that is failing because there is no sound, unifying principle to vitalize the whole body of educational practice. The problem of vocational education cannot be treated in isolation; if it has any place at all, it must be made a part of the general organization. The experts have not yet arrived at any unanimity on the subject of vocational education. In fact, while the experts in general and vocational education have been discovering the very grave difficulties underlying the problem and are less able to present a policy now than they were 5 years ago, the Federal legislators are still discussing the merits of a measure framed, in outline at least, in 1911, and going back in principle to the act of 1862. During this period a new problem has come prominently to the front involving a drastic change in the conceptions and administration of the education of adolescents. Educational surveys are only just beginning to apply real tests to present systems and to formulate the results. The Cleveland survey, for example, in emphasizing the one fact of the vocational uselessness of the age period from fourteen to sixteen, has dealt a severe blow to prevailing conceptions on the organization of vocational education. Indeed, there is no single phase of the educational problem that needs so much consideration as this, which the legislator desires to settle in this offhand way.¹⁷

The bill which the commission drew up was different from the Page bill in five important particulars. *First*, no provision was made for agricultural extension work, the Smith-Lever bill having become a law. The branch agricultural experiment stations and specific provision for district agricultural high schools were likewise not included. *Second*, the specifications of the appropriations were different from those in the Page bill. The appropriations were of four classes, (1) for salaries of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects; (2) for salaries of teachers of trade and industrial subjects; (3) for preparing teachers, supervisors, and directors of agricultural subjects, and teachers of trade and industrial and home economics subjects; and (4) for the Federal Board for Vocational Education for its work in administering the act and research to aid the States in establishing

¹⁷ Kandel, I. L., *Federal Aid for Vocational Education*, pp. 96-97.

vocational education. *Third*, the new bill contained more specific definitions of the types of education to be aided than did the earlier bill. *Fourth*, the feature of cooperation between the Federal Government and the States was greatly emphasized in the commission's bill. Each State was to initiate a plan for vocational education and the Federal Board was to approve the plan and ascertain whether the funds were properly spent.¹⁸ *Fifth*, the Federal administration of the act was placed under a Federal Board for Vocational Education, consisting of five specified members of the Cabinet.

The submission of the report was the end of action during the Sixty-third Congress, as the report received no consideration in the short session which opened in December 1914. Because there was no hope of securing the enactment of the bill in this Congress it was not urged.¹⁹ It was planned, however, to make a vigorous attempt to pass the bill in the next Congress. The report of the commission was printed and widely circulated. It was well written and was the kind of material which served well to promote the movement.

Following very soon after the submission of the report of the commission an important pronouncement on the movement was made by the National Education Association in which that organization "re-affirmed its former declarations upon industrial and vocational education as a phase of general education needed in a democracy", and endorsed the principle of Federal aid for vocational education.²⁰ The Association looked with disfavor upon "any proposal of a parallel system of schools exclusively for the trades and industries", but it favored a "comprehensive, unified system of public education, including all types and forms under the single administration of the constituted authorities in charge of the public schools."

¹⁸ The Smith-Lever Act, which was approved 3 weeks before the commission made its report, emphasized a cooperative relation between the Federal Government and the States.

¹⁹ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Annual Report of the Board of Managers, Jan. 14, 1915.

²⁰ National Education Association, Bulletin, vol. III, no. 4, p. 46.

Chapter VII

The Smith-Hughes Law Enacted (1915-17)

1. Planning the Campaign

Early in the spring of 1915 the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education made definite plans to secure action in Congress on vocational education. The immediate object was to secure the passage of the bill while a second object was to incorporate in the bill certain features in which the society was especially interested. Preliminary to the campaign the society planned to obtain the active support of the American Federation of Labor, other organizations, and individuals.¹ Among the organizations interested the National Metal Trades Association voted to "continue its interest and cooperation with other associations in advancing the cause of industrial education", and it appropriated \$1,000 for that purpose.² Of this amount \$500 was contributed to the National Society to help in its work of promoting the movement for Federal aid. As a further step a special committee on legislation was appointed by the society to give attention to the bill.³ All through the summer and fall of 1915 the society planned the campaign to be launched when the Sixty-fourth Congress convened. The support of various groups was solicited, even through compromises, in the hope that a united front might be presented.

2. A Preparedness Motive

The stage was well set. The bill was introduced in both houses early in the first session of the Congress.⁴ The President had become interested, and in his annual address to Congress, which was devoted to a preparedness program, he said,

What is important is, that the industries and resources of the country should be made available and ready for mobilization. It is the more imperatively necessary, therefore,

¹ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Minutes of the Executive Committee, June 12, 1915.

² National Metal Trades Association, Proceedings, 1915, p. 89; 1916, p. 39.

³ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Minutes of the Executive Committee, June 12, Sept. 15, Oct. 16, and Dec. 4, 1915.

⁴ 64th Cong., H.R. 457, Dec. 6, 1915; S. 703, Dec. 7, 1915.

that we should promptly devise means for doing what we have not yet done: That we should give intelligent Federal aid and stimulation to industrial and vocational education, as we have long done in the large field of our agricultural industry; . . .⁵

The President again emphasized the preparedness motive in an address on January 27, 1916, when he said,

There are two sides to the question of preparation. There is not merely the military side; there is the industrial side. An ideal which I have in mind is this; we ought to have in this country a great system of industrial and vocational education under Federal guidance, and with Federal aid, in which a very large percentage of the youth of this country will be given training in the skillful use and application of the principles of science in maneuver and business.⁶

Congress, however, moved slowly in this matter. It was not until after 2 months had elapsed that the proposition came from committee, the Senate bill being reported on January 31, 1916, and the House bill on February 10.⁷ The bill reported to the House was a new bill introduced by Representative Dudley M. Hughes on February 10.⁸ It was different from the previous bill in two respects: First, provision was made for education in home economies along with education in agriculture and the trades and industries; and, second, the Federal Board for Vocational Education in the later bill consisted of the Commissioner of Education and four associate members, not more than two of whom might be of any one political party, while in the earlier bill it consisted of five cabinet members.

3. The Campaign

The campaign began in great earnest. In addition to promoting the movement the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education devoted itself to the major point at issue, which was the constitution of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. At its annual meeting in January 1916, the Society went on record in favor of a board "so constituted as really to represent employers engaged in manufacturing, employers engaged in commercial pursuits, labor, agriculture, and education, whether general or vocational."⁹ It also advocated that the board be required to appoint advisory committees to aid in its work. This idea of a representative board was later endorsed by the Department of Superintendence of the National

⁵ *Cong. Rec.*, 53: 99.

⁶ Commissioner of Education, Report, 1916, vol. I, p. 158.

⁷ 64th Cong., S.Rept. No. 97; H.Rept. No. 181.

⁸ 64th Cong., H.R. 11230.

⁹ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Newsletter No. 9, p. 7.

Education Association,¹⁰ the American Home Economics Association,¹¹ the National Metal Trades Association,¹² the National Association of Manufacturers,¹³ and the American Federation of Labor.¹⁴

One of the important organizations which became a prominent factor in the movement was the United States Chamber of Commerce. From its organization, in 1912, the Chamber took an active interest in the nation's educational affairs. At its first annual meeting, in January 1913, Federal aid according to the Page bill was strongly endorsed.¹⁵ At the annual meeting of the Chamber, in February 1916, the committee on education submitted a favorable report on Federal aid for vocational education and recommended that the Chamber take a nation-wide referendum on the subject.¹⁶ The referendum was taken in April and the report was published early in June. The resolutions voted on, together with the results, were as follows:

I. The committee recommends liberal Federal appropriations for promotion of vocational education in the United States.

831½ votes in favor, 109½ votes against.

II. The committee recommends that Federal appropriations should be allotted among the States upon a uniform basis and should bear a uniform relation to appropriations made by the States for like purposes.

828 votes in favor, 95 votes against.

III. The committee recommends the creation of a Federal board, to be representative of the interests vitally concerned and to be compensated sufficiently to command great ability.

788½ votes in favor, 134½ votes against.

IV. The committee recommends that the Federal board should be required to appoint advisory committees of five members each, representing industry, commerce, labor, agriculture, homemaking, and general or vocational education.

783½ votes in favor, 136½ votes against.¹⁷

A study of the vote on Resolution I indicates in part the localities from which the proposition was supported. Votes were reported from 42 States, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, Alaska, and the

¹⁰ National Education Association, Proceedings, 1916, p. 898.

¹¹ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Minutes of the Executive Committee, Mar. 4, 1916.

¹² Proceedings, 1916, pp. 36-44.

¹³ Proceedings, 1916, pp. 74 and 215.

¹⁴ Proceedings, 1916, pp. 103, 348-349.

¹⁵ *The Nation's Business*, I: 1. That the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education realized the possibilities of strength in the support of the chambers of commerce and that it sought this support is seen in the issuance of a bulletin by the Society in October 1913, on What Chambers of Commerce Can Do for Vocational Education, which contained a section on What Can Be Done to Further Federal Effort for Vocational Education.

¹⁶ Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Referendum No. 14, p. 1.

¹⁷ *Ibid.* See also Special Bulletin on Referendum No. 14.

American Chamber of Commerce in Paris. Dissenting votes were recorded from 12 States only, as follows:

States	Total votes cast	Percent in opposition
California	48	41.7
Washington	12	41.7
Pennsylvania	72	30.6
South Dakota	8	25.0
Tennessee	17	17.7
Illinois	98	17.4
New York	140	15.7
Missouri	39	15.4
Massachusetts	44	13.6
Virginia	17	5.9
Ohio	79	5.7
Indiana	45	3.3
Total	617	17.7

The referendum was undoubtedly a master stroke. It showed the attitude of an important and influential group as to whether its members desired Federal aid for vocational education, as well as their attitude on the constitution of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. It was a mandate of no mean importance. The result of the referendum was sent to all Senators and Representatives to guide them in their interpretation of the attitude of the citizens on the question.¹⁸

4. Action in Congress Delayed

The first consideration of the bill occurred in the Senate. On April 20, 1916, Senator Hoke-Smith took a short time to inform the Senate on the leading features of the measure and to propose several amendments.¹⁹ Senator Page on July 24 addressed the Senate on the bill.²⁰ Finally on July 31 Senator Hoke Smith spoke again discussing the origin of the bill and its provisions.²¹ The debate was brief, as practically no Senator was against the bill. Two important amendments, proposed by Senator Hoke Smith, were agreed to.²² One of these amendments required the Federal Board for Vocational Education to

¹⁸ *Cong. Rec.*, 54: 777.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, 53: 6479-6480.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 11463-11474.

²¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 11783-11784.

²² *Ibid.*, p. 11878. An amendment, proposed by Senator Charles S. Thomas, of Colorado, was adopted. It required the Federal Board for Vocational Education to include in its studies and investigations "problems, requirements, and methods for the proper training of foreign-born persons for intelligent citizenship and industrial efficiency." This provision was omitted from the bill as finally passed.

select a director and 4 specialists and authorized the Board to select an advisory board of 7 persons representing various interests; the other permitted the Board to have departments of the Government make studies and investigations for it. The bill was then passed by the Senate.

In the House of Representatives the only discussion of the House bill during the first session of the Sixty-fourth Congress was an address by Representative Dudley M. Hughes on July 29.²³ There were several reasons for this inactivity on the part of the House. The measure was not included in the administration program and consequently it would not likely be considered until after the program was completed.²⁴ During practically all of August, when the bill should have come up, no quorum was present.²⁵ Representative Hughes, who could have pushed the bill, was absent during much of the time. The upshot of the situation was that the House bill was left on the calendar untouched and the bill which had passed the Senate was in the hands of the House Committee on Education when the first session of the Sixty-fourth Congress adjourned in September.

During all of this time the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education was busily at work. The secretary spent almost all of July and August 1916 in Washington promoting the cause and awaiting action.²⁶

5. The Smith-Hughes Bill Becomes a Law

Soon the long campaign was to end. In his annual address on December 5, 1916, the President said:

At the last session of the Congress a bill was passed by the Senate which provides for the promotion of vocational and industrial education which is of vital importance to the whole country because it concerns a matter, too long neglected, upon which the thorough industrial preparation of the country for the critical years of economic development immediately ahead of us in very large measure depends. May I not urge its early and favorable consideration by the House of Representatives and its early enactment into law? It contains plans which affect all interests and all parts of the country, and I am sure that there is no legislation now pending before the Congress whose passage the country awaits with more thoughtful approval or greater impatience to see a great and admirable thing set in the way of being done.²⁷

²³ *Ibid.*, pp. 11818-11821. On July 11 Representative Isaac Siegel, of New York, introduced a vocational education bill which included Federal aid for commercial education along with aid for education in agriculture and trades and industries. (64th Cong., H.R. 16971.)

²⁴ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Minutes of the Executive Committee, May 13, 1916.

²⁵ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Newsletter No. 9, p. 5.

²⁶ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Minutes of the Executive Committee, Sept. 9, 1916.

²⁷ *Cong. Rec.*, 54: 17.

✓ Action followed quickly.²⁹ On December 7 the bill was given privileged status in the House of Representatives. Four days later Representative S. D. Fess, of Ohio, explained the provisions of the bill and the reasons for its enactment. General debate was closed on December 22. At this time the House discharged the Committee on Education from further consideration of the Senate bill, upon which the committee had not as yet made a report, and the Senate bill was considered by the House in lieu of its own bill. By the same motion all the text of the Senate bill was struck out and in lieu thereof the text of the House bill was inserted. In other words, the bill considered by the House was its own bill. On January 2 and 9, 1917, the bill was read section by section and amended,³⁰ and on the latter date it was passed by the House.

During the debates in the House of Representatives numerous reasons were set forth for the enactment of the bill, most of which were not new. Some of these reasons would apply as well to Federal aid for general education as for vocational education. However, there were several new features in the argument. Representative Fess said the children of the country were citizens of the Nation rather than the States and consequently the Nation should provide more definitely for them than it had done in the past.³⁰ Some mention was made of the conservation of natural resources as it applied to skill in labor.³¹ The opportuneness of the measure was urged because of the trade war which it was thought would follow the European war.³² The relation of the provision to preparedness was mentioned, but it was not strongly emphasized.³³ One Member of the House made the following statement regarding the relation of the bill to immigration, a significant relation from a national point of view:

We cannot rely upon immigration for ordinary labor forever, and in order to get the American citizen, born and reared in this country, to do this class of labor, you have got to fix it so that he can do more work and get more pay. And it is along lines like these that we have got to look in the future to perform the necessary work in our Nation.³⁴

The debates reveal two primary purposes in the granting of Federal aid for vocational education, first, to stimulate the States to provide

²⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 102, 167-177, 714-725, 749-752, 1071-1083.

³⁰ The amendments are explained on pages 109-131.

³¹ *Ibid.*, p. 170.

³² *Ibid.*, p. 722, and Appendix, pp. 80-81. Remarks by Representative Frederick W. Dallinger, of Massachusetts, and Representative S. D. Fess.

³³ *Ibid.*, p. 717. Remarks by Representative Horace M. Towner, of Iowa.

³⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 1080. Remarks by Representative Dallinger.

³⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 1081. Remarks by Representative James R. Mann, of Illinois.

such education,³⁶ and, second, "to secure the establishment of practical standards of vocational education", and "to stimulate the States by Federal aid to accept these standards."³⁶ The latter statement clearly points to the use of Federal aid for a definite purpose and indicates that the aid was intended merely as a means to a specific end. Some Members of Congress, however, had in mind the idea of Federal support rather than Federal direction.³⁷

As usual the States' rights philosophy found expression in opposition. Representative C. F. Reavis, of Nebraska, feared the time would come when the Federal Government would take over "those duties and obligations and sovereignties of the States which it can perform better than the States themselves."³⁸ He thought it wise to consider carefully the direction in which the country was moving in this respect, as there was entirely too much yielding to the occasion and the opportunity. Another Member, Representative Joseph Walsh, of Massachusetts, thought the States resented this type of cooperative legislation and they could and would themselves provide vocational education.³⁹ Finally a Representative from Texas, James L. Slayden, said he regarded such legislation as an "assault upon the prerogatives and high duties of the States", and he believed it was "a beginning of the destruction of the State system of public schools."⁴⁰ More and more the contributions would, he said, teach the taxpayers to rely upon Federal appropriations, which would in the end prove hurtful to the schools of the States.

Several other interesting remarks were made. One Representative, George Huddleston, of Alabama, said nothing should be done that would weaken labor's strength and control in labor disputes.⁴¹ A reading of the debates leads to the conclusion that a number of the legislators had the idea that the aid was intended for elementary schools.⁴²

After passing the House of Representatives the bill went to conference where a compromise was effected.⁴³ Both houses agreed to

³⁶ Ibid., pp. 171, 176, 654, 759.

³⁷ Ibid., p. 176. Remarks by Representative Irvine L. Lenroot, of Wisconsin.

³⁸ Ibid., p. 761. Remarks by Representative Richard W. Austin, of Tennessee. Others gave expression to this idea.

³⁹ Ibid., p. 761.

⁴⁰ Ibid., p. 768.

⁴¹ Ibid., p. 1079. See also p. 771.

⁴² Ibid., p. 724.

⁴³ Ibid., pp. 173, 754, 757.

⁴⁴ 64th Cong., S.Doc. No. 711; M.Rept. No. 1493. Feb. 17, 1917.

the compromise. ⁴⁴ Finally on February 23, 1917, the bill became a law by the approval of the President. ⁴⁵

Thus 10 years after the introduction of the first Davis bill the attempt to obtain Federal aid for vocational education below college grade ended successfully. For 10 years the agitation and discussion had gone on, at times very vigorously, at other times with less energy, but at no time did defeat seem in the way. The movement had its beginning in the minds of a comparatively few men, but as the years passed it gathered strength through an increasing number of adherents until in the later years a relatively large following had been developed and organized. The strong support eventually produced the result desired on the part of those who demanded Federal aid for vocational education.

⁴⁴ Cong. Rec., 54: 3423-3429, 3481-3483.

⁴⁵ Ibid., p. 3965.

Chapter VIII

Evolution of Important Features of the Smith-Hughes Law

The principal features of the Smith-Hughes Act were the result of an interesting evolution. The early bills to obtain Federal aid for vocational education were comparatively simple. They involved few restrictions and contained only such general safeguards as were found in the land-grant college legislation up to that time. From time to time as new interests were represented in the support of the measure and as experience accumulated, important changes were made in the bills. This evolution will now be explained.

1. Schools and Courses

The first aid requested from Congress for secondary vocational education, other than for the training of vocational teachers, was for congressional district "agricultural colleges."¹ It was soon followed with a request for aid to branch agricultural experiment stations in congressional districts.² These two proposals were modified and combined, and a third feature, that of aid for instruction in mechanic arts and home economics in city high schools, was added to form the first Davis bill.³ Even with this combination the emphasis in the bill and in many of its successors was on agricultural education. In spite of much criticism, the district agricultural high school persisted for 7 years in all the proposed measures on Federal aid for secondary schools, and it was not until the Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education remade the bill that this particular feature was omitted. The separate school idea seems to have been especially attractive to many who wanted provision for agricultural education.

Separate schools for teaching trades and industries, agriculture, and home economics were suggested in the Dolliver-Davis bill, but they were not mandatory as were the district agricultural schools.⁴ The Page-Wilson bill included a special fund for separate industrial and

¹ *Supra*, pp. 52-53.

² *Ibid.*

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 53-54.

⁴ 61st. Cong., S. 4675 and H.R. 20374.

home economics schools of secondary grade.⁵ Although all the bills after the first few included aid for vocational instruction in general secondary schools, they were explicit in requiring that the instruction be distinctly vocational and that no Federal funds be used for general studies. The aid in all cases was for instruction in agriculture, mechanic arts, later changed to "trades and industries", and home economics.⁶

When the Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education considered the measure it decided to use the term "vocational education" as "that form of education whose controlling purpose is to give training of a secondary grade to persons over 14 years of age for increased efficiency in useful employment in the trades and industries, in agriculture, in commerce and commercial pursuits, and in callings based upon a knowledge of home economics."⁷ The commission laid down the following set of principles to clarify its deliberations:

1. National grants should be given to the States only for those forms of vocational education for which there is an acknowledged widespread need that is not now being met.
2. National grants should be given to the States only for those forms of vocational education where the need is of such importance to the national welfare as to justify national aid for their encouragement.
3. National grants should be given to the States only for those forms of vocational education where it is clear that in the absence of such aid the States could not take the initiative in time to meet the present and growing need.⁸

On these grounds professional, commercial, and nautical education were ruled out of consideration, the first because it was already well developed, the second because there seemed to be "no great scarcity of trained workers of this kind", and the third because there seemed to be no "urgent need for Federal appropriations for the development of nautical schools."⁹ The commission recommended Federal aid for instruction in agriculture and in trades and industries.

For the various lines of teaching the commission recommended all-day schools, part-time courses, and evening courses. Its bill stipulated that at least one-third of the sum appropriated to any State for the salaries of teachers of trade and industrial subjects, should, if expended, be applied to part-time schools or classes for young workers over 14

⁵ 62d Cong., S. 3 and H.R. 23581.

⁶ This statement does not apply to the bill introduced by Senator Lee S. Overman, of North Carolina, on April 6, 1911, and later dates, which was to grant aid for farm life schools. These schools were to have instruction in agriculture and homemaking. In several bills shorter courses and continuation and night courses were mentioned, but these were not included in the Page-Wilson bill.

⁷ 63d Cong., H.Doc. No. 1004, vol. I, p. 16.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 40.

⁹ *Ibid.* In fact the Government already appropriated funds for nautical schools.

years of age who had entered upon employment.¹⁰ In fact, so much was the commission impressed with the part-time school that it was at one time inclined to limit all Federal aid to that type of school.

For evening schools receiving Federal aid the commission set the following qualifications: "That evening industrial schools shall fix the age of sixteen as a minimum entrance requirement and shall confine instruction to that which is supplemental to the daily employment."¹¹ Representative J. Hampton Moore, of Pennsylvania, made strong objection to the instruction requirement and he offered an amendment to strike it from the bill.¹² He contended that such a requirement would make it impossible for a boy to secure training which would help him to change his occupation, should he desire to do so. Representative S. D. Fess, of Ohio, explained that most cities already had established evening trade preparatory schools and that if the fund went to them it would be dissipated to no purpose.¹³ Furthermore, he apprehended, the evening school would become of less importance as compulsory education and continuation schools increased. After considerable discussion the amendment was rejected by a vote of 8 to 45.¹⁴

Education in home economics became very prominent in the discussions. All the bills before the time of the Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education contained provisions for home economics along with agriculture and trades and industries. The commission was disposed to be critical about this subject. Its statement was:

The commission has given very serious consideration to the whole question of training in home economics. It is strongly of the opinion that preparation for the varied duties of the home should be regarded as a legitimate and integral part of the education of every girl; that it should be given throughout the entire school course both in elementary and in high schools; and that it should be considered a necessary part of a girl's general preparation for life, no matter what her particular calling might be.

The investigations made by the commission show that the States are not only fully awake to this need, but that, so far as the towns and cities are concerned, general training for the home is being rapidly developed in the States, so that it seems reasonably certain that this work, in the absence of national grants, will not be neglected.

The difficulty of providing for home training in the rural districts, without national aid, is apparent. Partly for this reason and partly because the duties of the farmer and the farmer's family on the farm and in the home are so closely related, the commission has recommended that grants for agricultural education shall include training for "the occupation connected with the work of the farm and farm home."

¹⁰ Ibid., pp. 86, 381-382.

¹¹ 63d Cong., H.Doc. No. 1004, vol. I, p. 86.

¹² Cong. Rec., 34: 1074.

¹³ Ibid.

¹⁴ Ibid., p. 1078.

The commission recognizes, however, that aside from general training for the home, there are numerous callings in which women are engaged which are based upon a knowledge of home economics, such as that of the dietitian, the cook, the housemaid, the institutional manager, and many others. These require a highly specialized training and the commission has therefore deemed it advisable in proposing grants for industrial education to so define the use of that term as to include training for such callings.¹⁵

The bill prepared by the commission accordingly omitted Federal aid for education in home economics except as it could be included under agricultural education as the "work of the farm or of the farm home", and under education in trades and industries as having the controlling purpose "to fit for useful employment" such persons as were preparing "for a trade or industrial pursuit", or such persons as "had entered upon the work of a trade or industrial pursuit."¹⁶ Under the bill as drawn the inclusion of education in home economics under agricultural education was clear enough, but the interpretation under industrial education might easily give rise to difficulty.

Straightway the General Federation of Women's Clubs set to work to have included definite provision for instruction in home economics along with instruction in trades and industries and succeeded in having the House Committee on Education provide for it in the bill.¹⁷ When the bill was considered by the House, Representative Thomas Platt, of New York, offered an amendment to strike "home economics" from the bill.¹⁸ He thought home economics "an endless subject, more or less taught and generally pretty well taught in every school in the country . . ." Its inclusion, he said, offered "an opportunity to dissipate this whole fund in trifles." Home economics did not need encouragement. The bill, he thought, included too many things. Representative Horace M. Towner, of Iowa, argued that home economics had been associated with industrial education since the very beginning of the movement in the United States. If it were not included, girls would be taught to become shop and factory workers and to go into the trades, but not to become homemakers.¹⁹ After some further discussion the amendment was rejected.

Very soon afterward Representative Irvine L. Lenroot, of Wisconsin, offered an amendment that not more than 20 percent of the money for the payment of salaries of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects, for any year should be expended for salaries of teachers of home economics subjects.²⁰ Since many States already

¹⁵ 63d Cong., H.Doc. No. 1004, vol. 1, p. 41.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 85-86, 381.

¹⁷ *General Federation Magazine*, 15: 26-28; 64th Cong., H.R. 11250, sec. 3.

¹⁸ *Cong. Rec.*, 54: 757.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 758.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 763.

provided for this instruction he thought they would expend the money on it without providing for any new activities—a circumstance which was wholly contrary to the purposes of the bill. After some discussion the amendment was agreed to.²¹ The provisions regarding home economics were retained in the conference report on the bill and consequently they became a part of the law.

2. The Training of Teachers

The movement to secure Federal aid for a system of vocational education below college grade began with an attempt to obtain assistance for the State normal schools in training teachers of agriculture, manual training, and domestic science. This at once stimulated activity on the part of the land-grant colleges and they secured increased Federal aid with permission to use a part of it to train teachers of agriculture and the mechanic arts. The outcome was ominous for the State normal schools. However, they continued in their effort.

Meanwhile the Davis bill for vocational education began to make progress. One of the promoters of this measure, Willet M. Hays, was strongly opposed to Federal aid for the State normal schools. During the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association in Washington in 1908 a group of normal school men and Mr. Hays interviewed President Roosevelt on the whole question.²² After the normal school committee and Mr. Hays had expressed their opinions, President Roosevelt stated that he was in favor of Federal aid both for the State normal schools and for vocational education. The outcome was that the Davis bill was redrafted to include aid for the State normal schools in training vocational teachers.²³ Previous to that time the Davis bill contained no provision for the training of teachers.

Doubt as to the "desirability as well as feasibility of encouraging normal schools" as they were then quite widely developed, "to train for teaching industries or household arts or agriculture" was expressed by the National Society's special committee on national legislation at the annual meeting of the Society in 1911, and in its proposed bill the committee used the term "approved teachers' training schools."²⁴ As a result of the conference on the Page bill in December 1911²⁵ an

²¹ Ibid., p. 765.

²² J. W. Crabtree, Statement to the author, Jan. 10, 1921.

²³ 60th Cong., H.R. 18204.

²⁴ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Bulletin No. 15, p. 131; Report by the Special Committee Appointed to Consider Senate Bill No. 3, p. 3.

²⁵ Supra, p. 75.

amendment was proposed to the bill which provided for a specific appropriation to the land-grant colleges to train vocational teachers.²⁶ Thus, when the bill was considered by the Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education, it included for the training of vocational teachers a specific appropriation for State normal schools and another appropriation for the land-grant colleges.

The commission recommended an appropriation to train vocational teachers, supervisors, and directors, under a plan provided by the State board in charge of vocational education.²⁷ This was an elastic provision which left the training of teachers in the hands of the State board under certain restrictions stated in the law. Neither the State normal schools nor the land-grant colleges were mentioned in the commission's bill. Therefore although the State normal schools had begun this movement they suffered virtually a complete defeat. Very little of the money for training vocational teachers is today reaching any of these institutions. In this matter the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education and the land-grant colleges accomplished their purposes.

It is obvious that the training of vocational teachers was for years regarded as of special importance in a plan for vocational education. The Smith-Hughes Act emphasizes the necessity of this feature through a provision that after June 30, 1921, no State may receive any appropriation for salaries of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects until it has taken advantage of at least the minimum amount appropriated for the training of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects under the act, and a similar provision attaches to the appropriation for the salaries of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects. The "minimum amount" is defined and the development of a lopsided teacher-training program is prevented through the following requirement of the Smith-Hughes Act:

* * * that not more than sixty per centum nor less than twenty per centum of the money appropriated under this act for the training of teachers of vocational subjects to any State for any year shall be expended for any one of the following purposes: For the preparation of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects, or the preparation of teachers of trade and industrial subjects, or the preparation of teachers of home economics subjects.

3. The Appropriations

A number of changes were made in the proposed appropriations as the bills were redrafted. The Burkett-Pollard bill proposed appro-

²⁶ 62d Cong., S.Rept. No. 405, p. 71.

²⁷ 63d Cong. H.Doc. No. 1004, vol. 1, p. 86.

priations for the State normal schools, beginning with \$500,000 and increasing by \$100,000 annually until they reached \$1,000,000, which was thereafter to be the annual appropriation.²⁸ One half of these amounts was to be divided equally among the several States and one half was to be prorated to the States in proportion to the length of the school term and the number of students in each State normal school.

The first Davis bill contained for each State an amount equal to 10 cents per capita of its population for vocational education and \$2,500 for each branch agricultural experiment station in connection with district agricultural high schools.²⁹ This would have provided almost \$7,600,000 annually for instruction. How much would have been provided for the branch agricultural experiment stations would have depended on the number of such stations established by the States. This bill was later modified to grant the per capita rate to towns and cities of not fewer than 2,000 people for instruction in mechanic arts and home economics and the per capita rate to the total rural and other population not included in the towns and cities, for instruction in agriculture and home economics in district agricultural high schools, and each State was to have for its branch stations a sum equal to one fourth of that allotted to it for district agricultural high schools.³⁰ In a later revision the Davis bill included an appropriation of 1 cent per capita of population to each State for its State normal schools.³¹ The per capita basis of making and allotting the appropriations was employed in the Davis bill. This basis was also included in the McLaughlin agricultural extension bill for the appropriations over and above the minimum of \$10,000 to each State and Territory.³²

In the Davis-Dolliver bill the method of lump sums was employed for the appropriations.³³ The appropriations to be allotted to the States were set down as follows:

1. For instruction in agriculture and home economics in State district agricultural high schools.....	\$4,000,000
2. For branch agricultural experiment stations at the State district agricultural high schools.....	1,000,000
3. For instruction in trades and industries and home economics and agriculture in public high schools.....	5,000,000
4. For instruction in agriculture, trades and industries, and home economics in State and Territorial normal schools.....	1,000,000

²⁸ 59th Cong., S. 4642 and H.R. 15346.

²⁹ 59th Cong., H.R. 24757. For the appropriations proposed by the Livingston and the Adameon bills see *supra*, p. 53.

³⁰ 60th Cong., H.R. 534.

³¹ 60th Cong., H.R. 18204.

³² 61st Cong., H.R. 15422.

³³ 61st Cong., S. 4675 and H.R. 20374.

The first and the second of these appropriations were to be allotted to the States and Territories in proportion to the number of persons engaged in agricultural pursuits and the other two funds in proportion to the total population. To these amounts the Dolliver bill later added an appropriation for agricultural extension work by the land-grant colleges.³⁴

The Page-Wilson bill carried out this idea of lump sum appropriations to be allotted on appropriate bases.³⁵ Its annual appropriations to the States were as follows:

1. Secondary school department fund (allotted in proportion to the total population of the States).....	\$3,000,000
2. Industrial or home economics school fund (allotted in proportion to the number of persons engaged in trades and transportation, and manufacturing and mechanical pursuits).....	3,000,000
3. District agricultural school fund (allotted in proportion to the number of persons engaged in agricultural pursuits).....	3,000,000
(a) \$5,000 additional to each State having fewer than 100,000 persons so engaged.....	125,000
4. Branch station fund (allotted in proportion to the number of persons engaged in agricultural pursuits).....	1,000,000
(a) \$2,000 additional to each State having fewer than 100,000 persons so engaged.....	50,000
5. Extension-work fund:	
(a) \$10,000 for each State.....	480,000
(b) Additional appropriations, increasing annually, annual appropriation after June 30, 1921 (allotted in proportion to the number of persons engaged in agricultural pursuits).....	2,500,000
6. College teachers' training fund:	
(a) \$20,000 to each of 16 States maintaining separate land-grant colleges for colored persons.....	\$20,000
(b) \$10,000 to each of the other States.....	320,000
7. Normal teachers' training fund (allotted in proportion to the total population of the States).....	1,000,000
(a) \$3,000 additional for each State having a population of less than 300,000.....	27,000
Total.....	14,822,000

In all the bills for Federal aid to vocational education prior to 1914 the plan was to have the Federal Government make initial grants to the States and hold the States responsible for the proper expenditure

³⁴ 61st Cong., S. 8809. Each State and Territory was to have annually for this service \$10,000. Additional amounts, beginning with \$200,000 and increasing annually by \$200,000 until they reached \$1,000,000, which was to continue annually, were to be allotted to the States and Territories in proportion to their population engaged in agriculture.

³⁵ 62d Cong., H.R. 23581. Apr. 20, 1912, introduced in the House of Representatives by Representative William B. Wilson, of Pennsylvania. On June 14 it was substituted on the Senate Calendar for the Page bill which had been reported from committee.

of the grants. The method of disciplining the States for improper expenditures was to refuse a part or all of the succeeding annual grant. This scheme was criticized by the National Society's committee on national legislation in 1911. The committee favored a plan whereby Federal grants would "be employed to reimburse States and other agencies for expenditures incurred in the support of approved vocational education of the types contemplated."²⁶ This plan, it was thought, would provide the proper encouragement for vocational education and at the same time guarantee wise expenditure of Federal funds since it would give the proper authorities "powerful control."²⁷ The plan was in operation in Massachusetts in the application of State funds to vocational education in the various communities.

When the Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education began to consider this matter it decided on six principles to be followed as follows:

- (a) Appropriations for agricultural and trade and industrial schools should be the same, since the two subjects are interdependent and since the welfare of the country rests upon the advancement of both equally.
- (b) Grants to States should be sufficiently large to stimulate them to establish schools, but should not relieve them of their interest in, nor their responsibility for, the right development and conduct of their own schools.
- (c) Appropriations should begin with small amounts, increasing from year to year as the work develops and as the States can use the money effectively, until a reasonable maximum is reached.
- (d) Since the need for trained teachers will be immediate and fundamental to the efficient development of vocational schools, the appropriations for training teachers should begin with a comparatively large amount and increase comparatively more rapidly each year until the maximum amount is reached.
- (e) Appropriations for any kind of vocational education should be given to the States on some basis of allotment which recognizes, among the States, the differences and inequalities in the task of providing opportunity for this training; should be in the form of reimbursement for approved work accomplished in vocational education and should be distributed to the States only in part payment of, and in proportion to, the amount expended out of State funds for the same purpose.
- (f) Grants allotted to the smaller States, which otherwise would be so small as not to stimulate their interest and cooperation, should be increased by a special appropriation, if necessary, to a reasonable minimum which will successfully encourage them to promote the work.²⁸

Some of these principles had been included in earlier bills, others were new. Heretofore the proposed appropriations for agricultural education had been somewhat larger than for education in trades

²⁶ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Report of the Special Committee Appointed to Consider Senate Bill Number Three, pp. 3, 9.

²⁷ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Bulletin No. 13, p. 133.

²⁸ 63d Cong., H.Doc. No. 1004, vol. I, p. 62.

and industries. At no time were these appropriations large enough to provide for the schools without much support from the States. The idea of beginning with small appropriations, increasing from year to year to a certain maximum, had been included in the Burkett-Pollard bill, the agricultural extension provisions of the Dolliver and the Page bills, and the Smith-Lever bill, but not in the proposals for vocational education. It was advocated by the executive committee of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education as early as 1911. The first Davis bill to include the training of vocational teachers (1908) provided that the appropriations for this purpose would become available before the appropriations for secondary vocational education.³⁹ The allotment of minimum amounts large enough to stimulate the interest of the small States had also been adopted as early as 1908 in the Davis bill.

One particularly important feature included in these principles is the reimbursement of the States for expenditures already made and approved. The Federal appropriations for the land-grant colleges and agricultural experiment stations were payable in advance and the earlier bills for vocational education contained the same provision. Under this plan the Federal Government ascertained whether the States spent their allotments of Federal funds according to law and in case a portion of these allotments was lost, diminished, or misapplied, no subsequent appropriation could be apportioned or paid to the State until it replaced the portion illegally used. As early as 1911 the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education suggested that Federal grants should be made as reimbursements for expenditures rather than as initial grants.⁴⁰ Obviously such a plan of administration gives a strong grip on the expenditure of Federal funds.

The commission, acting on these principles, recommended three funds for the direct appropriations to the States, one for agricultural education, one for education in trades and industries, and one for training vocational teachers.⁴¹ The action of Congress resulted in the adoption of these recommendations with some slight modifications in details. The Federal appropriations for secondary vocational education under the Smith-Hughes Act can be used only to pay salaries.

One question which was not discussed was the length of time the appropriations should continue. On this point Congress followed the practice then in vogue and made the grants in perpetuity, that is,

³⁹ 60th Cong. H.R. 18204.

⁴⁰ *Supra*, pp. 73-74.

⁴¹ 63d Cong. H.Doc. No. 1004, vol. 1, pp. 83-84. For the appropriations under the Smith-Hughes Act see Appendix IX.

they continue year after year until they are revoked in a legal manner. Senator Thomas P. Gore, of Oklahoma, suggested that the Federal appropriations for agricultural extension might be made for a long enough time to set the States on the way of providing agricultural extension and that after this had been accomplished the Government might withdraw its appropriations and let the States carry on the work themselves.⁴³ His suggestion apparently received no consideration.

The question whether the Federal Government should merely stimulate vocational education, or whether it should go further and give liberal support, was not prominently debated. It seems clear, however, that in the discussions the emphasis was on Federal stimulation and direction rather than Federal aid.

4. Matching Federal Funds

In the early bills to aid vocational education the statement was specific that the Federal money for schools could be expended only for instruction in agriculture, mechanic arts, and home economics, and that the cost of providing the necessary lands and buildings and instruction in all general studies required to make a well-balanced course of study must be provided by the States and schools accepting the grants.⁴³ Regarding the branch experiment stations it was specified that no State or Territory could participate in the appropriation until it had by law provided for the establishment of the stations and provided annually for their support a sum at least equivalent to the Federal appropriation to which it was entitled. The latter requirement added a new principle which soon became important in the development of the movement.

Shortly after the introduction of the first Davis bill the principle of matching Federal funds with State funds was advocated by the committee on extension work of the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations in a report which favored Federal appropriations for agricultural extension work.⁴⁴ The committee desired an annual appropriation of \$10,000 for each State and an additional annual appropriation to be prorated on some per capita standard, the latter amount to be granted on condition that the States themselves appropriate an equal amount. The report, made in 1908, was

⁴³ Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, Hearing, Mar. 1 and 2, 1912, p. 12.

⁴³ 59th Cong., H.R. 24757. In the Burkett-Pollard and the McCreary bills the Federal money could likewise be used only for instruction in specified subjects. This policy was in keeping with the provisions of the Morrill Act of 1890.

⁴⁴ Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, Proceedings, 1908, p. 40.

not adopted by the association, but a year later the committee reiterated its position and its general stand was accepted.⁴⁴ The principle of matching as recommended was included in the McLaughlin bill introduced in Congress soon thereafter.⁴⁵

Soon (1911) Congress passed the Weeks Act and the State Marine School Act, both of which required the matching of Federal appropriations as a condition to participating in the Federal appropriations.⁴⁷ These acts furnished ample precedent for the new principle included in the McLaughlin bill. The matching of Federal appropriations by other funds persisted in the agricultural extension bill throughout the years of its discussion and it was included in the Smith-Lever Act.

When the executive committee of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education considered the Dolliver bill in February 1911, it endorsed the matching of Federal contributions with State contributions.⁴⁸ In the bill which the society approved at its annual convention in the same year it was provided that each political division should receive as reimbursement for the expenditures on its approved schools for any fiscal year "a sum equal to one-half the amount expended for the maintenance of such schools for such a fiscal year out of funds derived from general and local taxation", this sum not, however, to exceed its allotment.⁴⁹

The principle of matching was not, however, applied to the proposed provision for vocational education until the Page bill was reported from committee to the Senate in February 1912.⁵⁰ The bill provided that after a certain date no more Federal money was to be allotted to any State for any purpose of the act than the State supplied therefor. The committee explained that this provision was in keeping with the leading thought of the bill, which was to stimulate and encourage vocational education.⁵¹ This additional requirement compelled the States to bear the greater share of the burden.

The Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education retained the principle of State matching of all Federal appropriations with State funds and the idea was consequently included in the Smith-

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, 1909, pp. 37, 79. This acceptance did not, however, include specifically the details of the proposed plan.

⁴⁵ 61st Cong., H.R. 15422.

⁴⁶ *Supra*, pp. 69-71.

⁴⁷ *Supra*, pp. 66-67.

⁴⁸ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Report of the Special Committee Appointed to Consider Senate Bill No. 3, pp. 8-9.

⁴⁹ 62d Cong., S.Rept. No. 403.

⁵⁰ The Page bill as agreed to in Committee of the Whole in the Senate provided that the Federal appropriation for a State should not exceed 50 percent of the money supplied and expended from State and local or State or local money.

Hughes Act. The Smith-Hughes Act was the fifth important Federal act to embody the principle, the first two being the Weeks Act and the State Marine School Act, the third being the Smith-Lever Act, and the fourth being the Road Act approved on July 11, 1916.⁶¹

In the discussions in Congress of the principle of matching Federal appropriations as it pertained to vocational education there was but little direct objection raised. When the agricultural extension bill was under consideration in the House of Representatives Finis J. Garrett, of Tennessee, expressed doubt as to the principle.⁶² During the House debate on the Smith-Hughes bill he again opposed the principle as inimical to sound government.⁶³ It would, he believed, create local jealousies and contests which would destroy the value of the bill and result in the Federal Government's taking over the whole matter. If the support of vocational education was a proper Federal function, he held that the Government should carry it on independently. The arrangement indirectly coerced the States, he said, and thus destroyed State autonomy. Accordingly he offered an amendment to strike out the whole section of the bill which dealt with the plan.⁶⁴ His amendment was rejected. That the matching of Federal appropriations with State funds was popular in Congress seems evident from the fact that it called forth so little objection and that practically no direct reply was made to Mr. Garrett. The only direct defense was by Representative S. D. Fess, who said it did away with a "pork barrel" idea of the appropriations.⁶⁵

The adoption of the new principle by the States is likely to result in sufficient control by the Federal Government to assure that the Federal funds will be used for the purpose intended. Under the plan adopted the authority of the Government is extended over the State and local funds which are used to offset the Federal appropriations in the cooperative scheme.⁶⁷ The plan represents an important step in the evolution of the Federal grant-in-aid.⁶⁸

5. Federal Administration of the Act

In a scheme of Federal aid to the States for education the Federal administration is of considerable importance, especially if the act is intended to accomplish certain definite and specific purposes. The

⁶¹ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 39, I, p. 353.

⁶² Cong. Rec., 48: 11611.

⁶³ Ibid., 54: 753.

⁶⁴ Ibid., p. 771.

⁶⁵ Ibid., Appendix, p. 83.

⁶⁷ Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, Proceedings, 1914, p. 115.

⁶⁸ For a criticism of the principle see University of Illinois, Bulletin, vol. XIX, no. 23, pp. 20 and 36.

provision for this matter passed through various forms in the evolution of the movement. The administrative scheme of the Burkett-Pollard bill followed the provision made by the Morrill Act of 1891 with only slight variations.⁵⁹ Under it the Secretary of the Interior was annually to ascertain and certify to the Secretary of the Treasury as to each State whether it was entitled to receive its share of the annual appropriation for State normal schools and the amount to which each was entitled.⁶⁰ Certification could be withheld from a State or Territory for proper reasons, in which case the State or Territory had the right of appeal to Congress. Upon proper certification the Secretary of the Treasury was to pay the money to the State treasurer who would place it in the hands of the proper institutions. Annual reports were to be made to the Secretary of the Interior and the Secretary of Agriculture by the officers of the institutions aided. Finally, the Secretary of the Interior was to make an annual report to Congress on the appropriations.

In the first Davis bill the Secretary of Agriculture was charged with the administration of the appropriations.⁶¹ The institutions were required to report to him and to the Secretary of the Treasury. Upon certification by the Secretary of Agriculture the Secretary of the Treasury was to pay to the governing boards of the schools and branch stations their proper amounts.

The location of the administration under the Secretary of Agriculture drew vigorous opposition from the Commissioner of Education.⁶² To meet his objection and to win his support the bill was redrafted to include the cooperation of the Secretary of the Interior, who was to give advice to the city schools regarding industrial education and to the State normal schools regarding the training of vocational teachers.⁶³ However, the general administration was left under the Secretary of Agriculture. To meet the Commissioner's continued objection the bill was again revised to place the administration under the Secretary of the Interior in cooperation with the Secretary of Agriculture and the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, the Secretary of the Interior to have general charge of the work.⁶⁴ The Secretary of Commerce and Labor was to interest himself in industrial education and the Secretary of Agriculture in agricultural and home economics

⁵⁹ 59th Cong., S. 4642 and H.R. 15346.

⁶⁰ In the McCrary bill this function devolved in the Secretary of Agriculture. (60th Cong., S. 2864.)

⁶¹ 59th Cong., H.R. 24737.

⁶² *Supra*, pp. 58-59.

⁶³ 60th Cong., H.R. 24841.

⁶⁴ 60th Cong., H.R. 26737.

instruction. With slight modifications this scheme persisted through the Dolliver and the Page bills.

The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education did not regard the arrangement provided by the bills an economical and efficient one. Its special committee on national legislation in 1911 said it believed "that primary responsibility on the part of the National Government for approving plans and policies in the types of vocational education contemplated should rest in a single authority", and suggested that the single authority might well be the Bureau of Education.⁶⁵ Such an authority could be held responsible for the proper expenditure of the appropriations, which would make for an effective system. Undoubtedly the idea in the minds of the promoters of the plan of cooperative administration, aside from that of winning support for the bill, was to bring the resources of several departments to the establishment of a national system of vocational education.

The Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education attempted to combine the idea of a single administrative authority with the advantages of the earlier cooperative plan by recommending that the administrative authority be a Federal Board for Vocational Education consisting of the Secretaries of the Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor, and the Postmaster General.⁶⁶ The Commissioner of Education was to be an executive officer of the board. The idea was given the following justification:

These departments were chosen because of the intimate relation which they hold to various phases of vocational education in the country. The Department of Agriculture is directly concerned with agricultural and home economics education; the Department of Commerce is directly concerned with the problems of commercial education; the Department of Labor with the problems of trade and industrial education; the Department of the Interior, through the Bureau of Education, with the problem of vocational schools; and the Postmaster General represents a disinterested department which is broadly concerned with the affairs of the entire country.

The commission feels that there are good reasons which make advisable, at this time at least, the use of an ex officio board rather than the creation of a new commission for the purpose. The heads of these departments were chosen to give the large prestige to the work which its importance justifies. A lay board of administrators seems to be desirable, with a professional educator in the person of the Commissioner of Education as its executive officer.

The recommendation of the commission did not prove satisfactory to some of those who promoted the measure. In January 1916 the

⁶⁵ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Report of the Special Committee Appointed to Consider Senate Bill Number Three, p. 2; Bulletin No. 15, pp. 131-132.

⁶⁶ 63d Cong., H.Doc. No. 1004, vol. I, pp. 71, 84-85. For other proposed plans see Cong. Rec., 54: 721 and Appendix, p. 83.

National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education called for a representative board and this idea was soon endorsed by other interested organizations.⁶⁷ In the Senate the recommendation of the commission seems not have been questioned as it was not mentioned in debate and it was included in the bill passed by that body in August 1916.⁶⁸ The House Committee on Education, however, decided to change the arrangement, and the chairman of the committee introduced a redraft of the bill,⁶⁹ which provided for a Federal board consisting of the Commissioner of Education as chairman, and four associate members, no more than two of whom might be of any one political party, to be appointed by the President by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.⁶⁹ A salary of \$5,000 was provided for each associate member. This plan was similar to that already adopted in the Federal Reserve Bank Act.⁷⁰

When the bill was considered in the House of Representatives this particular provision furnished the occasion for much debate. Representative S. D. Fess hoped for a board as provided in the House bill because the work, he said, was too important for an ex-officio board.⁷¹ Representative Irvine L. Lenroot, of Wisconsin, objected to the plans of both the Senate and the House bills for constituting the Federal Board for Vocational Education.⁷² He feared that under the House bill the fixing of standards and the control of vocational education would be in the hands of the general educators rather than practical men, an arrangement which he strongly opposed. He served notice that at the proper time he would submit as an amendment to the House bill a plan urged by the United States Chamber of Commerce and other organizations for a representative board. This plan, Mr. Fess feared, would restrict the President in his appointments and result in a dual control of education in which there would be one board for vocational education and another for general education.⁷³ He explained that the plan recommended by the committee was a

⁶⁷ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, News Letter No. 9, p. 7.

⁶⁸ 64th Cong., S. 703, print of Aug. 23, 1916. A change in membership of the board had been suggested to the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, but the committee did not pass on the question, though the members were disposed to favor an amendment to create a board composed of men who could give their entire time to the work. (64th Cong., S.Rept. No. 97.)

⁶⁹ 64th Cong., H.R. 11230.

⁷⁰ U.S. Stat.L., vol. 38, I, p. 320. The Federal Reserve Board consisted of the Secretary of the Treasury, the Comptroller of the Currency, and five members appointed by the President. Not more than two appointive members might be from any one Federal Reserve district and the President in appointing the members was to "have due regard to a fair representation of the different commercial, industrial, and geographical divisions of the country."

⁷¹ Cong. Rec., 54: 173.

⁷² Ibid., p. 176.

⁷³ Ibid.

compromise and that the committee was not insistent on any particular plan. The amendment proposed by Mr. Lenroot was later offered by Representative Caleb Powers, of Kentucky, a member of the House Committee on Education, and it was agreed to by a vote of 45 to 8.⁷⁴ It provided that the 4 appointive members of the board were to be representative, 1 of manufacturing, 1 of the commercial interest, 1 of labor, and 1 of agriculture, and that annually the board should elect 1 of its members chairman. The Commissioner of Education was retained as a member *ex officio*.

An amendment was proposed by Representative John W. Abercrombie, of Alabama, as a substitute for the section creating the Federal Board for Vocational Education.⁷⁵ This was to establish a department of education in charge of a secretary of education, who would be a Cabinet officer under the same provisions as the other members of the Cabinet with regard to appointment, salary, tenure, etc. The amendment authorized the appointment of an assistant secretary and clerical assistants. The administration of the Vocational Education Act was to be in the new department. Representative James R. Mann, of Illinois, made a point of order that the amendment was not germane to the bill because it created an executive department of the Government. To the point of order Mr. Abercrombie replied that the amendment was germane as it proposed no new power, duty, etc., which had not been stated, and that its purpose was the same as that of the section which it was to replace. The Chair sustained the point of order against the amendment, and consequently the amendment received no further consideration.⁷⁶

Representative William P. Borland, of Missouri, doubted the advisability of a Federal Board for Vocational Education to administer the act and he therefore offered an amendment to strike out the section on the board and insert the following: "The administration of this act shall be under the control of the Commissioner of Education."⁷⁷ He wanted as little as possible spent on the machinery of administration. The Road Act, he said, carried no provision for such a board, it left the administration to the Department of Agriculture. If a board were created, he believed there would in the future be demands to increase the appropriations for its expenses. The bill would be materially strengthened by dispensing with the board, since one executive, he thought, could carry out the law much more effectively than a board

⁷⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 777.

⁷⁵ *Ibid.*

⁷⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 782.

⁷⁷ *Ibid.*

such as was proposed. His amendment was rejected by a vote of 10 to 39.

As the bill went to conference the Senate favored an ex officio board of Cabinet members and the House favored a board consisting of the Commissioner of Education and four appointive members, representative of four important activities and interests. It had previously been learned that the President was opposed to an independent board and that he desired the administration of the act to be linked up with the executive department of the Government.⁷⁸ With this position of the President in mind an effort was made in conference to devise a plan to meet his approval. It resulted in a combination of the two bills on this point so that the board was made to consist of three Cabinet members, the Commissioner of Education, and three citizens representative of the three important interests involved in the bill, appointed by the President with the advice and consent of the Senate.

In addition to placing on the Federal Board for Vocational Education the duty of administering the appropriations the Smith-Hughes Act included a unique feature which imposed on the board the duty of making "studies, investigations, and reports, with particular reference to their use in aiding the States in the establishment of vocational schools and classes and in giving instruction in agriculture, trades and industries, commerce and commercial pursuits, and home economics." The nature of these studies and reports was rather clearly defined.

Advisory committees.—A proposed appendage to the Federal board which was strongly urged was the advisory committee. The Federal Reserve Bank Act provided for a somewhat similar group in the Federal Advisory Council.⁷⁹ Such committees were in vogue in certain States where vocational education was carried on and several strong organizations endorsed the idea.⁸⁰ An amendment to the bill was adopted in the Senate which authorized the Federal Board for Vocational Education to select an advisory board of seven men representative of various interests.⁸¹

When the bill was considered by the House of Representatives Irvine L. Lenroot, of Wisconsin, offered an amendment giving the board the right to appoint advisory committees from time to time.⁸² He stated that he was interested in "practical vocational education"

⁷⁸ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Minutes of the Executive Committee, Jan. 13, 1917.

⁷⁹ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 38, I, p. 263. The council consisted of 1 member from each Federal Reserve district. Its duty was to confer with the Federal Reserve Board and advise the board on its work.

⁸⁰ *Supra*, pp. 30-31; 102-104.

⁸¹ 64th Cong., S. 703, prints of July 19 and Aug. 25, 1916.

⁸² *Cong. Rec.*, 54: 771. For the discussion see pp. 777-780.

the "practical standard" of which should be adopted by "practical men." Representative Joseph G. Cannon, of Illinois, opposed the amendment. He suggested that the State boards ought to know what the States wanted. The Federal appropriation, he said, was intended to encourage the States, not to take possession of them. He wanted some of the money to go to the education of the children. Representative Edward E. Browne, of Wisconsin, favored the amendment and he based his judgment on the operation of the Wisconsin law for vocational education which was then more practically administered with advisory committees, he said, than at an earlier time when the educators on the board carried on the work. As evidence of the validity of his judgment he cited the experience of Germany, especially that of Munich, the latter place having, he said, an advisory board. Representative Horace M. Towner, of Iowa, opposed what he called "making a holiday excursion for men from California and Colorado and all over the United States" to come to Washington to advise the general board how to perform its duties. There was, he thought, ample provision in the bill to insure a practical type of education. The amendment was rejected by a vote of 27 to 45. The Senate bill as it went to conference contained a provision for an advisory committee while the House bill did not. In conference the provision was omitted.

Cooperation with other departments.—Mention has been made of the fact that a cooperative arrangement for administering the Federal appropriations had been worked out in the earlier bills whereby the Departments of the Interior, Agriculture, and Commerce and Labor, were to assume this responsibility. The Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education tried to preserve this cooperative idea by recommending a Federal board consisting of cabinet members as the administrative agency. It also recommended that studies and investigations in vocational education so far as practicable be made in cooperation with various Federal departments.⁸³ In the act the latter provision was authorized rather than made mandatory.

6. State Administration and the Cooperative Relation

In the earliest bills on secondary vocational education the intention was to set up a contractual relationship between the States and the Federal Government which was like that under the land-grant college legislation. The State machinery for administering the Federal aid was not prescribed in the first Davis bill except in the general statement

⁸³ 63d Cong. H. Doc. No. 1004, vol. 1, p. 84.

that the Secretary of the Treasury was to pay the Federal funds to the "treasurer or other officer duly appointed by the governing boards" of the stations and schools, and the institutions were required to report directly to the Federal Government. More definite regulations along this line were contained in the Davis bill of January 4, 1909, which limited the number of State boards or departments to three at the most, one for each of the following: (1) Secondary agricultural schools and branch stations, (2) State normal schools, (3) secondary schools for cities and villages.⁸⁴ This was an attempt to simplify the business of the Federal Government with the States and to recognize the fact that the States themselves, rather than the Federal Government, should deal directly with the institutions. In cases where each school had its own board which was only nominally under State control many complications might easily arise if the Federal Government attempted to deal with them directly and it might easily be the means of undermining the State system of education and creating a Federal system. To compel the States to concentrate their educational control would make State control stronger and lessen the danger of conflict between State and Federal authority. It would also make for efficiency in State administration as well as on the Federal side of the work.

Very soon after the revision of the Davis bill to include a limitation on the number of State boards dealing with the Federal Government the bill was again redrafted.⁸⁵ Under it the Federal Government was "to cooperate with the States" in providing vocational education. Although this phrase at the time occasioned no changes in the bill its use was significant as expressing an important new idea. The term was used in all the subsequent bills for vocational education and it became a part of the Smith-Hughes Act. The executive committee of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education in February 1911, had asked that the Dolliver bill be modified so as clearly to provide for cooperation between the Federal Government and the States and it stated several general principles on which such cooperation should be based.⁸⁶

Regarding the State administration of the proposed law the National Society in 1911 went on record in favor of a single agency in each State and Territory, as far as practicable, charged with the responsibility of carrying out the law.⁸⁷ Not until the bill was remade under the

⁸⁴ 60th Cong. H.R. 24841.

⁸⁵ 60th Cong. H.R. 26737.

⁸⁶ *Supra*, pp. 66-67. The term cooperation was freely used in the Senate committee's report on the Dolliver bill. (61st Cong. S. Rept. No. 902.)

⁸⁷ National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Report of the Special Committee Appointed to Consider Senate Bill No. 3, p. 2.

influence of the Society's representatives in April 1912, was the idea of cooperation made an essential feature of the administrative scheme.⁸⁸ Under this revised bill a State to participate in the funds for vocational education and the training of vocational teachers was required to create a board of control known as the board for vocational education consisting of not fewer than three members and having all the necessary authority to cooperate with the Secretary of the Interior in the administration of the funds for this work. This board, with the approval of the Secretary of the Interior, was to adopt and place in operation a general scheme of administration for carrying out the provisions pertaining to those funds. It was also to make annual reports to the Secretary of the Interior. The bill was intended to set up minimum requirements, but otherwise it gave a State great freedom in working out its vocational education problem.

The plan included in the bill in 1912 was appropriated almost identically by the Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education.⁸⁹ The bill recommended by the commission definitely provided that the State boards should prepare plans for vocational education in the States and submit these plans to the Federal board, which was to approve them if they were found to be in accord with the purposes of the act. It was thus clearly stated that the initiative rested entirely with the States.

The State administration feature of the bill caused no little discussion in the House of Representatives. Representative S. D. Fess strongly urged provision for a State board.⁹⁰ He was of the opinion that a State which did not organize such a board ought not to have any of the Federal money. The work, he said, was too important to place it in the hands of an individual. In due time Representative John W. Abercrombie, of Alabama, offered an amendment requiring the State legislature either to designate the State department of education or to designate or create a State board such as the bill provided, to administer the law.⁹¹ He said that some States, including his own, could not under their constitutions create a board such as that contemplated. Representative William P. Borland, of Missouri, suggested that there was a tendency to create more boards than were needed. The amendment was accepted,⁹² but it was omitted in conference.

⁸⁸ 63d Cong., H.R. 23581; S. 3. Committee print, Apr. 30, 1912.

⁸⁹ 63d Cong., H.Doc. No. 1004, vol. I, p. 84.

⁹⁰ Cong. Rec., 34: 173.

⁹¹ Ibid., p. 769.

⁹² Ibid., p. 770.

The Smith-Hughes Act requires of each State as a condition to participating in the appropriations that it "designate or create a State board, consisting of not fewer than three members", with all the necessary authority to cooperate with the Federal Board for Vocational Education in the administration of the act. For this purpose the State may designate "the State board of education or other board having charge of the administration of public education in the State, or any State board having charge of the administration of any kind of vocational education in the State."

Of all the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act those pertaining to the relation between the Federal Government and the States are among the most important. Such a relation is difficult to establish so that it will work ideally, because of the great diversity of traditions among the several States regarding education and the great differences in the desire for education. In enacting the vocational education law Congress went much further than ever before in setting up clear definitions and educational standards for States to follow in order to participate in the Federal appropriations. Obviously more or less detailed prescription was necessary if a specific thing was to be accomplished, particularly in view of the fact that vocational education and its relationships were by no means clearly understood by many educators as well as many citizens. At the same time Congress made ample administrative provision to guarantee that the intention of the legislation would be carried out. The Federal Board for Vocational Education was given sufficient authority to hold the expenditure of the Federal appropriations and the offset funds to the purposes contemplated.

7. Conclusion

The facts presented clearly show that the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education had a double part in the movement to obtain Federal cooperation in vocational education. The Society, organized to promote industrial education in various ways, was slow to include in its program Federal aid for vocational education. In fact, for several years it was opposed to the efforts to secure Federal legislation on the subject. However, by 1911 a more active interest in Federal legislation became manifest among leaders in the Society, in part, perhaps, because it appeared as if some form of Federal legislation would be enacted. They consequently served notice that if the Dolliver bill, then before Congress, was to have their support it must be considerably modified in accord-

ance with certain announced principles. Within a year the Society accepted those principles and in the spring of 1912 strong action was taken looking to their embodiment in the bills in Congress. So well was the activity of the Society managed that practically all its principles were written into the bill and, due to the campaign conducted by the organization, the bill became a law. It is very doubtful whether a Federal law on vocational education in secondary schools would have been enacted as early as 1917 if the Society had not taken a leading part in promoting the legislation.

One feature of the movement which resulted in the Federal legislation should have some emphasis. The enactment of the Smith-Hughes law cannot be said to represent a reaching out for authority on the part of the Federal Government. On the contrary, it represented an effort by groups of citizens with definite ideas regarding vocational education, to promote the embodiment of those ideas in educational practice. Congress responded to this appeal by setting up a program of Federal participation with the States in the promotion of vocational education.

PART III: FURTHER FEDERAL LEGISLATION

Chapter I

Further Cooperation in Agricultural Extension Work

1. Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work

A clause in the Smith-Lever Act provided that, pending the inauguration and development of the cooperative extension work, nothing in the act should be construed to discontinue either the farmers' cooperative demonstration work or the farm management work conducted by the Department of Agriculture. Both of these services were accordingly placed in the States Relations Service, which was organized as a committee in 1914 and authorized as a bureau in 1915. They are features of the extension system at present. The appropriations appear in the annual appropriations for the Department of Agriculture for farmers' cooperative demonstration work. (See Appendix VIII.)

2. The Supplementary Smith-Lever Fund

Scarcely had the agricultural extension system been initiated and put under way when the United States entered the World War. It was early realized that the production and conservation of food was an important problem in which the Federal Government must undertake important direction. Among the measures designed to cope with the situation was the Food Production Act, the purpose of which was to stimulate agriculture and the distribution of agricultural products.¹ One of the appropriations which the act carried for the year ending June 30, 1918, was for \$4,348,400 to be used in the further development of the agricultural extension service. This emergency appropriation was used greatly to stimulate the development of the extension service, and within 4 months more than 1,600 emergency demonstration agents, men and women, were appointed.² A similar appropriation was made for the following year.³

After the war ended (November 1918) there was a cessation of the vigorous measures for food production, but the demands for food and the high prices caused the farmers to continue their efforts for more

¹ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 40, I, p. 274.

² True, Alfred Charles. *A History of Agricultural Extension Work in the United States*, p. 140.

³ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 40, I, p. 1046.

products. The need was presented to Congress of continuing a special appropriation for the extension service and that body included in the appropriations for the year ending June 30, 1920, an amount of \$1,500,000 to be allotted to the States under the terms of the Smith-Lever Act.⁴ This appropriation became known as the "supplementary Smith-Lever fund." Congress has made it for every year since 1920, but the amount has varied. (See Appendix VIII.)

3. Cooperation in Forestry Extension Work

A further development of the agricultural extension system has occurred through the addition of forestry extension. In 1921 there was a movement to establish a national forestry policy and bills were introduced in both branches of Congress to accomplish this purpose.⁵ A special Senate committee was appointed in 1923 to consider the question, and after a study of the situation it submitted a report and a bill.⁶ This bill with several amendments became a law in 1924. (See Appendix II).

The promoters of the measure thought the time had come for an "educational drive" to encourage forest culture. They therefore included, as an important feature of the policy established by the act, the encouragement of timber growing by farmers and other owners of suitable land. For this purpose annual appropriations of not more than \$100,000 were authorized to enable the Secretary of Agriculture to cooperate with appropriate officials of the various States, or with other suitable agencies, for the purpose of assisting owners of farms in establishing, improving, and renewing wood lots and other valuable forest growth.

This work in forestry extension was begun through an appropriation of \$50,000 made for the fiscal year of 1926. The appropriation is allotted to the States and the Territories of Hawaii and Puerto Rico by the Secretary of Agriculture at his discretion, except that it must be matched by the State or other cooperating agency. Between \$1,200 and \$2,000 is allotted to the extension service of each State and territory which cooperates in the employment of an extension forester.⁷

⁴ *Ibid.*, vol. 41, p. 261.

⁵ 67th Cong., S. 1860, introduced by Senator Medill McCormick, of Illinois; H. R. 129, introduced by Representative Bertrand H. Snell, of New York; H.R. 14225, introduced by Representative John D. Clarke of New York.

⁶ 68th Cong., S.Rept. 28; S. 1187, introduced by Senator Charles McNary, of Oregon; H.R. 4830 introduced by Representative John D. Clarke, of New York.

⁷ Smith, C. B., and Wilson, M. C. *The Agricultural Extension System of the United States*, p. 163.

4. The Capper-Ketcham Act

The Smith-Lever appropriations reached their maturity in 1923. For various reasons, however, the completion of the extension system proved impossible with the available funds. In 1927 it was reported that 700 rural counties had no county agents and that, assuming every rural county should have both an agricultural agent and a home demonstration agent and the most populous counties club agents, the system was less than half completed.⁸ There was a particular demand for home demonstration and club agents.⁹ It was stated that the higher price levels brought on by the war had made the completion of the system impossible with the funds appropriated. Those who were interested in promoting the service pointed out that the distribution of the funds largely on the basis of the rural population gave too little to the sparsely settled Western States and to the Eastern States which had many small farms in areas which, according to the census classification, were considered urban.¹⁰

In 1927 an appeal was made to Congress for more appropriations for the agricultural extension service, through bills introduced by Senator Arthur Capper, of Kansas, and Representative John Ketcham, of Michigan.¹¹ The original intent of these bills was primarily to obtain more funds for boys' and girls' club work. Among the most active promoting agencies was the national committee on boys' and girls' club work, which carried on an extensive campaign for the proposed legislation.¹² Another organization which actively promoted the measures was the American Farm Bureau. Both the General Federation of Women's Clubs and the American Home Economics Association were interested in this matter. They insisted on phrasing the bills in such a way as definitely to provide more funds for extension work for the rural home.¹³ One of these bills was passed by the House of Representatives, but, owing to the lack of time for consideration, it was not acted upon by the Senate.¹⁴

A bill for this purpose was introduced in the next Congress by the same men.¹⁵ Again the General Federation of Women's Clubs made a determined effort to have the bill include a statement giving assur-

⁸ 69th Cong., S.Rept. 1512, p. 2.

⁹ 69th Cong., H.Rept. 2264, p. 3. The General Federation of Women's Clubs urged funds for home demonstration agents.

¹⁰ Cong. Rec., 69: 2577.

¹¹ 69th Cong., S. 5263, H.R. 16295, and H.R. 17334.

¹² Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, Hearing on S. 5263, Feb. 16, 1927, pp. 16-35.

¹³ *Ibid.*, pp. 40-44; House Committee on Agriculture, Hearings on H.R. 16295, Feb. 24, 1927, pp. 24-29.

¹⁴ Cong. Rec., 68: 5150-5151, 5195-5196.

¹⁵ 70th Cong., S. 1285 and H.R. 9495. Other bills for the same purpose were H.R. 6074 and H.R. 10297. They were not acted upon.

ance that the policy of the extension work would be changed.¹⁶ The president general of the federation insisted that there was much discrimination in favor of agriculture to the neglect of home demonstration work. She said:

The inevitable result is a wholly inadequate service to the home maker and a tendency under men agents to divert girls from home making to the raising of baby beef, pigs, and field crops for purely commercial ends. This tendency is greatly emphasized by the policy of the national committee on boys' and girls' clubs, which seems to have the approval of the Federal Extension Service.¹⁷

Outspoken opposition to the position of the General Federation of Women's Clubs was voiced by Senator Thomas F. Bayard, of Delaware, who insisted that this move was an effort on the part of the organization to secure control of the home-demonstration movement so that it might be used to exploit the products of the public utilities companies.¹⁸ Congress acted favorably on the plea of the federation. The bill passed both branches of Congress without opposition and with very little debate.¹⁹ It became a law with the approval of the President on May 22, 1928. (See Appendix III.)

The Capper-Ketcham Act provided for the further development of agricultural extension work between the land-grant colleges and the Department of Agriculture. It authorized annual appropriations of \$980,000, \$20,000 of which was to be paid to each State and the Territory of Hawaii, whose proper authorities gave assent to the provisions of the act. This was an effort to apportion the funds in such a way as to overcome some of the injustice of the apportionment on the basis of the rural population. The appropriation became available for the year ending June 30, 1929. For each year thereafter the act authorized an additional appropriation of \$500,000 to be apportioned to the States and the Territory of Hawaii in proportion to their rural population. At least 80 percent of all the funds had to be spent for the payment of the salaries of extension agents in the counties. In order to promote home-demonstration work the act required that the funds be so expended that the agents would be men and women "in fair and just proportions."²⁰

¹⁶ House Committee on Agriculture, Hearings on H.R. 6074, Jan. 10, 11, and 16, 1928, pp. 22-32.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 23.

¹⁸ Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, Hearings on S. 1285 and H.R. 9495, Mar. 28 and 29, 1928, pp. 2-6, 9-25.

¹⁹ *Cong. Rec.*, 69: 4296, 6508.

²⁰ None of the Smith-Lever or supplementary Smith-Lever funds might be used for promoting agricultural trains. This restriction did not apply to the Capper-Ketcham funds.

5. An Additional Appropriation for Extension Work

One of the important developments in the policy of the Federal Government regarding agriculture was an act, passed in 1929, "to establish a Federal Farm Board to promote the effective merchandising of agricultural commodities in interstate and foreign commerce, and to place agriculture on a basis of economic equality with other industries."²¹ The act authorized and directed the board, along with its other duties, "to promote education in the principles and practices of cooperative marketing of agricultural commodities and food products thereof."

Instead of establishing an educational agency the Federal Farm Board endorsed an appropriation of \$1,000,000, provided in the second deficiency appropriation bill for the fiscal year 1930, for additional cooperative agricultural extension work, including the employment of specialists in economics and marketing.²² This appropriation was made by Congress.²³ It was available for the fiscal year 1931. The Secretary of Agriculture was authorized to allot the appropriation to the several States and the Territory of Hawaii in such amounts as he might deem necessary to accomplish the purposes of the act. These allotments had to be matched with equal sums. The appropriation was continued for the fiscal years 1932, 1933, 1934, and 1935, in the Agricultural Appropriation Act. The matching of the allotments has not been required by the acts making the appropriations for the fiscal years 1934 and 1935.

6. A Second Capper-Ketcham Bill

Directly related to the purposes of the additional appropriations just mentioned was an effort to expand the agricultural extension service which occurred in 1931, when Senator Capper and Representative Ketcham introduced a bill in Congress to amend the Capper-Ketcham Act.²⁴ [The bill was designed to authorize county agents and other extension employees to advance economic and cooperative marketing projects and cooperate more fully with farm organizations and the Federal Farm Board, as well as to develop the extension system further.

Authorization for three types of appropriations was included in the bill.²⁵ First, the annual appropriation of \$980,000 included in the original Capper-Ketcham Act was continued. Second, the additional

²¹ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 46, p. 11.

²² 71st Cong., H.Rept. 1876, p. 8.

²³ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 46, p. 870.

²⁴ 71st Cong. S. 5833 and H.R. 17028.

²⁵ As the bill was amended and passed by the Senate. (Cong. Rec., 74: 6111.)

appropriation of \$500,000 under the original Capper-Ketcham Act was continued for the year ending June 30, 1933, and it was increased to \$1,000,000 for the following year and each year thereafter. The allotment of these additional appropriations was on the same basis as their allotment under the act mentioned. Third, a new appropriation, amounting to \$490,000, was provided for the employment of extension specialists in agricultural economics and marketing, \$10,000 for each State and the Territory of Hawaii. An offset was required for the second appropriation but not for the others.

This bill originated with the land-grant colleges. It was supported by many national farm organizations.²⁶ The reasons stated for its enactment were that additional aid was needed to provide all the rural counties with county agents, particularly to increase the home demonstration work and the boys' and girls' club work, and to provide assistance of specialists in marketing and farm economics.

There was some opposition to the bill by those who feared that the promotion of cooperative associations by governmental agencies might be disastrous to privately owned business enterprises serving farm communities.²⁷ Senator Royal S. Copeland, of New York, seriously objected to the measure. He thought Congress had gone as far as it should in putting the Government into the farm-marketing business. Apparently no other objection was made in the Senate.

The bill passed the Senate with very little debate.²⁸ In the House of Representatives it was not reported on by the committee to which it had been referred. The Seventy-first Congress consequently closed without enacting the bill into law.

7. Federal Cooperation Extended to the Territories

The original legislation under which the agricultural extension system was established did not apply to the Territories of the United States. In later years, however, the Territories have been made beneficiaries of the Federal appropriations. In 1928 the benefits of the extension acts were extended to the Territory of Hawaii.²⁹ At the same time Congress increased the annual Smith-Lever appropriations by an amount necessary to include the Territory of Hawaii on the same basis as the States. The following year the benefits of the Smith-Lever Act and its supplements were extended to the Territory of

²⁶ Cong. Rec., 74: 6111.

²⁷ Ibid.

²⁸ Ibid., p. 6112.

²⁹ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 45, p. 571. The same act extended the benefits of the Hatch Act and its supplements to the Territory.

Alaska, but no appropriations are made until appropriate amounts for the Territory have been estimated annually by the Secretary of Agriculture.³⁰

Finally, in 1931 Congress permitted the Territory of Puerto Rico to share in the benefits of the Smith-Lever Act and its supplements.³¹ The permanent annual appropriations for the agricultural extension service were authorized to be increased by an amount necessary to provide for the Territory of Puerto Rico without diminishing or increasing the appropriations to which the States and the Territory of Hawaii were entitled. For the fiscal year 1933, \$50,000 was made available and this amount was to be increased by \$10,000 annually, or such part thereof as might be necessary, until the total to which Puerto Rico is entitled under the act is reached. Participation of the Territory in other Federal appropriations for cooperative extension work is for such amounts as the Secretary of Agriculture may estimate necessary and Congress may appropriate.

Since the legislature and government of Puerto Rico failed prior to July 1 of the fiscal years 1933 and 1934 to comply with the qualifying action required by law, Puerto Rico did not participate in the Federal appropriations during those years.³² The proper action has been taken by Puerto Rico, which entitles it to Federal funds for the fiscal year 1935.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 1256. The same act extended the benefits of the Hatch Act and its supplements to the Territory. Extension work among the farmers was not systematically begun until 1931.

³¹ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 46, p. 1521. The same act extended the benefits of the Hatch Act and its supplements to the Territory.

³² House Committee on Appropriations, Subcommittee in Charge of the Agricultural Department Appropriation bill for 1935, Hearing, pp. 74-75.

Chapter II

Further Cooperation in Vocational Education

1. Efforts to Obtain Federal Cooperation in Home Economics Education

The early proposals for Federal aid to vocational education featured home economics, but the Smith-Hughes bill, as it came from the Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education made no definite mention of that subject other than a reference to work "of the farm home."¹ When the House Committee on Education considered the bill it inserted "home economics" after the word "trade" wherever the phrase "trade and industrial subjects" occurred. This was done without including an additional appropriation.

The action of the committee had two important consequences. First it changed the appropriation for the teaching of "trade and industrial subjects" to an appropriation for "trade, home economics, and industrial subjects." An additional proviso limited the amount of the appropriation which might be expended for home-economics education to 20 percent and such use of the appropriation by the State was optional rather than mandatory. Second, the inclusion of home economics with trade and industrial subjects applied the standards and requirements designed for instruction in those subjects to instruction in home economics. This feature of the act was to some extent a handicap in home-economics education, but the Federal Board for Vocational Education working with the State representatives made a number of adjustments to the home-economics program. While disadvantages resulted to home economics, there were also some advantages from this tie-up, particularly in the quality of the work. However, the situation was not altogether satisfactory.

The first attempt to amend the Smith-Hughes Act in an important way was an effort to change the situation regarding education in home economics. It began in 1920 with the introduction in Congress of the Fess-Kenyon bill, which was designed to separate the provisions for home economics from those for trade and industrial subjects and to make separate appropriations and standards for it.² The controlling purpose of Federally aided home economics was stated to be "to fit for

¹ *Supra*, pp. 109-119.

² 66th Cong., S. 4133 and H.R. 12078.

useful employment in the home or other occupation in the field of home economics."

Support of the bill came from most of the well-known national organizations of women, the Association of Land-grant Colleges, the National Grange, and the Federal Board for Vocational Education.³ No opposition was manifested except on the part of one member of the House Committee on Education. The arguments were that homemaking is a vocation fundamental to the national welfare, that the Federal Government had through the Smith-Hughes Act recognized homemaking as deserving of training, but provision for it was altogether inadequate, that this bill presented an opportunity to equalize the appropriations for the education of men and women, that the administration of Federal aid for home-economics education should be independent from that of aid for trade and industrial education, and that there was much demand for extending the work in home economics.

For 5 years this proposal was in the files of congressional bills. Hearings were held on it, but at no time did it receive a favorable report from any committee.

2. The George-Reed Act

This lack of consideration by Congress did not put an end to requests for further aid to vocational education. Those people who were interested in agricultural education planned a bill which was introduced in the Senate by Senator Walter George, of Georgia (1927), and in the House of Representatives by Representative Franklin Menges, of Pennsylvania, (1928).⁴ An amended form was later introduced in the House of Representatives by Representative Daniel Reed, of New York.⁵ The bill was designed to provide for the further development of vocational education in the States and Territories by increasing the appropriation for agricultural education and making a separate appropriation for home economics subjects. The measure was drafted and promoted by the American Vocational Association.

Hearings on the bill held by the House Committee on Education and the Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry in 1928 showed a well-organized and widespread support of the bill. Several arguments were presented for the measure. Agricultural education, it was stated, should be increased to enable the future farmers to cope with the new conditions in agriculture.⁶ Agricultural education under the Smith-

³ House Committee on Education, Hearing on H.R. 12078, Feb. 4, 1921.

⁴ 70th Cong., S. 1731 and H.R. 9201.

⁵ 70th Cong., H.R. 12241.

⁶ House Committee on Education, Hearings on H.R. 9201 (H.R. 12241), Feb. 7, Mar. 20, and 21, 1928 pp. 1-3.

Hughes Act was highly successful and there were many demands for more of it. It was stated that, owing to the financial condition of country people, the expansion of this work must be seriously curtailed if more Federal aid was not provided.⁷ The women interested in home-economics education strongly urged an increase of the appropriations for that form of training.⁸

At the committee hearings on the bill only one statement, made by C. R. Mann, voiced opposition.⁹ He argued that the States should handle taxation and educational matters for themselves. The separation of vocational education from general education was another ground of opposition stated by him. He also said that the school system was in a state of flux and it should not be fixed through an appropriation covering a long period of time such as 10 years. The whole matter of the various administrative units and the types of educational service should, he thought, be the subject of a comprehensive investigation before the Federal Government proceeded further in its policy of subsidizing education in the States.

In the debates in the Senate and the House of Representatives only two members of Congress opposed the bill. Representative Henry Tucker, of Virginia, presented a long legal argument in an endeavor to show the unconstitutionality of such legislation as that contemplated in the bill.¹⁰ Representative John Cochran, of Missouri, also opposed the measure because in his opinion Congress had no authority to vote public funds for such purposes.¹¹ An unsuccessful effort was made by Representative Malcolm Tarver, of Georgia, to amend the bill so as to make it mandatory for the States to match the Federal appropriations rather than permit matching by the States or their subdivisions.¹² The bill passed both branches of Congress without a record vote, indicating that there was no strong opposition. It was approved on February 5, 1929.¹³ The law was popularly known as the George-Reed Act.

The act authorized an appropriation of \$500,000 for the year beginning in July 1929, and for each year thereafter for 4 years an appropriation increased by \$500,000 over the appropriation for the year preceding. One-half of the appropriations were for education in

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 56.

⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 70-72; Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, Hearing on S. 1731, Feb. 9, 1928, pp. 16-20, 49-52.

⁹ House Committee on Education, Hearings on H.R. 9021 (12241), Feb. 7, Mar. 20 and 21, 1928, pp. 46-53.

¹⁰ *Cong. Rec.*, 70: 2383-2386.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 2392.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 2390.

¹³ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 45, p. 1151.

vocational agriculture, and they were allotted to the States and Territories on the basis of their farm population. The other half of the appropriations were for education in home economics, and they were allotted to the States and Territories on the basis of their rural population. The conditions imposed on the States were the same as those of the Smith-Hughes Act for similar purposes, except that the standards for education in home economics were more liberal under the George Reed Act. In fact, no clearly defined and definite standards to be applied to home economics education were included in the act and a flexible program was therefore permitted.

3. Federal Cooperation in the Territories

The benefits of the Smith-Hughes Act originally did not apply to the Territories. As early as 1918 efforts were made to extend the act to Puerto Rico, Hawaii, and Alaska.¹⁴ This object was accomplished for Hawaii in 1924 and an annual appropriation of \$30,000 was authorized as the allotment for the Territory.¹⁵ In 1931 the benefits of the act were extended to Puerto Rico and annual appropriations of \$105,000 were authorized for this purpose.¹⁶ The only legislation now providing for Federal cooperation in vocational education in Alaska is the George Ellzey Act, the appropriations of which are allotted to the "States and Territories."

4. An Attempt to Discontinue Federal Aid for Vocational Education

In his annual message to Congress delivered on December 8, 1931, President Hoover stated that there must be "insistent and determined reduction in Government expenses."¹⁷ Owing to the difficulties involved in accomplishing substantial results in this matter, the House of Representatives organized the Economy Committee on February 24, 1932, for the purpose of curtailing the expenses of the Federal Government.¹⁸ Two months later (Apr. 25, 1932) the committee made a report to the House and recommended a program of legislation to effect savings to the extent of approximately \$200,000,000.¹⁹

¹⁴ 65th Cong., H.J. Res. 276, 277, and 298.

¹⁵ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 43, p. 18.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, vol. 46, p. 1489.

¹⁷ Cong. Rec., 75: 24.

¹⁸ 72d Cong., H.Rept. No. 1126.

¹⁹ *Ibid.* The general plan of retrenchment embodied in the program consisted of four principal parts—(1) personnel and reduction of compensation to the employees of the Government; (2) miscellaneous items to be reduced or eliminated; (3) consolidation of agencies and bureaus; and (4) relief of veterans of past wars.

Among the items proposed by the committee was one for the gradual elimination of the permanent annual appropriations for vocational education under the Smith-Hughes Act.²⁰ This was to be accomplished by reducing the appropriation 10 percent for the fiscal year 1934 and a like amount for each succeeding year, so that after the fiscal year 1942 this appropriation would be entirely abolished. Also, the permanent annual appropriation of \$200,000 for administration of the Smith-Hughes Act was to be abolished and in lieu thereof an annual appropriation of \$200,000 was to be authorized for the same purposes. The committee proposed also to reduce the appropriation authorized for the fiscal year 1934 under the George-Reed Act, from \$2,500,000 to \$1,500,000. The appropriations authorized for Hawaii and Puerto Rico for vocational education were to be reduced in each successive year for 10 years, so that no further appropriations would be authorized after that time.

The motive of the committee in making these recommendations may be seen in its reference "to the extent to which Federal legislation has tended to remove final control of education from the States to the Federal Government" and in its reference to the question whether the constructive advances in the theory and practice of vocational education which had been made because of the activities initiated by the Smith-Hughes Act "compensate for the inevitable weakening of local responsibility and autonomy that follows continuous applications of the prescriptions of the act."²¹ The committee referred also to the extension service of the Department of Agriculture as performing functions similar to those carried on under the Smith-Hughes Act.

The recommendations of the committee brought a storm of disapproval. One member of the House of Representatives said he received more protests and objections to it than upon any other subject since he had been in Congress.²²

When this item of the Economy bill was considered in the House of Representatives an amendment was offered by Representative Clarence Cannon, of Missouri, to strike it from the bill.²³ There was considerable debate, practically all of which was favorable to the amendment. The principal arguments were that there was great need for vocational education, that the system inaugurated under the Smith-Hughes Act was very successful, and that to discontinue the Federal aid would

²⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 6-8. The President had stated as early as Apr. 17, 1932, that he favored the suspension of the appropriations for vocational education for the fiscal year 1933. (*Cong. Rec.*, 75: 8446.) The original intention of the committee was to suggest this plan, but it changed its mind. (*Ibid.*, pp. 8303, 9007, 9239.)

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

²² *Cong. Rec.*, 75: 9495.

²³ *Cong. Rec.*, 75: 9234.

disrupt and in many instances destroy this form of education. An argument was made that to throw this burden on the States would greatly increase taxes in the rural communities. Moreover, it was said that the Government had originally proposed the cooperative arrangement for vocational education and the States had accepted the arrangement and invested heavily in the program, and that to discontinue the Federal aid would therefore be an act of bad faith with the States. The point was made that the proposal to reduce and eliminate the Federal appropriations under the Smith-Hughes Act did not apply to the year for which the economy program was intended (fiscal year 1933) and it was suggested that the real intent was apparently not economy but the "eventual death" of the Smith-Hughes appropriation "by slow and polite strangulation."²⁴

A member of the Economy Committee, Representative Lewis Douglas, of Arizona, stated that the committee in planning the elimination of Federal aid for vocational education was carrying out a recommendation of the National Advisory Committee on Education, which was that the contributions of the Federal Government to vocational education should be gradually diminished so as to leave the field entirely to the States.²⁵

Two other Members of the House were strongly in favor of discontinuing the Federal appropriations for vocational education. Representative John McDuffie, of Alabama, a member of the Economy Committee, argued for the recommendation of the committee. A proposal was made by Representative Vincent Palmisano, of Maryland, to eliminate both the Smith-Hughes and the vocational rehabilitation appropriations, but it was not accepted.²⁶

The Cannon amendment was passed by the House and the appropriations for vocational education were saved.²⁷ No votes were recorded on the amendment, but the chairman of the Economy Committee stated later that 10 Representatives voted against the amendment.²⁸ Apparently the sentiment in favor of the appropriations for vocational education was overwhelming.

5. The Attack on the Permanent Appropriations

Although Congress makes appropriations annually for the expenses of the Federal Government, there have been placed on the statutes a number of appropriations that are permanent; that is, they continue

²⁴ Ibid., p. 9239.

²⁵ Ibid., p. 9246. cf. *Infra.*, pp. 185-187.

²⁶ Ibid., p. 9247.

²⁷ Ibid.

²⁸ Ibid., p. 13517.

year after year without further action by Congress. These permanent appropriations are of two classes—(1) specific, which specified definite annual amounts; (2) indefinite, which were not definite as to amounts. It was estimated that for the fiscal year 1935 these appropriations (370 items) would amount to a total of \$2,304,784,450.²⁹ The greater portion of this total was for interest on and retirement of the public debt (\$1,342,032,250), processing tax (\$831,022,428), for trust funds (\$77,963,700), and for contributed funds (\$3,334,040). The balance consisted of \$14,006,182 in specific and \$35,925,750 in indefinite appropriations. Among these specific appropriations were the appropriations for colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts; for vocational education, made by the Smith-Hughes Act; and for cooperative agricultural extension work, made by the Smith-Lever Act.

Congress occasionally voiced protest against the growth of these permanent appropriations, but no general reform was attempted before 1933. The principal objection to these appropriations was that they permitted the withdrawal of vast sums from the Federal Treasury, year after year, without the concurrence, consent, approval, and often without the knowledge of Congresses subsequent to those that made the appropriations. They were contrary to the general policy of Congress in preserving to each Congress the right to exercise control over current appropriations. The House Committee on Appropriations of the Seventy-second Congress initiated a study of the permanent appropriations, but before it was ready to report the Senate tried to deal with the question.

When the Senate Committee on Appropriations reported (Jan. 6, 1933) on the bill making appropriations for the Treasury and Post Office Departments for the fiscal year 1934, it recommended the addition of a new section to the bill stating "that the laws providing for permanent annual appropriations be not continued, and that in lieu thereof the sums available to carry out such laws shall be appropriated year by year by Congress."³⁰ There were excepted from the application of the provisions of the section (1) appropriations to the sinking fund, (2) appropriations for the payment of interest on the public debt, and (3) appropriations, during the fiscal year 1934, for vocational education, these appropriations having already been reduced by the Economy Act as continued during the fiscal year 1934. The effect of this provision would have been to involve the submission to Congress

²⁹ House Committee on Appropriations, Subcommittee in Charge of Permanent Appropriations, Hearing, p. 957.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 9-10.

through the regular Budget channels, of estimates of amounts needed for such purposes.

During debate in the Senate an amendment to the new section of the bill was offered by Senator Warren Austin, of Vermont, stating that the provision discontinuing the permanent annual appropriations should not apply to those for vocational education, colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts, or cooperative agricultural extension work.⁸¹ This amendment was strongly defended.⁸² Senator Austin maintained that the "whole plan of cooperation between States and the Federal Government depends upon a permanent appropriation." The effort to abolish the annual appropriations was characterized by Senator Robert La Follette, Jr., of Wisconsin, as "a flank attack upon these educational policies which have been carried on and have been a part of our national policy." He insisted that without a definite annual Federal appropriation it would be impossible for the States to budget their expenditures for the cooperative enterprises. Senator Walter George, of Georgia, characterized the attempt to abolish the permanent annual appropriations as "nothing less than an act of bad faith" and he observed that most of the Senators favoring the recommendation of the committee were originally opposed to every feature of these measures or to the principle involved.

There was also some outspoken opposition to the Austin amendment. The plan of the Smith-Lever and the Smith-Hughes Acts was referred to by Senator William King, of Utah, as an experiment, and he said he understood that finally the States would take over this work. To his suggestion Senator Simeon Fess, of Ohio, made an emphatic reply and asserted that the Smith-Hughes Act was not temporary legislation. Senator Thomas Gore, of Oklahoma, thought that all policies or systems that could be instituted by the States and carried on with success without involving cooperation with any other State ought to be left to the individual States, and he believed the matching of dollars on the part of the Federal Government with the State governments to be "a dangerous policy" and to breed extravagance.

The Austin amendment was adopted by the Senate.⁸³ Later the new section recommended by the committee, as amended, was

⁸¹ Cong. Rec., 76: 3459. Senator Peter Norbeck, of South Dakota, had earlier submitted an amendment which he intended to propose to the bill to exclude the permanent annual appropriation for vocational education (*ibid.*, p. 1402).

⁸² *Ibid.*, pp. 3459-3466.

⁸³ *Ibid.*, p. 3466.

passed by the Senate.³⁴ It modified all laws providing for permanent annual appropriations (whether specific or indefinite) so that after June 30, 1934, in lieu of the appropriations made therein, the sums available for the purposes of such laws should be such sums (not exceeding the amounts provided in such laws) as might thereafter be provided therefor from time to time by Congress. Several appropriations were exempted, including the permanent annual appropriations for vocational education, for colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts, and for cooperative agricultural extension work.

The entire section was finally omitted from the bill on the recommendation of a conference committee and it was not contained in the bill as enacted into law.³⁵ However, the Chairman of the House Committee on Appropriations gave warning that a subcommittee was considering the subject of all permanent appropriations—specific and indefinite—and that doubtless some recommendation would come from the committee, which could be considered at the next session of Congress when there would be more time.³⁶

This act contained one provision which affected the appropriation to the Federal Board for Vocational Education for administration. It reduced each permanent specific appropriation available for the fiscal year 1934 by such amount as the Director of the Budget might determine would be equivalent to the savings effected by certain economies relating principally to personnel in Government employ.

The question of permanent appropriations was thoroughly investigated in 1934 by a subcommittee of the House Committee on Appropriations. Extensive hearings were held covering all of the appropriations in question.

At the hearing the Director of the Extension Service stated that he saw no reason why the Smith-Lever appropriation should not be considered annually by Congress, since there had been no difficulty in obtaining annually from Congress the supplementary appropriations for the Extension Service, which amounted to more than \$4,000,000.³⁷ However, he stated that many people in the States took the opposite view. He raised the question whether a standing appropriation

³⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 492.

³⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 5377, 5470; U. S. Stat. L., vol. 47, p. 1489. It was stated that the conference committee had at one time agreed to retain the section, amended so as to omit the Austin amendment, but that "some of those on the outside favoring the land-grant colleges and vocational education (had) been quite busy" and when the committee considered the matter the second time "considerable opposition arose to the previous agreement." (*Ibid.*, p. 5373).

³⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 5373.

³⁷ House Committee on Appropriations, Subcommittee in Charge of Permanent Appropriations, Hearing p. 80.

should be changed to an annual appropriation after a State had accepted it.

The Commissioner of Education made three arguments for retaining the permanent appropriations for the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts.³⁸ He said that to make the appropriations on an annual basis would (1) introduce the problem of Federal supervision over these institutions, which was quite contrary to the early intention of Federal grants for these colleges; (2) introduce an additional element of uncertainty that comes from having to depend upon congressional action when the institutions are themselves located at points remote from Washington; and (3) produce confusion and embarrassment by having modifications of the Federal funds within State appropriation periods.

The Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education submitted seven principal reasons why the appropriations made by the Smith-Hughes Act should remain as permanent appropriations, as follows: (1) No economy in the use of Federal funds would be realized, and the stability of the program would be seriously impaired by any other appropriation policy; (2) loss of confidence in the assured support of the Federal Government would develop in the States, and States and local communities could not intelligently make their appropriations for vocational education under a policy of annual appropriations; (3) under a policy of annual appropriations, local communities would be less inclined to go ahead with their progress; (4) unnecessary expense and loss of time would be involved on the part of State representatives, who would be forced each year to work for the appropriations; (5) the vocational program cannot be expanded one year and contracted the next and maintain its effectiveness; (6) State laws would have to be modified, State appropriations in many instances being contingent upon the amounts of the Federal allotments; and (7) when the Smith-Hughes Act was passed, Congress definitely rejected the idea of annual appropriations as impractical, and definitely recorded itself in favor of permanent appropriations.³⁹

When the House Committee on Appropriations studied the question, it proceeded on the maxim that "whatever goes into the Federal Treasury shall not be drawn out of it except by the sanction of the sitting Congress", and it concluded that permanent appropriations were "a vicious usurpation of the rights of sitting Congresses" and that they complicated administration and made uncertain the

³⁸ Ibid., p. 168.

³⁹ Ibid., pp. 176-177.

work of Congress in appropriating money.⁴⁰ It submitted to the House of Representatives a bill to provide that permanent appropriations be subject to annual consideration by Congress.

In making its recommendations, the committee in no manner disturbed the permanent appropriations for aid to the States for agricultural extension work, the land-grant colleges, and vocational education in agriculture, home economics, and trades and industries. The report said:

The singling out of these three items for an exception to the general rule followed in the bill of placing permanent appropriations on an annual basis is but a recognition, on the part of the committee, of the power of the propagandizing agencies interested in these appropriations to perhaps defeat the entire bill on the strength of the inclusion of these items therein. It is the feeling of the committee that the good that will accrue with the passage of the bill in the form in which it is submitted is sufficient to justify the omission of appropriations such as those enumerated, the inclusion of which would, if experience is a guide, prevent the passage of the bill.⁴¹

Apparently the Senate Committee on Appropriations held a different view regarding certain of the permanent appropriations. It said, "Another principle to which the committee has adhered is that it is proper to make continuing appropriations of funds payable to States so that the legislatures thereof may unquestionably rely upon the receipt of such funds in making up State or county budgets."⁴²

Among the continuing appropriations which the bill subjected to annual consideration was the sum appropriated by the Smith-Hughes Act to the Federal Board for Vocational Education, for salaries and expenses.

The bill was passed by Congress. It was approved by President Roosevelt on June 26, 1934.⁴³

6. Reorganization of the Federal Administration of Vocational Education

One feature of the economy program proposed in 1932 was an attempt to discontinue Federal cooperation in vocational education. Another feature was an effort to reorganize and consolidate the Federal administrative functions. The Economy Committee proposed to authorize the President to group, coordinate, and consolidate Government executive and administrative agencies in order to reduce expenditures and increase efficiency in government.⁴⁴

⁴⁰ 73d Cong., H. Rept. 1414; H.R. 9410, Apr. 30, 1934.

⁴¹ 73d Cong., H. Rept. 1414, p. 2.

⁴² 73d Cong., S. Rept. No. 1195, p. 2.

⁴³ 73d Cong., Public Act No. 473.

⁴⁴ 72d Cong., H. Rep. 1126, pp. 11-12.

The bill to accomplish this purpose required the President to report to Congress his Executive orders reorganizing Government agencies and it provided that an Executive order should not become effective until after the expiration of 60 calendar days after the order was transmitted to Congress, unless Congress should sooner approve an order. When this proposal was considered in the Senate it was amended to authorize and request the President to proceed, without the 60-day restriction, to consolidate certain named governmental activities, among which education was included, but a provision was added to the amendment stating "except that the Board of Vocational Education shall not be abolished."⁴⁵ The bill was enacted into law. Under its provisions an Executive order became null and void if either branch of Congress passed a resolution disapproving the order within 60 days of the time the order was transmitted to Congress.

Acting under the authority vested in him President Hoover issued an order on December 9, 1932, consolidating and grouping in the Department of the Interior, under an assistant secretary, education, health, and recreation activities, and on the same day he reported this and other reorganizations to Congress.⁴⁶ The order transferred to the Office of Education the administrative duties, powers, and functions of the Federal Board for Vocational Education and ordered the Board to serve in an advisory capacity to the Secretary of the Interior.

The action of the President encountered opposition in Congress. Representative John Cochran of Missouri, introduced in the House of Representatives a resolution disapproving all the reorganizations reported by the President on December 9.⁴⁷ There was considerable debate on the resolution.⁴⁸ The principal reason put forth for it was that the incoming President should himself have the opportunity to reorganize the Executive Departments.⁴⁹ The resolution was passed by the House on January 19, 1933, which nullified the reorganization.⁵⁰

The act authorizing the President to group, coordinate, and consolidate executive and administrative agencies of the Government was

⁴⁵ *Cong. Rec.* 75: 12155-12156. See U.S. Stat. L. vol. 47, pp. 414-415.

⁴⁶ Executive Order No. 5962; *Cong. Rec.*, 76: 234.

⁴⁷ 72d Cong., H. Res. 334. Dec. 27, 1932. Resolutions had already been introduced to suspend the operation of the Executive order relating to the Federal Board for Vocational Education (S. Res. 311 and H. Res. 330. See also *Cong. Rec.*, 76: 891ff).

⁴⁸ *Cong. Rec.*, 76: 2103-2127.

⁴⁹ The Republican Party was in the majority in the Senate of the 72d Congress and the Democratic Party in the majority in the House of Representatives. In the election in November 1932 the Democratic won a majority of the seats in both branches of the 73d Congress.

⁵⁰ *Cong. Rec.*, 76: 2126.

amended on March 3, 1933.⁵¹ Acting under the authority to make reorganizations, President Roosevelt on June 10, 1933, issued an order transferring the functions of the Federal Board for Vocational Education to the Department of the Interior and he stipulated that the Board should act in an advisory capacity without compensation.⁵²

The order of the President was carried out and the functions of the Federal Board for Vocational Education were transferred to the Department of the Interior. On October 10, 1933, the administration of the vocational education and the rehabilitation functions were transferred by the Secretary of the Interior to the Office of Education.⁵³ In announcing the transfer, Secretary Ickes said that it was "not to be interpreted as any curtailment of the activities of the Federal Government in the field of vocational education," and he announced a policy of promoting "the development of this highly important part of the field of education vigorously." In accepting the added responsibility the Commissioner of Education, George F. Zook, wrote:

I will, to the best of my ability, promote the cause of vocational education vigorously and wisely. I trust this union of educational forces in the Federal Government will increase the effectiveness of the service which the Federal Government renders to the States and local communities in the conduct of their educational programs.

7. Reduction of the Appropriations for Vocational Education (1933, 1934)

Although the attempts made in the Seventy-second Congress to discontinue Federal cooperation in vocational education were not successful, that Congress made material reductions in the appropriations for this service. When the Senate Committee on Appropriations reported on the economy bill in 1932 it recommended the addition of sections which, for the fiscal year 1933, (1) reduced by 10 percent the appropriations made to the States by the Smith-Hughes Act; (2) reduced by 10 percent the appropriations authorized for vocational education in the Territory of Hawaii and the Territory of Puerto Rico; and (3) reduced by \$500,000 the appropriation to the States and Territories authorized by the George-Reed Act, thus authorizing for this purpose an appropriation of \$1,500,000.⁵⁴ The committee recommended also that in lieu of the annual appropriations made by the Smith-Hughes Act for the Federal Board for Vocational Education an appro-

⁵¹ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 47, p. 1517. One amendment required a concurrent resolution of the Senate and the House of Representatives to disapprove an Executive order reorganizing government agencies.

⁵² Executive Order No. 6166. The order was effective 61 days from date.

⁵³ *School Life*, 19: 21.

⁵⁴ 72d Cong., 3.Rept. 756, p. 13.

priation of not more than \$200,000 be authorized for the Board. This amendment was passed by the Senate without debate.⁵⁵

The conference committee on the bill agreed to the provisions of the amendment relating to appropriations to the States and Territories, but the provision substituting for the appropriation for the fiscal year 1933 made by the Smith-Hughes Act for the Federal Board for Vocational Education, an authorization of an appropriation of the same amount was not accepted.⁵⁶ This agreement was accepted by the Senate and the House and it was included in the law.⁵⁷ The same provision was continued for the fiscal year 1934 by the act to maintain the credit of the United States Government.⁵⁸

The act making appropriations for the Treasury and Post Office Departments for the fiscal year 1934 contained one provision which affected the appropriation for the Federal Board for Vocational Education.⁵⁹ It reduced each permanent specific appropriation available for the fiscal year 1934 by such amount as the Director of the Budget might determine would be equivalent to the savings effected by certain economies relating principally to salaries of Government personnel and the filling of vacancies.

These acts resulted in material reductions of the appropriations for vocational education. (See Appendix IX.)

The Executive order issued by President Roosevelt on June 10, 1933, to reorganize the Federal administration of vocational education and rehabilitation was also intended to abolish 25 percent of the following functions: (1) Cooperative vocational education and rehabilitation, (2) payments for agricultural experiment stations, (3) cooperative agricultural extension work, and (4) endowment and maintenance of colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts.⁶⁰ This action was in keeping with the pledge made by the Democratic Party to reduce the expenses of the Government by 25 percent.

Members of the Senate at once took cognizance of the President's action. Senator Warren Austin, of Vermont, introduced in the Senate a bill to amend the act vesting in the President authority to make reorganizations of the executive and administrative agencies, so as to limit his authority in abolishing functions.⁶¹ At the same time

⁵⁵ Cong. Rec., 75: 12152.

⁵⁶ 72d Cong., H.Rept. 1697, p. 13.

⁵⁷ U.S.Stat.L., vol. 47, pp. 411-412.

⁵⁸ 73d Cong., First Session, Stat. of the U.S.A., p. 13. Cf. U.S.Stat.L., vol. 47, p. 1513.

⁵⁹ U.S.Stat.L., vol. 47, p. 1515. Cf. 73d Cong., 1st sess., Stat. of the U.S.A., p. 14.

⁶⁰ Executive Order No. 6166.

⁶¹ 73d Cong., S. 1930.

Senator William Borah, of Idaho, introduced a joint resolution suspending until 60 days after the beginning of the next session of Congress the portion of the Executive order relating to payments for agricultural experiment stations, cooperative agricultural extension work, and agricultural colleges.⁶² Senator Charles McNary, of Oregon, introduced a joint resolution disapproving the section of the Executive order of June 10, 1933, relating to the reduction of cooperative vocational education and rehabilitation, payments for agricultural experiment stations, cooperative agricultural extension work, and endowment and maintenance of colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts.⁶³

The McNary resolution was briefly debated on several occasions. It was intimated that President Roosevelt would not object to suspending the part of the order in question and that he would likely respond to the purpose of the resolution, whether it actually became effective or not.⁶⁴ The resolution was amended and passed by the Senate on June 15, 1933. It was intended to suspend the part of the Executive order in question "until the convening of the next session of the Congress and for 60 days thereafter."

The President acted on the suggestion of the Senate and deferred until 60 days after the opening of the second session of the Seventy-third Congress, the effective date of the part of the order which was under discussion.⁶⁵ The effective date of this particular section was on February 6, 1934, deferred by the President to April 10, 1934,⁶⁶ and on the same day he revoked the section, he having upon further investigation determined that its provisions were "not in the public interest or consistent with the efficient operation of the Government."⁶⁷

8. Additional Federal Aid for Vocational Education

The George Reed Act authorized additional Federal appropriations for vocational education in agriculture and home economics covering a 5-year period, which ended on June 30, 1934. During this period efforts were made to obtain additional Federal grants for education in trades and industries. Eventually, in 1934, the George Ellzey bill, providing further Federal aid for the three types of vocational educa-

⁶² 73d Cong., S. J. Res. 62.

⁶³ 73d Cong., S. J. Res. 63.

⁶⁴ *Cong. Rec.*, 77: 6081, 6082. It was evident that the House of Representatives would not act on the resolution since the time for adjournment was near.

⁶⁵ Executive Order No. 6221.

⁶⁶ Executive Order No. 6585.

⁶⁷ Executive Order No. 6586.

tion, was passed to take effect at the expiration of the George-Reed Act. This development began with the Capper-Reed bill in the Seventieth Congress.

The Capper-Reed bill.—This bill was drafted by the American Vocational Association and introduced in Congress in March 1930 by Senator Arthur Capper, of Kansas, and Representative Daniel Reed, of New York.⁶⁸ It was designed to authorize an appropriation of \$1,000,000 for the fiscal year 1931, and for each year thereafter during a period of 3 years, a sum exceeding by \$1,000,000 the sum appropriated for the preceding year. These sums were to be allotted to the States and Territories on the basis of their nonfarm population, but the annual allotment to any State or Territory was to be not less than \$10,000. For the purpose of providing the minimum allotments an additional appropriation of \$110,000 was to be authorized annually for 4 years. Also, there was to be authorized an annual appropriation of \$150,000 for the Federal Board for Vocational Education to carry out the provisions of the act.

The appropriations were to be subject to the same conditions and limitations as the appropriations made by the Smith-Hughes Act. They were to be expended for the promotion, establishment, and conduct of vocational education for the training of (1) persons who had entered upon or who were preparing to enter upon employment in specific commercial pursuits; (2) persons who were preparing to enter upon employment in specific trade or industrial pursuits, including those of a technical nature; and (3) persons who had left the full-time school or class and had entered upon employment in trade or industrial pursuits.

Three principal purposes lay behind this proposal. The first was to make more provision for the education of employed persons.⁶⁹ The Smith-Hughes Act was based largely, though not entirely, on the need for day schools and it was not adequate to provide for all employed persons who could profit by vocational education. A second purpose of the measure was to make possible a better adjustment of Federal appropriations to the ability of the States to use them effectively. The provisions were sufficiently flexible to permit the adaptation of education in trades and industries to the needs of the States.⁷⁰ The problem of technological unemployment, which was hardly anticipated in 1917, made flexibility in trade and industrial education absolutely essential.

⁶⁸ 71st Cong., S. 3969 and H. R. 10821.

⁶⁹ Senate Committee on Education and Labor, Hearing on S. 3969, Jan. 7, 1931, p. 5.

⁷⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 8.

The third purpose of the measure was to provide Federal aid to encourage the States in developing educational programs for workers employed in commercial occupations, including business management subjects for workers in other occupational fields. A special appropriation to aid in developing courses for workers employed in commercial occupations was not included in the Smith-Hughes Act because it was felt that there was no great scarcity of trained workers in this field.⁷¹ By a liberal interpretation of the act certain moneys could be spent in the part-time continuation schools on commercial subjects for employed workers 14 to 16 years of age.⁷² By 1930 the feeling had developed that commercial education was not only insufficient in extent of occupations included, but also inadequate in vocational effectiveness.⁷³ It was stated that there was great need to place the training of commercial teachers on a par with the training of teachers of agriculture, trades and industries, and home economics.⁷⁴

The Capper-Reed bill was strongly promoted by the American Vocational Association and it had widespread support.⁷⁵ It was for a variety of reasons urged as "a national necessity."⁷⁶ The Smith-Hughes fund for trade and industrial education was all used. In fact, it was stated that approximately \$4.60 of State and local money was spent for every dollar of Federal money used for vocational education. Although an impressive number of wage earners and students were enrolled in trade and industrial classes and schools, a far greater proportion could be reached if funds were available. Further Federal cooperation with the States in trade and industrial education and commercial education was needed to aid in solving the problems incident to the continuous vocational retraining of wage earners temporarily unemployed or unsteadily employed owing to industrial and economic changes. There was a growing demand for training junior vocational technicians in industrial processes. Further Federal cooperation with the States was urged to meet the demand for the training of foremen, supervisors, and teachers of wage earners. Additional Federal funds were urged to stimulate part-time education for the wage-earning boys and girls not reached by any form of organized education. It was also said that more Federal funds were needed for research in, and the evaluation of, vocational training and the dissemination of such facts.

⁷¹ *Supra*, p. 110.

⁷² House Committee on Education. Hearing on H. R. 10821, May 7, 8, and 14, 1930, p. 82.

⁷³ *Ibid.*, pp. 143, 144, 145, 282, 301, etc.

⁷⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 80.

⁷⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 263-354.

⁷⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 4-7.

Much emphasis was placed on the civic aspect of vocational training by the advocates of the bill.⁷⁷

A new feature to be included in the vocational education system under the bill was commercial education. It was stated that Federal cooperation with the States in this field would raise the standards of that training to the standards in modern business organization.⁷⁸

The only pronounced opposition at the hearings on the bill was voiced by Frank L. Peckham, representing the Sentinels of the Republic.⁷⁹ He held the bill to be unconstitutional for he stated that Congress had no authority to legislate on such matters as that contemplated in the bill. He also contended that the bill was unconstitutional since it proposed to divert funds which the Federal Government collected "through its taxing power for Federal purposes" and apply them to local activities over which the Government had no power and to which it owed no responsibility.

Although the expenditures contemplated in the measure were not at that time in accord with the financial program of the President,⁸⁰ both the Senate and the House committees in charge of the bill held hearings and near the close of the Seventy-first Congress they reported the bill favorably.⁸¹ The measure was not considered by the House of Representatives. In the Senate the bill was read and amended on March 3, 1931, and then, at the suggestion of Senator Hiram Bingham, of Connecticut, it was passed over.⁸² Congress consequently adjourned without taking further action.

The Capper-Patterson bill.—Two circumstances were unfavorable to the further extension of Federal cooperation in vocational education by the Seventy-second Congress (1931-33). First, in October 1931, the National Advisory Committee on Education, which was very critical of the Federal cooperative arrangements in education, recommended that no additional laws be enacted granting Federal aid to the States in support of special types of education.⁸³ Second, as has already been stated, President Hoover and Congress took definite steps to curtail the expenses of the Federal Government, beginning in 1931, which resulted in material reductions of the Federal aid for vocational education.

⁷⁷ Ibid., pp. 196-199.

⁷⁸ Federal Board for Vocational Education, Fourteenth Annual Report, pp. 53-54.

⁷⁹ House Committee on Education, Hearings on H. R. 10821, May 7, 8, and 14, 1930, pp. 229 ff.

⁸⁰ Senate Committee on Education and Labor, Hearing on S. 3949, Jan. 7, 1931, p. 5.

⁸¹ 71st Cong., S. Rept. 1799 and H. Rept. 2926.

⁸² Cong. Rec., 74: 6963.

⁸³ Cf. *infra*, pp. 185-187.

Although the times were not auspicious, Representative Lafayette Patterson, of Alabama, and Senator Capper introduced in the Seventy-second Congress a bill for the further development of vocational education.⁸⁴ It proposed to authorize appropriations for vocational education in the several States and Territories, which were identical in amount and method of allotment with the appropriations proposed by the earlier Capper-Reed bill. These appropriations were to begin with the fiscal year 1933. No appropriations were proposed for the Federal Board for Vocational Education.

The appropriations were to be expended in the promotion, establishment, and conduct of "instruction for wage earners in part-time schools or classes, evening schools or classes, and/or intensive day or evening preparatory courses", and for research on such instruction. The education was to be (1) for the training of wage earners who had left the full-time school and entered upon employment, and (2) for short intensive preparatory instruction for unemployed wage earners 18 years of age and over who had severed their connection with full-time schools and were seeking occupational adjustment.

Apparently the bill received no serious consideration by the legislators. It was not reported from committee.

The George-Ellzey Act.—By 1933 it appeared that a critical situation had developed in vocational education. The George-Reed Act would expire in June 1934. The administration which took office in March 1933 was pledged to a policy of economy; it had promised a reduction of 25 percent in Government expenses.⁸⁵ The support of public schools was becoming more and more difficult throughout the country, owing to the economic depression.

However, there were hopeful features in the situation. President Roosevelt had in July 1932 expressed himself as follows:

I believe thoroughly in agricultural education. I regard it as one of the most important and essential branches of the whole educational effort that is being carried on in the United States. I am a firm believer also in the value of the cooperative research and experimental work and the extension service which State institutions, in cooperation with the Federal Government, are rendering.

I think it would be nothing short of a disaster if any of this work were seriously curtailed. Particularly in these times when farmers are having such a desperate struggle to maintain themselves, I think it supremely important that they should have the benefit of the expert advice that colleges, experiment stations, and extension services are able to give them, and it is equally important that we should continue to hold out to their children opportunities for an education that will make them something more than field drudges.

⁸⁴ 72d Cong., H.R. 8241, Jan. 22, 1932; S. 3884, Feb. 24, 1932. >

⁸⁵ Cong. Rec., 76: 2648.

What I have said with respect to the agricultural colleges and their allied services applies with equal force to the lesser schools of agriculture and to the agricultural education now being carried on with such excellent promise in consolidated high schools in the rural communities.⁸⁶

Also he had stated that "we must increase vocational education for those children who otherwise could not receive adequate training;" and he had said, "The Federal Government, without in any way taking away the right and duty of the several States to manage their own educational affairs, can act as a clearing house of information and as an incentive to higher standards."⁸⁷

Many Members of Congress had on former occasions shown a deep interest in vocational education. Also there was a growing disposition on the part of the citizens to look to the Federal Government for assistance in the efforts to maintain public schools during the depression.

An important move was made by holding in Washington a Citizens' Conference on Vocational Education and the Problems of Reconstruction, May 4 and 5, 1933.⁸⁸ The conference reported that in all parts of the country there was a coordination of vocational education and extension work with emergency activities. It considered the fundamental propositions underlying a long-time program of vocational education and stated the requirements to fulfill those propositions. The conference went on record "as believing that a system of education carries out the spirit of the 'new deal' only when it provides adequate vocational training service for the rank and file of our people, rural and urban, juvenile and adult, and employed and unemployed."

Several bills proposing Federal aid for vocational education were presented to Congress in 1934. One was introduced in the Senate by Senator Walter George, of Georgia.⁸⁹ Practically the identical bill was introduced in the House of Representatives by Representative Russell Ellzey, of Mississippi, and by Representative Lamar Jeffers, of Alabama.⁹⁰ A fourth bill was introduced in the House of Representatives by Representative Loring Black, Jr., of New York, at the request of the American Vocational Association.⁹¹

The first three named bills were to authorize annual appropriations of \$3,750,000, beginning with the fiscal year 1935, to be allotted to the States and Territories. One-third was for agricultural education,

⁸⁶ Cong. Rec., 77: 5969-5960. From a letter to the editor of the *Progressive Farmer and Southern Ruralist*.

⁸⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 5960.

⁸⁸ Cong. Rec., 77: 4579.

⁸⁹ 73d Cong., S. 2119, Jan. 10, 1934.

⁹⁰ 73d Cong., H.R. 7039, Jan. 18, 1934; H.R. 7089, Jan. 19, 1934.

⁹¹ 73d Cong., H.R. 7802, Feb. 8, 1934. See House Committee on Education, Hearing on H.R. 7802, Feb. 20 and 21, 1934, p. 5.

one-third for education in home economics, and one-third for trade and industrial education. Also, an annual appropriation of \$100,000 was to be authorized for the Office of Education for the administration of vocational education. The Black bill included these appropriations and it provided a minimum annual allotment of \$5,000 to each State and Territory for each of the three fields of vocational education; and to provide the minimum allotments, an additional annual appropriation of \$64,500 was to be authorized.

Extensive hearings on the bills were held by the House Committee on Education.⁹² All the statements made at the hearing were favorable. Several members of the committee were critical of Federal aid for education in home economics; they seemed not to regard this form of vocational education as a matter of Federal concern in the same way as education in agriculture and trades and industries. Also, several members suggested that some States contributed more to the Federal Government for this service than they received. One Representative said the Government "gives nothing to any of the States except one or two backward States." The reply to this objection was, first, that many workmen trained in a State move to another, and, second, that the sale of manufactured articles depends on the purchasing power of the people in all the States and that purchasing power depends on earning power. A number of the members of the committee were strongly opposed to Federal aid for education.

In spite of the feeling in the committee against Federal aid for education, the members made a unanimous favorable report to the House.⁹³ However, the report included the following statement:

The committee believes there is no question of the great value of vocational education in each of these phases mentioned. Vocational education has made a splendid social contribution, as evidenced by the testimony and reports of those appearing before the committee in favor of this bill. But it is believed that this problem of vocational education is essentially a problem for the individual State while it is able to carry on.

The committee reported the bill "as an emergency measure during the present depression." It thought "that this is not the proper year and time to withdraw Federal aid, as this action would mean probably the immediate loss of employment to many people engaged in this work, and there is no desire on the part of the committee to bring about this situation." At the same time, the committee made the following statement:

⁹² House Committee on Education, Hearing on H.R. 7059, Feb. 8, 1934; Hearing on H.R. 7802, Feb. 20 and 21, 1934.

⁹³ 73d Cong. H. Rept. 861.

But it is recommended strongly that the States put their houses in order and prepare themselves; just as soon as possible, to take over this whole program of vocational education, and rid the Federal Government of a task which is properly the duty of the State.

A number of reasons were advanced why the bill should be enacted.⁸⁴ It was stated that the revenues for the support of public schools were derived principally from taxes on property, that these taxes were not yielding enough revenue to support the schools, and that the schools therefore faced a serious crisis. Reference was made to the Federal emergency relief given to the States to continue their schools in the smaller communities, which emphasized the plight of public education. Attention was called to the "youth problem" which confronted the country owing to the fact that under the industrial codes practically all the youth under 18 years of age were shut out of industry and were therefore unemployed. There was a great increase in the high-school enrollment but the usual high-school courses were ill-adapted to many pupils since large numbers of pupils were either unfitted to go to college or not interested in college study. This situation, it was pointed out, placed an added responsibility on vocational education. The plea was made on a number of occasions that under the prevailing conditions it was impossible for the States to continue their programs of vocational education unless Federal aid was continued. The educational emergency was a telling argument.

Three amendments to the bill, all of which were adopted, were suggested by the committee.⁸⁵ They reduced the authorized appropriations to \$3,000,000 a year and limited the authorization to 3 years. Also a minimum of \$5,000 was provided for each State or Territory for each of the three types of vocational education and an appropriation of \$84,603 was authorized for 3 years to provide the minimum allotments.

Two other amendments were proposed but both were rejected.⁸⁶ The first, submitted by Representative William Connery, Jr., of Massachusetts, was to deny the Federal appropriations to any State or Territory if the teachers, supervisors, and directors to receive pay from the appropriations were denied "the right of joining any legal organization of their own choosing." It was stated that this proviso was requested by organized labor to protect the right of school teachers to organize in unions. The other amendment, submitted by Representative Oscar De Priest, of Illinois, was to require that in States and

⁸⁴ Cf. hearings mentioned above; *Cong. Rec.*, 78: 3272-3274, 7371-7374, 7463-7466, 7471-7474.

⁸⁵ *Cong. Rec.*, 78: 7474.

⁸⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 7474-7477.

Territories where there are separate schools for white and colored pupils, the funds "be divided according to population based on the last United States Census." Both amendments were objected to on the ground that they would inject Federal control into the bill. Representative Rene De Rouen, of Louisiana, attempted to have the bill recommitted to the Committee on Education, with instructions to reduce the appropriation to the Office of Education from \$100,000 to \$75,000.

The bill was debated in the House on April 25 and 26, 1934, and it was passed on the latter date, no votes being recorded.⁸⁷ It was passed by the Senate on May 10, without debate or amendment.⁸⁸ On May 21, 1934, it was approved by President Roosevelt.⁸⁹

9. United States Junior Placement Service

The act of Congress approved June 6, 1933, establishing a national system of employment offices may become a significant factor in the program of vocational education.¹ It establishes as a bureau in the Department of Labor, the United States Employment Service, which is to promote and develop a national system of employment offices for men, women, and juniors who are legally qualified to engage in gainful occupations. Other duties of the service include furnishing and publishing information as to opportunities for employment and other information of value in the operation of the system.

The act authorizes the appropriation of \$1,500,000 for the fiscal year 1934 and \$4,000,000 yearly thereafter until June 30, 1938, after which date "sums annually as the Congress may deem necessary."

In order to obtain appropriations a State, through its legislature, is required to accept the provisions of the act and authorize the creation of a State agency, empowered to cooperate with the United States Employment Service. A State is also required to submit to the director of the United States Employment Service for his approval detailed plans for carrying out the provisions of the act, and to make such reports concerning its operations and expenditures as shall be prescribed by the director.

Provisions are made for a Federal Advisory Council, established by the director and composed of men and women representing employers, employees, and the public for the purpose of formulating policies and

⁸⁷ Ibid., p. 7477.

⁸⁸ Ibid., p. 8473.

⁸⁹ Ibid., p. 9375. (See Appendix V.)

¹ 73d Cong., 1st sess., Stat. of U.S.A., p. 113.

discussing problems relating to employment. There has been created a Committee on Junior Placement of the Federal Advisory Council of the United States Employment Service and the Commissioner of Education has been named as chairman of the committee.

This new cooperative system, particularly as it relates to juniors, will probably bear an important relation to vocational education, since any program of education which assumes the responsibility for vocational guidance and vocational training, has as its goal the placement of its pupils in gainful employment.

Chapter III

Federal Cooperation in Civilian Vocational Rehabilitation

1. The Early Evolution of the Idea

One of the important problems of an industrial society is to provide for people who are crippled or otherwise physically disabled. No accurate data are available to indicate the number of persons who belong to the category mentioned, but it was conservatively estimated in 1918 that 14,000 serious permanent disabilities occurred annually among American wage earners.¹ The average age of the workers thus disabled was estimated at from 30 to 35 years, which indicates that their life expectancy was from 20 to 30 years. On this basis it is apparent that the total number of seriously disabled wage earners in the United States in 1918 was approximately 280,000.

Society has more and more become conscious of this problem, partly through efforts of individuals and private organizations. Among the early means employed to cope with it were the workmen's compensation acts passed by a number of States, beginning in 1911.² Experience soon demonstrated, however, that money benefits were not always sufficient to alleviate the condition of the workmen or to lessen the effects of the physical disability. In numerous cases there was need for a means whereby the disabled workman could be trained for a new kind of work.

The realization of this problem by the public was greatly increased through the World War. The European nations very early learned the value of rehabilitating their disabled soldiers, many of whom after retraining became as useful as they had been before they were incapacitated.³ The experience of those countries was canvassed by the United States soon after it entered the war, and in 1918 Congress passed the Smith-Sears Act for the vocational rehabilitation and return to civil employment of disabled persons discharged from the mil-

¹ U.S. Congress, Committees on Education and Labor. Joint hearings on S. 4922, Dec. 10, 11, and 12, 1918, p. 16.

² Kratz, John Aubel, *Vocations' Rehabilitation in the United States*, p. 4.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

itary and naval forces of the United States.⁴ This work was entirely a Federal project, the States having no part in it.

In the meantime the movement to make State provision for disabled civilians went on apace. An organization known as the "Red Cross Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men" was founded in New York City (1917) for the purpose of research and demonstration in rehabilitation work.⁵ This organization, under the leadership of Douglas C. McMurtrie, early in 1918 became active in promoting State legislation for vocational rehabilitation.⁶ A model bill was prepared which a number of States, particularly New Jersey, followed in drafting laws.

The first State legislative action occurred in Massachusetts (1918) when an act was passed to provide for the training and instruction of persons whose capacity to earn a living had been destroyed or impaired through industrial accident.⁷ Other States soon followed and by June 2, 1920, 12 had enacted vocational-rehabilitation laws.⁸ Only six States had, however, begun work.

2. The Early Movement for Federal Cooperation

When the Smith-Sears bill was drawn by a conference, it was proposed to include the rehabilitation of disabled civilians.⁹ The committees of Congress which considered the bill also gave thought to the desirability of including provisions for the vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry. An amendment was actually proposed to accomplish that purpose,¹⁰ and an organized campaign, which met with much favorable response, was conducted to insert the amendment in the bill.¹¹

The proposal was omitted from the Smith-Sears bill for several reasons.¹² There was a fear that the rehabilitation of disabled civilians might delay the rehabilitation of disabled soldiers and sailors since no instructors had been developed for such service. The rehabilitation of soldiers and sailors was a Federal project entirely while the

⁴ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 40, p. 617. The training was organized under the Federal Board for Vocational Education, but in 1921 it was transferred to the newly organized Veterans' Bureau.

⁵ Faries, John Culbert, *Three Years of Work for Handicapped Men*, pp. 12-14. In November 1919, the name was changed to the Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men.

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 77-78.

⁷ Massachusetts, General Acts, 1918, ch. 231.

⁸ Kragg, John Atubel, *op. cit.*, p. 17.

⁹ U.S. Congress, Committees on Education and Labor, *op. cit.*, pp. 6-7, 55.

¹⁰ U.S. Congress, Committees on Education and Labor, Joint Hearings on S. 4284 and H.R. 11567 Apr. 30, May 1 and 2, 1918, pp. 78-90, 92-93.

¹¹ U.S. Congress, Committees on Education and Labor, Joint Hearings on S. 4922, pp. 58-62.

¹² Cong. Rec., 58: 1381-1382, 9081.

rehabilitation of civilians was a project for State and Federal cooperation; to place them in the same bill would, it was thought, be productive of confusion. Those in charge of the Smith-Sears bill promised, however, to introduce a measure for civilian rehabilitation as soon as the other program was well under way, the Federal Board for Vocational Education was ready to undertake it, and a reasonable number of prepared experts were available to carry on a program.

Three months after the passage of the Smith-Sears Act, Senator Hoke Smith, of Georgia, introduced in the Senate a bill to provide for promoting the rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise and their return to civil employment.¹³ A similar bill was introduced in the House of Representatives by Representative William Bankhead, of Alabama.¹⁴ Committee hearings were held on these bills and the committees made favorable reports,¹⁵ but Congress gave no consideration to them.

A variety of motives impelled those who promoted this legislation. The economic purpose was strongly urged.¹⁶ It was brought out that the economic loss resulting from serious disabilities came about in two ways. First, the disabled worker ceased to contribute to economic progress, and, second, he generally became more or less helpless and frequently almost entirely dependent. He lost his ambition and became an economic liability. This social and economic waste was a heavy charge on society; much of it could be overcome through proper physical and vocational rehabilitation. Such rehabilitation, it was said, would cost less than the loss from idleness and dependency. The World War led to a larger realization of the fact that human labor was one of the nation's most valuable assets.

The humanitarian purpose was also strongly urged.¹⁷ The plight of the victims was tragic. Their helplessness led to family deterioration. The education and care of children was curtailed and in many cases the children had to begin their wage-earning life prematurely.

The national aspect of the problem was emphasized.¹⁸ This work, it was stated, was for the welfare of the people of the whole country; it justly called for contributions from the Federal Treasury. A common interest in national progress demanded that no effort be spared to reestablish on a plane of independence those who had met disaster. The war, it was said, emphasized the idea that the struggle between

¹³ 65th Cong., S. 4922.

¹⁴ 65th Cong., H.R. 12740 and 12880.

¹⁵ 65th Cong., S.Rept. 630; H.Rept. 1064.

¹⁶ U.S. Congress, Committees on Education and Labor, Joint Hearings on S. 4922, pp. 6, 18, 63.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 38, 63.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 34, 38, 45, 55.

nations is an industrial struggle and that men in industry render a national service just as the men in the fighting army. It was a national duty to conserve the resources of the country. Thus it was urged that national justice, national strength, and national necessity demanded legislation for the vocational rehabilitation of the industrially disabled persons.

This proposed legislation, it was said, was necessary to complete the line of service begun under the Smith-Hughes Act.¹⁹ The machinery was already established in the Federal Government and the States to carry out a program of civilian rehabilitation without great difficulty. The rehabilitation of the disabled soldiers and sailors was resulting in the accumulation of valuable experience and the Government was therefore in a position to give direction to the work. That direction, it was believed, was needed by the States.

Undoubtedly the tendency toward national organization in economic life helped to emphasize the national aspect of the problem. This tendency was greatly strengthened by the organization of the Nation for war purposes. Its further development appears inevitable.

The proposal had excellent support. The American Association for Labor Legislation conducted an active campaign as early as the fall of 1918 in behalf of the measure.²⁰ The American Museum of Safety, the United States Employees' Compensation Commission, the American Federation of Labor, the National Association of Manufacturers, the New York State Industrial Commission, the Federal Board for Vocational Education, the Red Cross Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men, and other groups and individuals promoted the movement. Thus the support was broadly representative of the manufacturing interests, the labor interests, the philanthropic interests, and the governmental interests of the country.

3. Federal Cooperation Provided

The bill was introduced in the ensuing Congress.²¹ In the Senate the Smith bill was favorably reported from committee, and in the House of Representatives the Fess bill likewise received a favorable committee report.²²

The debates in both Houses were lengthy. The outstanding defenders of the bill in the Senate were Hoke Smith, of Georgia, William

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 3-7.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 43-44.

²¹ 66th Cong., S. 18, introduced by Senator Hoke Smith, of Georgia; H.R. 1206, introduced by Representative William Bankhead, of Alabama; H.R. 4438, introduced by Representative Simeon Fess, of Ohio; H.R. 7163, introduced by Representative John Nolan, of California.

²² 66th Cong. S.Rept. 1 and H.Rept. 145.

Kenyon, of Iowa; and Kenneth McKellar, of Tennessee. Among the outspoken protagonists in the House of Representatives were Simeon Fess, of Ohio; William Bankhead, of Alabama; Horace Towner, of Iowa; and John Nolan, of California.

The opposition in the Senate was voiced principally by three men. Senator William King, of Utah, believed the States were "being debauched by Federal appropriations", their "vitality and moral fiber" were being weakened.²³ The appropriation of Federal funds to the States he thought was wholly wrong in principle. Senator Joseph Frelinghuysen, of New Jersey, opposed the bill because of "the unfair system of apportionment" of the appropriations whereby the richer States helped to pay for work in the poorer States in the South and the far West.²⁴ Senator Lawrence Sherman, of Illinois, regarded the bill with its broad provisions for a great variety of disabled persons as "a misdirected measure of charity."²⁵ This bill and others like it for education were, he thought, "no more nor less than bribes, open and direct, to the State authorities."²⁶ A "wave of maudlin sentiment," he said, was "washing over this country," which would not subside until the people's incomes had been impaired and their sensibilities had been shocked "by the worthless element of humanity that abuses those sensibilities."²⁷

The opposition in the House of Representatives was particularly marked. Representative Simeon Fess said it had developed in an unexpected manner and was "the result of weeks of propaganda."²⁸ According to Mr. Fess the opposition did not go to the merits of the bill, it was rather directed at the Federal Board for Vocational Education in its rehabilitation of soldiers and sailors because the Board could not do what certain people desired. It was argued by the opposition that the Government ought not to extend this aid in its existing financial condition.²⁹ The time for such legislation was said to be inopportune because the Federal Board for Vocational Education was unable to discharge the duties already placed upon it.³⁰ It was also insisted that the Government had no duty to rehabilitate a man who had been crippled in private enterprise.³¹ One Member of the House made a vigorous attack on the bill on the plea that it was uncon-

²³ Cong. Rec., 58: 514, 515.

²⁴ Ibid., p. 516.

²⁵ Ibid., p. 1389.

²⁶ Ibid., p. 1385.

²⁷ Ibid., p. 1388.

²⁸ Ibid., p. 6552.

²⁹ Ibid., pp. 6645, 6744, 6903.

³⁰ Ibid., pp. 6736, 6742, 6743.

³¹ Ibid., p. 6744. Remarks by Representative Joseph Walsh, of Massachusetts.

stitutional.³² It was also insisted that service of this type was a duty of the States rather than the Federal Government.³³ Several Representatives did not think there was any great demand from the people for Federal cooperation in civilian rehabilitation.³⁴ Some of the debate in the House of Representatives was rather acrimonious. Many statements made showed that the purposes of the measure were not clearly understood. The bill finally passed the House by a vote of 196 to 105.³⁵

The Fess bill then went to the Senate. That body had already passed the Smith bill for vocational rehabilitation.³⁶ It consequently referred the Fess bill to the Committee on Education and Labor. The chairman of the committee, Senator William Kenyon, of Iowa, reported the committee recommendation, which was to strike from the bill passed by the House of Representatives all after the enacting clause and insert the bill passed by the Senate.³⁷ The Senate adopted the recommendation and the House of Representatives agreed to the action.³⁸

Three features of the bill furnished the occasion for much discussion. The first of these was the classes of persons to whom the provision should apply. The Senate Committee on Education and Labor considered the matter and decided that the bill should be for those who were "disabled in industry or otherwise", thus making it broad enough to include all disabled persons.³⁹ The same phrase appeared in the House bill, but the Committee on Education proposed that the service be for those persons who had been disabled in "industrial pursuits, including agriculture, trade, commerce, manufacturing, mining, transportation, and all the mechanic arts." The House of Representatives accepted this limitation,⁴⁰ but it was not accepted by the Senate. This matter became a storm center around which much of the discussion raged. Should the provision be only for those who were disabled while they were employed in industry or should it broadly include all disabled persons? And should the service reach those who were ill from tuberculosis and other diseases rather than only those disabled through accidents? Should it be limited to certain classes or should it be a broad conservation measure intended to help

³² Ibid., p. 6742. Rufus Hardy, of Texas.

³³ Ibid., p. 7027. Remarks by Representative Hatton W. Sumners, of Texas.

³⁴ Ibid., pp. 6743, 6744.

³⁵ Ibid., p. 7079. 9 answered "present" and 120 were reported as "not voting."

³⁶ Ibid., p. 1302.

³⁷ Ibid., vol. 59, p. 1312.

³⁸ Ibid., pp. 5535-5536, 7603. Appendix VI.

³⁹ Ibid., vol. 58, p. 1384.

⁴⁰ Ibid., p. 6915.

all who were in need of assistance? The question was finally settled by the use of the phrase "persons disabled in industry or in any legitimate occupation", and the inclusion of a section in the bill which for the purpose of the act construed "persons disabled" to mean "any person who, by reason of a physical defect or infirmity, whether congenital or acquired by accident, injury, or disease, is, or may be expected to be, totally or partially incapacitated for remunerative occupation."

The financial status of the persons to be rehabilitated was also considered. A number of Senators and Representatives desired that the act apply only to persons who were unable to provide for their own rehabilitation.⁴¹ This idea was included in the House bill but it was definitely rejected by the Senate.⁴² It was not incorporated in the act.

The second feature of the bill which was much discussed was the appropriations. There was some question as to the amounts to be appropriated to the States, but this did not become a serious issue except as there was objection to all appropriations for this purpose. The original bills included permanent appropriations. The House of Representatives amended its bill so as to authorize rather than make the appropriations.⁴³ Inasmuch as the Senate bill, rather than the House bill, became the law, the act made the appropriations. The Senate adopted the idea of limiting the appropriations to 4 years⁴⁴ and this provision was included in the act:

The third feature of the bill which received much attention was the amount appropriated for use by the Federal Board for Vocational Education. The original bills called for an annual appropriation of \$200,000 for this purpose. This item was severely criticized in both branches of Congress.⁴⁵ The amount was reduced in both the Senate and the House of Representatives and the bill as enacted included an annual appropriation of \$75,000 to the Federal Board for Vocational Education for making investigations and reports and for expenses incurred in the administration of the act.

One point which was briefly discussed was the scope of the services to be included. In the early stages of the movement Dr. Harry E. Mock stated that the proposal for vocational rehabilitation did not reach far enough, that it was merely a piece-meal measure.⁴⁶ He urged the appointment of a commission composed of a group of men

⁴¹ Ibid., vol. 58, pp. 1383, 1458, 6657.

⁴² Ibid., pp. 7079, 1458.

⁴³ Ibid., p. 6915.

⁴⁴ Ibid., vol. 59, p. 5536.

⁴⁵ Ibid., pp. 1456, 7038-7039.

⁴⁶ U.S. Congress, Committees on Education and Labor, Joint Hearings on H.R. 4972, pp. 23-25, 40.

familiar with the subject of human conservation to study the entire situation and draft a model bill covering every phase of conservation of man power rather than vocational training. His statement was:

Such a bill should include prevention of disease and accidents in industry; adequate medical and surgical care for the disabled; adequate compensation for the injured, and health insurance so that his dependents are cared for; proper reemployment after the disabilities are cured; and, finally, vocational training when the nature of the disability makes this necessary.⁴⁷

4. Provisions of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act

The Vocational Rehabilitation Act appropriated \$796,000 to the States for the year beginning with July 1920, and \$1,034,000 for each of the 3 succeeding years, for the purpose of cooperating with them in the rehabilitation of disabled persons and their return to civil employment. These appropriations were apportioned to the States on the basis of their total population, with a minimum of \$5,000 to each State.

Before a State could participate in the appropriations it was required to accept the provisions of the act and match the Federal funds to which it was entitled and designate as its cooperating agency the board which administered the Smith-Hughes Act in the State.⁴⁸ The Federal administration of the act was put in the hands of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. The State board was required to submit its plan annually to the Federal Board for Vocational Education for approval.

Federal and matching funds were to be used chiefly to pay for the special training of such handicapped persons as were entitled to vocational rehabilitation. The Federal Board for Vocational Education construed the act to provide only vocational rehabilitation and placement and not maintenance, therapeutic treatment, physical restoration, or occupational therapy.⁴⁹

The appropriations continued only for a period of 4 years. In 1924, the act was amended and its provisions were extended to June 30, 1930.⁵⁰ Annual appropriations of \$1,034,000 were authorized for 6 years. In 1930 the act was again amended and extended to June 30, 1933.⁵¹ The minimum allotment to each State was set at \$10,000 and the annual appropriation authorized was consequently raised to \$1,097,000.

⁴⁷ Ibid., p. 25.

⁴⁸ Before the Federal law was enacted 8 States took the necessary steps, in anticipation of the act, to accept its provisions (Cong. Rec., 59: 7596).

⁴⁹ Federal Board for Vocational Education, Bulletin, No. 77, pp. 9-10.

⁵⁰ Appendix VII.

⁵¹ Ibid.

5. Vocational Rehabilitation for the Territories and the District of Columbia

When the Vocational Rehabilitation Act was passed, an unsuccessful attempt was made to have it apply to the Territories.⁵² Not until 1924 were the benefits of the act extended to the Territory of Hawaii.⁵³ For this purpose an annual Federal appropriation of \$5,000 was authorized indefinitely, beginning in July 1924. In 1931 the Territory of Puerto Rico was also admitted to the benefits of the Act.⁵⁴ The sum of \$15,000 was authorized to be appropriated annually for 2 years, beginning in July 1931.

In 1929, Congress passed an act to provide for the vocational rehabilitation of disabled persons in the District of Columbia, to begin in July 1929.⁵⁵ It vested the Federal Board for Vocational Education with authority to organize and administer a vocational rehabilitation service for the District and authorized annual appropriations of \$15,000 and equal appropriations of District funds for matching the Federal appropriation.

6. The Vocational Rehabilitation Act Extended to 1937

In anticipation of the expiration of the vocational rehabilitation act in 1933, Representative William Bankhead, of Alabama, on December 8, 1931, introduced in the House of Representatives a bill to extend the Federal aid for this service.⁵⁶ It was intended to authorize, without a time limit, annual appropriations of \$1,565,000, of which sum \$65,000 was to help pay the minimum allotments to those States which would otherwise not be entitled to the minimum of \$10,000. Also, the annual appropriation to be authorized for the Federal Board for Vocational Education was \$100,000.

The House Committee on Education held an extended hearing on the measure.⁵⁷ Many favorable statements were made, mostly by officials connected with the vocational rehabilitation service in the various States and the Federal Government. They explained the work and its value and the need for Federal aid.

Three statements were made in opposition to the bill or to features of the bill. The authorization of a permanent appropriation was op-

⁵² Cong. Rec., 58: 6916.

⁵³ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 43, p. 18.

⁵⁴ Ibid., vol. 46, p. 1489.

⁵⁵ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 45, p. 1260.

⁵⁶ 72d Cong., H.R. 4743: Senator Royal Copeland, of New York, introduced in the Senate a bill bearing the same title as the Bankhead bill (72d Cong., S. 3818).

⁵⁷ House Committee on Education, Hearing on H.R. 4743, Jan. 21, 22, 23, 1932.

posed by R. M. Little, chief of the New York State Rehabilitation Bureau; he thought the act should run for 3 years only and that at the expiration of that time all Federal aid for vocational rehabilitation should cease.⁵⁸ He wished to reduce the appropriation from \$1,500,000 to \$1,000,000 and to reduce the sum for the Federal Board for Vocational Education to \$75,000. The National Catholic Welfare Conference, in a written statement, also opposed the permanent feature of the appropriation.⁵⁹

The only pronounced statement in opposition to the measure was made by Frank L. Peckham, an attorney at law residing in Washington, D.C., who represented the Sentinels of the Republic.⁶⁰ He argued that legislation of this type was "gradually washing away all semblance of American doctrines of local self-government" and that it was "vitiated the strength and virility of the States and of their inhabitants." He held that the bill was unconstitutional because it conferred on a Federal agency power which the Constitution never reposed in the Government, though he admitted that under the decisions of the Supreme Court it was practically impossible to have this type of legislation declared unconstitutional.

When the committee reported the bill to the House, it submitted four amendments: (1) That the authorized appropriation to the States and Territories be \$1,000,000; (2) that the sum appropriated to help pay the minimum allotments be \$97,000; (3) that the authorized appropriation for the Federal Board for Vocational Education be \$80,000; and (4) that the appropriations be authorized for 4 years instead of permanently.⁶¹ All of these amendments were adopted by the House.⁶²

The measure was debated at some length in the House.⁶³ Most of the discussion was favorable to the bill, but there was also some opposition. Representative Vincent Palmisano, of Maryland, opposed the Federal centralization of power, and he insisted that vocational rehabilitation was a matter for State action. A Representative of Missouri, John Cochran, thought it was the duty of the States, and not of the Federal Government, to care for the people within the boundaries of the States and that the principle of Federal aid was unsound except for emergencies. Representative John McDuffie, of Alabama, said

⁵⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 61-66, 68-77. Incidentally he expressed himself as opposed to the policy of the Federal Board in promoting the decentralization of vocational rehabilitation in the various States.

⁵⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 107.

⁶⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 105-113.

⁶¹ 72d Cong., H.Rept. No. 898.

⁶² Cong. Rec., 75: 10590.

⁶³ *Ibid.*, pp. 10575-10598.

that no one knew where Congress would stop nor what the future might bring forth to the form of government, and he asked how long the Government could be perpetuated if it was continued as "the wet nurse of all the citizens of this Republic."

Several efforts were made to change the provisions of the bill. An amendment was proposed by Representative William Holaday, of Illinois, to reduce the appropriations to the States and Territories by \$100,000 each year, but it was ruled out of order. He later tried to have the bill recommitted to the Committee on Education with instructions to report it with his amendment, but this motion was rejected by a vote of 69 to 43. Representative Marvin Jones, of Texas, tried, without success, to eliminate from the bill the provision requiring the approval of State plans by the Federal Board for Vocational Education. An amendment was offered by Representative Francis Condon, of Rhode Island, to withhold Federal aid to a State if it permitted the employment of children under 16 years of age, but it was ruled out of order. He also wished to write into the measure a provision investing the Supreme Court with jurisdiction to determine the constitutionality of the act, on petition of the governors of at least 13 States; this proposal was also ruled out of order. An effort was made by Representative John McDuffie, of Alabama, to have the authorized appropriation to the Federal Board for Vocational Education reduced to \$50,000, but his proposal was rejected by a vote of 56 to 41. The bill passed the House without a record of the votes.

The bill was favorably reported to the Senate, and that body passed it without amendment, the debate being very limited.⁶⁴ The measure was in accord with the wishes of the President, and it became a law with his approval on June 30, 1932.⁶⁵

7. A Proposal to Care for Physically Handicapped Children

The Federal appropriation for vocational rehabilitation was made to provide for the "vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise and their placement in employment." It was limited to persons more than 14 or 16 years of age, depending on the minimum employment ages within the States. After this program was well developed a movement was initiated to extend Federal cooperation to service for physically handicapped children.

The number of physically handicapped children in the United States is not definitely known, but it has been estimated (1930) as follows: (1) 3,000,000 with impaired hearing, including 17,000 deaf; (2) 65,000

⁶⁴ Ibid., pp. 12745, 13983-13984.

⁶⁵ U.S. Stat.L., vol. 47, p. 448.

visually handicapped, including 15,000 blind and 50,000 partially seeing; (3) 300,000 crippled; (4) 400,000 tuberculous and 850,000 suspected tuberculous; and (5) 450,000 with cardiac limitations.⁶⁶

The group of physically handicapped children that has during the past decade attracted the most attention is the crippled children, partly because they had been the most neglected and partly because the proper treatment of these children has recently been developed. The movement to provide for this group of children began with private efforts, which in time became widespread. States became interested, and by 1931 more than 100 laws had been passed dealing more or less with crippled children, some of which jointly concerned other types of handicapped children.⁶⁷ This legislation was directed toward three types of function: (1) Locating; (2) providing medical, surgical, hospital, and convalescent care; and (3) education, rehabilitation, and employment. An estimate in 1931 was to the effect that all the agencies at work on the problem took care of approximately 6 percent of the total number of cases each year.⁶⁸

A group of citizens who were much interested in the problem of the crippled child organized the International Society for Crippled Children in 1921, which was incorporated in 1929 under the laws of Ohio.⁶⁹ It seeks to promote public intelligence on crippled children and such cooperation among all child-caring agencies as will "insure to crippled children everywhere the best medical attention and an education suited to their needs." The society has carried on a splendid work in organizing State and provincial societies, assisting in drafting legislation in behalf of cripples, collecting information on cripples, holding international conferences, and publishing a magazine, *The Crippled Child*. Its annual conventions draw together many agencies and individuals interested in crippled children. Its definition of a cripple is "one who by reason of congenital or acquired defects of development, disease, or injury is deficient in the use of his body or limbs."

The Federal Government has indirectly shown some interest in this problem. In 1912 it organized the Children's Bureau in the Department of Commerce and Labor to investigate and report upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child life among all classes of the people.⁷⁰ This action was a result of the first White House Conference on Children in 1916. The second White House Conference, on Minimum Standards of Child Welfare, held in 1919,

⁶⁶ White House Conference, 1930. Addresses and Abstracts of Committee Reports, p. 292.

⁶⁷ Senate Committee on Education and Labor, Hearing on S. 6227, Feb. 28, 1931, pp. 31-32.

⁶⁸ Ibid., p. 37.

⁶⁹ The International Society for Crippled Children, Inc., What it is and What it Does, p. 2.

⁷⁰ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 37, p. 79.

included a section on children in need of special care.⁷¹ The third White House Conference, on Child Health and Protection, called in 1929 and held in 1930, took in all children, and one of the four sections was devoted to the handicapped child.⁷² Among the aims included in the Children's Charter of 1930, which resulted from the White House Conference, was the following: "For every child who is blind, deaf, crippled, or otherwise physically handicapped, and for the child who is mentally handicapped, such measures as will early discover and diagnose his handicap, provide care and treatment, and so train him that he may become an asset to society rather than a liability."⁷³ These various manifestations of Federal interest in crippled children and the success of the vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise directed attention to the national character and importance of caring for these children.

By 1930 the movement to provide care and education for crippled children had arrived at the point where a number of the leaders thought Federal assistance and guidance should be had. A bill was therefore drawn "to provide for cooperation with the several States in the care, treatment, and rehabilitation of crippled children", and it was introduced in Congress by Senator Royal Copeland, of New York.⁷⁴ It was intended to authorize appropriations, beginning with \$1,000,000 for the fiscal year 1931 and increasing by \$1,000,000 a year until the fiscal year 1935, when the authorized appropriation was to be \$5,000,000. The appropriations were to be subject to a matching requirement, and they were to be apportioned to the States on a total-population basis. The Federal administration was to be vested in the United States Public Health Service. Crippled children were defined as "persons below the age of 21 years who have some serious physical defect that may be corrected or improved by surgery and medical care."

From time to time the bill was revised and reintroduced in both branches of Congress. The scope was materially broadened to include physically handicapped children, who were defined as "any persons below the age of 21 years who by reason of physical defects or infirmities, whether congenital or acquired by accident, injury, or disease, are or may be expected to be totally or partially incapacitated for participation in the educational and vocational activities expected of normal persons."⁷⁵ The services for these children were stated as physical rehabilitation, education, vocational guidance, vocational

⁷¹ White House Conference, 1930, op. cit., p. iii.

⁷² Ibid.

⁷³ Ibid., p. 47.

⁷⁴ 71st Cong., S. 3336. Jan. 23, 1930.

⁷⁵ 71st Cong., S. 6227. Feb. 17, 1931.

education, and placement and follow-up in employment. Also, the Federal Board for Vocational Education was designated as the Federal agency to cooperate with the States and Territories in the proposed program.

Through the efforts of the International Society for Crippled Children a hearing was had on the measure before the Senate Committee on Education and Labor.⁷⁰ The Director of the Federal Board for Vocational Education explained the provisions of the bill and their relation to the vocational rehabilitation system. Representatives of the International Society for Crippled Children, the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, and the National Rehabilitation Association spoke in favor of the bill and a representative of the Sentinels of the Republic spoke in opposition.

The proponents of the measure contended that Federal aid was needed for three important reasons. First, a comprehensive program should be developed. It was estimated that only about 6 percent of the crippled children were cared for annually. The cost was more than the State legislatures could be induced to appropriate for, this purpose, but with Federal aid every State would begin at once to meet the need. Moreover, the program should correlate all public activities for disabled children. Duplication of effort and lack of cooperation among agencies interested in the problem hindered effective work.

Second, there was need to develop a sound program covering all aspects of service. The service for these children was not fully effective because it lacked system, and in many cases it did not go far enough. The results of the service for crippled children should be thoroughly studied and upon such investigations, exhaustive in character and expensive, a rational plan could be based. The inspiration and guidance of the Federal Government was desired to develop a sound program.

Third, the development of this work would render a preventive service by putting children in proper condition and in this way relieve the vocational-rehabilitation service for adults. If physical restoration is delayed until the age of 14 or 16 years is reached, it is in many cases impossible to bring about a sufficient restoration to make the children employable. This early physical restoration of children would enable the States to do their work in rehabilitation more effectively and serve a larger number of persons than could be accomplished under the vocational-rehabilitation program. The proposed extension of Federal

⁷⁰ Hearing on S. 6227, Feb. 28, 1931.

aid would make possible a complete service for all disabled persons.

The argument in opposition to this and similar measures was fairly comprehended in the following statement:

The measures are unconstitutional in that they inject the Federal Government into activities not delegated to the central Government by the provisions of the Constitution. They provide for the diversion from Federal activities to purely State and local activities, of funds collected through the Federal taxing power for Federal purposes. Through control over the Federal appropriations of governmental bureaus in Washington, they assume virtual control over the activities of State and local authorities engaged in various local enterprises. They tend to standardize methods of dealing with various human problems and discourage local experimentation, which has always proved to be the most effective means of trying out and determining the value or uselessness of methods of handling social problems." 77

No action was taken by the Senate committee. The bill has been introduced in each Congress since the hearing was held, in order that the problem might be kept before the Senators and Representatives. Recently it has not been actively promoted.

⁷⁷Ibid., p. 46.

Chapter IV

Related Developments

1. The Maternity Act

An act of Congress which was politically closely related to the acts for Federal cooperation in agricultural extension work and vocational education was one for the promotion of the welfare and hygiene of maternity and infancy, generally known as the "Sheppard-Towner," or the "Maternity," Act, passed November 23, 1921.¹ It authorized an initial appropriation of \$1,480,000 and thereafter annual appropriations of \$1,440,000 for a period of 5 years, to be apportioned among the States. The appropriations were limited to those States which accepted and complied with the provisions of the act. One section of the act required each State receiving the Federal appropriation to match a part of the amount it received.

The act created a Board of Maternity and Infant Welfare, consisting of the Chief of the Children's Bureau, the Surgeon General of the United States Public Health Service, and the United States Commissioner of Education, and charged the Children's Bureau with the general administration of the act. The Secretary of the Treasury was authorized to make payment to a State as he received proper certificates from the Children's Bureau stating that the State had complied with the law. In the provisions for Federal cooperation with the States and the State matching of Federal appropriations this act was in the same class as the acts for agricultural extension work, vocational education, and vocational rehabilitation.

2. A Test of Constitutionality

An important interest in the maternity act is the fact that the first, and so far the only, attempt to test the constitutionality of the legislation for Federal cooperation with the States in education arose under it. Two cases came before the Supreme Court of the United States in 1923.² The first was an original suit brought by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, for herself as representative of her citizens, against the Secretary of the Treasury, the Chief of the Children's Bureau, the Surgeon General, and the United States Commissioner of Education. The purpose of the suit was to enjoin the enforcement of the maternity

¹ U. S. Stat. L., vol. 43, pp. 224-226.

² U.S. Reports, vol. 262, pp. 447-499. The first case is listed in the records as *Commonwealth of Massachusetts v. Mellon, Secretary of the Treasury, et. al.*, and the second case as *Frothingham v. Mellon, Secretary of the Treasury, et. al.*

act. The second case, designed for the same general purpose, was begun in the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia and dismissed by that court. This decree was affirmed by the District Court of Appeals, whereupon the plaintiff appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States. Since both cases challenged the constitutionality of the maternity act they were joined by the Court and only one opinion was rendered.

In the first case the Commonwealth of Massachusetts argued that the act was invalid, first, because it assumed powers not granted to Congress and usurped local police power. The power to regulate their internal affairs and provide for the general welfare of their people, it was maintained, rested entirely with the States and it had never been surrendered to the United States. The power to make appropriations, though conceded to be found in the taxing power, was not regarded as having a scope broad enough for such appropriations as the maternity act authorized. Further objection was made to the act on the ground that the proposed appropriations were not general in their application but were confined to those States which accepted the provisions of the act and appropriated their own funds for the purposes of the act. It was argued that an appropriation by Congress discriminating between States which accept its conditions and make appropriations to match, and States which do not, was on its face purely arbitrary, having no legitimate relation to the general welfare of the country. It was also contended that the act was not made valid by the circumstance that the Federal authority was to be exercised only with respect to those States which accepted the act, for the State legislatures could not yield, and Congress could not assume, the powers reserved to the States by the Constitution.

Second, it was argued that the act was invalid because it imposed on each State an illegal option either to yield a part of its powers reserved by the tenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States or to give up its share of appropriations under the act.³ A statute which attempts, by imposing conditions upon a general privilege, to exact a waiver of a constitutional right, it was asserted, was null and void.

Third, the plaintiff considered the act invalid because it set up a system of government by cooperation between the Federal Government and certain of the States, not provided by the Constitution. Congress, it was said, cannot make laws for the States, and it cannot

³ The tenth amendment is, "The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people."

delegate to the States the power to make laws for the United States. Each sovereignty executes its own laws and not the laws of any other. The powers and duties of all Federal bodies and officials are to administer Federal law and that alone. The Constitution does not contemplate a government by cooperation between the United States and the several States in the enforcement of joint laws. On the contrary the two governments, Federal and State, are entirely distinct, each being supreme in its separate sphere. The act, it was asserted, was invalid because it purported to delegate congressional powers to State agencies and administrative boards.

Thus the Commonwealth of Massachusetts attacked the validity of the maternity act on three grounds. In the argument it referred to "the magnitude and extent of the forces by which, through the medium of this modern scheme of legislation, the structure of our Federal Government is being broken down."

In the second case the appellant (the plaintiff) attacked the maternity act as being in violation of the Constitution of the United States, no authority having been conferred thereby upon the Secretary of the Treasury to make any of the payments mentioned in the act. The plaintiff asserted that if the payments were made she would suffer a direct injury in that she would be subjected to taxation to pay her proportionate share of such unauthorized payments. Furthermore, it was insisted that the act was invalid because it attempted to authorize an appropriation of money out of the Treasury of the United States wholly outside any authority or power conferred upon the Government by the Constitution. It was also stated that the act was invalid because it amounted to a delegation to a subordinate agency by Congress of legislative power in violation of the Constitution. The statement was made that the act was invalid as an attempt to make a virtual amendment of the Constitution by compact with the States.

The substance of the opinion of the Supreme Court was stated as follows:

We have reached the conclusion that the cases must be disposed of for want of jurisdiction without considering the merits of the constitutional questions.

In the first case, the State of Massachusetts presents no justiciable controversy either in its own behalf or as the representative of its citizens. The appellant in the second suit has no such interest in the subject-matter, nor is any such injury inflicted or threatened, as will enable her to sue.

The Court did not rest with these statements. It proceeded to point out certain rather important considerations. It said that the powers of the State were not invaded since the statute imposed no

obligation but simply extended an option which the State was free to accept or reject. In considering the nature of the right of the State asserted by the plaintiff and the way in which that right was affected by the statute, the Court said,

Reduced to its simplest terms, it is alleged that the statute constitutes an attempt to legislate outside the powers granted to Congress by the Constitution and within the field of local powers exclusively reserved to the States. . . .

In the last analysis, the complaint of the plaintiff State is brought to the naked contention that Congress has usurped the reserved powers of the several States by the mere enactment of the statute, though nothing has been done and nothing is to be done without their consent; and it is plain that that question, as it is thus presented, is political and not judicial in character, and therefore is not a matter which admits of the exercise of the judicial power.

The Court held that no rights of the State falling within the scope of the judicial power had been brought within the actual or threatened operation of the statute and the Court was without authority to pass abstract opinions upon the constitutionality of acts of Congress. The Court would not concede that a State might institute judicial proceedings to protect citizens of the United States from the operation of the statutes thereof. The citizens of Massachusetts are also citizens of the United States and as such come under the statutes of the United States.

Regarding the second case the Court stated that the unconstitutionality of an act of Congress may be considered only when some direct injury is suffered or threatened, and the party must be able to show that he has sustained or is immediately in danger of sustaining some direct injury as the result of enforcement, and not merely that he suffers in common with people generally. The party who brought the suit had no such case. The effect of a congressional appropriation on a taxpayer is obviously too remote and indirect to permit him to question its constitutionality.

This decision in effect seems to make impossible legal attacks on any appropriation made by Congress. The statement is so clear and forceful that it is not likely an effort will be made to test further the right of Congress to make appropriations and enact legislation for Federal cooperation with the States.

3. Other Efforts to Obtain Federal Aid for Education in the States

The efforts to secure Federal cooperation in agricultural extension work and vocational education have in the main been successful. The development of Federal interest in these types of education has gone forward at a rather rapid pace. Furthermore, it is obvious that

the efforts of those who are interested in these types of education have by no means ceased.

At the same time repeated requests have been made to Congress to enter into subsidizing other types of education. One of these special types is rural education. At least five bills were introduced in the Sixty-fourth Congress (1915-17) for the promotion of rural education, and practically every Congress since that time has seen proposals in one form or another for Federal aid to rural education. One of the most recent of these bills, introduced in the Seventy-first Congress, was to aid in the reduction of taxes on farm lands and to cooperate in promoting elementary education in rural areas of the United States.⁴ Another educational interest which has been urged on Congress at various times is the elimination of illiteracy. This matter has been presented to practically every Congress during the past 20 years. For 8 years (1917-25) there were special bills in Congress for Federal aid to physical education. The promoters of engineering experiment stations in the land-grant colleges and universities have repeatedly requested the Federal Government to subsidize these enterprises. Civic education, adult education, and world-wide extension in education have also been promoted in Congress.

The outstanding movement to obtain Federal aid for education in recent years had its inception in 1918 when the Commission on the National Emergency in Education, appointed by the National Education Association, drafted a bill to create a department of education and "to appropriate money for Federal cooperation with the States in the encouragement and support of education."⁵ This proposal, known as the "Smith-Towner bill", contained annual appropriations of \$100,000,000 to be used for the eradication of illiteracy, Americanization, equalizing educational opportunity, physical education, and the preparation of teachers. The bill, with slight changes, was introduced in each succeeding Congress until 1925, when it was greatly modified and the appropriations were eliminated. Of all the educational measures in Congress this one has been the most promoted. It is also the one which has stirred up the greatest opposition. At various times the bill was favorably reported on by Senate and House committees, but it never received serious consideration by either branch of Congress.

⁴H.R. 2570, May 6, 1929; S. 1491, June 4, 1929.

⁵65th Cong., S. 4987 and H.R. 15238. National Education Association, Brief Sketch of the Movement for a Department of Education, p. 1.

4. Organized Opposition; Sentinels of the Republic⁶

The efforts made to obtain Federal cooperation with the States in various educational and other social enterprises gave rise to at least one organization that is aimed at opposing all these measures. This organization, known as the Sentinels of the Republic, was formed in 1922, principally by citizens residing in New York and Massachusetts, and it was incorporated under the laws of Massachusetts.

The purposes of the Sentinels of the Republic are the following:

To maintain the fundamental principles of the American Constitution, to oppose further Federal encroachment upon the reserved rights of the States and of the individual citizen, to stop the spread of communism, to prevent the concentration of power in Washington through the multiplication of administrative bureaus under a perverted interpretation of the general-welfare clause, to help preserve a free republican form of government in the United States.

Two classes of members comprise the organization: (1) a group of approximately 1,000, who pay dues, and (2) a group of approximately 10,000 who have subscribed to the purposes of the Sentinels but make no contributions. Every State in the Union is represented, but there is a larger number of contributing members in Massachusetts than in any other State. A large percentage of the members are lawyers.

The Sentinels hold an annual meeting in Washington, D.C., usually in January. This meeting is attended by a small number of members. The organization is managed by an executive committee of 42 members, which meets twice a year. An office in charge of a whole-time executive secretary is maintained in Washington, D.C. The annual budget is approximately \$7,000.

The organization is active in opposing proposed Federal policies that are contrary to its principles. Its plan of action is stated as follows:

The plan of action is carefully worked out. A policy committee, appointed by the executive committee, examines every bill introduced into Congress that appears to have relation to the purposes of the Sentinels. The information thus obtained is submitted to the executive committee, and recommendations are made for consideration by the Sentinels at the annual meeting. At each annual meeting a program of legislative policies is adopted and then sent to every enrolled Sentinel, in order that all may be fully advised of the policies to be pursued.

It is the practice of the Sentinels of the Republic to attend hearings before congressional committees on measures which are included in their program of legislative policies, to arrange for speakers and written communications from those who cannot be present, to confer and cooperate with Senators and Congressmen in sympathy with their views, and to mobilize the efforts of Sentinels and others of like faith in combating

⁶Except as otherwise indicated, the information regarding the organization was obtained from a pamphlet—Sentinels of the Republic, and from H. G. Torbert, Executive Secretary of the Sentinels of the Republic, July 24, 1934.

or supporting, as the case may be, measures which are opposed or favored by the Sentinels.

A limited amount of publicity is carried on by the organization. During the winter 1931-32 the Sentinels sponsored a series of 20 national radio broadcasts on Government and various proposed and adopted Federal policies, and in February 1934 this organization and the National Committee for the Protection of Child, Family, School, and Church sponsored 4 national radio broadcasts opposing the adoption of the proposed child-labor amendment to the Federal Constitution.

The Sentinels of the Republic have exerted an important influence. The organization attacked the maternity act, which had been passed by Congress in 1921. Largely through its effort Massachusetts refused to accept the act, and suits were instituted in the Federal courts by an individual taxpayer and by the State, to test its constitutionality. The Sentinels waged an intensive and successful campaign in Massachusetts against the ratification of the child-labor amendment in 1924 and "then carried the fight into other States, sending letters to every member of every State legislature, with copies of the literature used in Massachusetts." Also, the organization claims a large share of credit for the blocking of the bill to create a Federal department of education. Recently it has exerted its efforts to prevent the adoption of the child-labor amendment to the Constitution, with the result that the amendment was not ratified by any of the 12 State legislatures which considered it in 1934.

5. The National Advisory Committee on Education

At various times during the discussions of Federal cooperation in agricultural extension work and vocational education there were suggestions that a commission should be appointed to study in a broad way the relation of the Federal Government to education. Apparently these suggestions received little serious consideration until recently. In May 1929, the Secretary of the Interior organized the National Advisory Committee on Education, a group of 52 citizens appointed by President Hoover.⁷ The President in his annual message to Congress in 1929 said:

In view of the considerable difference of opinion as to policies which should be pursued by the Federal Government with respect to education, I have appointed a committee representative of the important educational associations and others to investigate and present recommendations.

⁷ National Advisory Committee on Education, *Federal Relations to Education*, pt. 1, p. 9.

The committee elected from its own number a conference committee to have general direction of the investigation. To finance the work a grant of \$100,000 was provided by the Julius Rosenwald Fund, and in November 1929 a staff was organized to compile the information needed.

After extensive investigation and discussion the committee made its final report in October 1931. A large part of the report is devoted to a presentation of the basic facts underlying educational policy in the United States and its Territories and outlying parts, particularly with reference to the participation of the Federal Government in education. The report also contains 38 definite recommendations regarding Federal relations to education in the States, education in special Federal areas, education of the Indians and other indigenous peoples, education in the Territories and outlying parts, the training of Government personnel, research and information service, and international intellectual relations.

Among the most important recommendations of the committee are those bearing on Federal aid for education in the States.⁶ Regarding the established Federal policy the committee was very critical. It emphasized the principle that political control of the purposes and processes of public education should remain with the State, territorial, or other regional or local governments. In line with this principle the committee recommended the amendment of all laws which give or tend to give the Federal Government and its agencies power to interfere with the autonomy of the States in educational matters. It recommended further that the Federal audit of funds appropriated for education in the States be limited to the audits made by the Treasury Department, that the audits be merely to determine whether or not moneys granted had been spent for the educational purposes defined in the appropriation acts, and that the audit be not made a method of controlling or determining educational standards and processes. It was also recommended that the special educational appropriations then in force be continued for 5 years and until adequate finance surveys could be made as a basis of a sound plan for Federal assistance to the States, but that the matching requirements and Federal authority for approving or rejecting State plans be abandoned. To carry out fully the policy of State autonomy the recommendation was made that no additional laws be enacted granting Federal aid to the States in support of special types of education. From this recommendation the committee excepted emergency appro-

⁶Ibid., pp. 36-39, 83-85.

priations to meet some special or transient crisis involving the use of education, but recommended that such grants be restricted both as to use and time, and that they be not renewed.

Finally, the committee recommended that all future grants to the States for education be made "as grants in aid of education in general, expendable by each State for any or all educational purposes as the State itself may direct." Such grants, it was suggested, should be made after thorough investigations had shown to the Federal appropriating power that the Federal aid is justified; and it was also suggested that the grants should be apportioned to the States on the basis of these investigations, with no flat grants of an equal amount to each State. The committee ventured the further suggestion that Federal grants to the States for education be made for a definite and not an inconclusive period and that they be subject to review at the close of every 10-year census period. The educational grants should, it said, carry no restrictions except that every State accepting the grant agree to make annually to the Federal headquarters for education a full report on all questions on which the Federal headquarters may require information concerning the manner in which the State used the grant.

The representatives of Negro education took exception to the recommendations regarding Federal grants for special educational purposes, and they submitted a minority report to explain their point of view.⁹ These men believed that a firm grappling with the problem of Negro education will inevitably lead the Federal Government in the direction of some form of special grant for at least a limited number of years.

An important recommendation of the committee which had a bearing on Federal cooperation in vocational education was that the Government establish a department of education with a secretary of education at its head.¹⁰ To carry out this plan the committee recommended that the vocational education acts be amended in accordance with the suggestions with respect to Federal aid for education, that the Federal Board for Vocational Education be abolished, and that its remaining functions and the staff be transferred to the department of education.

⁹ Ibid., pp. 105-113.

¹⁰ Ibid., pp. 195-196.

PART IV: ORGANIZATION AND OPERATION OF THE COOPERATIVE SYSTEMS

Chapter I

The Agricultural Extension System¹

1. Purpose of Agricultural Extension Work

Earlier chapters in this study suggest the purposes contemplated by agricultural extension work. The Smith-Lever Act states that

... cooperative agricultural extension work shall consist of the giving of instruction and practical demonstrations in agriculture and home economics to persons not attending or resident in (the land-grant colleges) in the several communities, and imparting to such persons information on said subjects through field demonstrations, publications, and otherwise; . . .

It also states that no part of the Federal funds may be used "in college-course teaching, lectures in college, promoting agricultural trains, or any other purpose not specified in (the) act."

These statements are the foundation of the work of the agricultural extension system. They have been construed rather liberally to include not merely instruction leading to efficient agriculture and home economics but also leading to an intelligent, progressive rural people and a wholesome rural life. The system is an attempt to take to the people on the farms the information discovered by the research workers and to give leadership in working out the problems of rural life. In other words, it is a national effort for "humanizing knowledge."

A recent survey of the land-grant colleges found the principal objectives of the Smith-Lever extension work stated by the institutions to be (1) to increase farm earnings, (2) to improve standards of living, (3) to improve social life, (4) to develop leadership, (5) to develop people, (6) to give opportunities to rural boys and girls, (7) to provide vocational training, (8) to teach cooperation, (9) to improve health of rural people, and (10) to maintain soil fertility.² It was stated that in general there is a tendency to emphasize practical rather than fundamental purposes. The fundamental function of Smith-Lever extension was suggested as "the development of rural people themselves", which is accomplished "by fostering attitudes of mind and capacities which will

¹ The recent statistics used in this chapter were supplied by C. W. Warburton and C. B. Smith.

² U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930, No. 9, pp. 441-442.

enable them better to meet the individual and civic problems with which they are confronted."

2. Nature of the Agricultural Extension System

Under the Smith-Lever Act a system of agricultural extension has been established in which the States through the land-grant colleges and the Federal Government through the Department of Agriculture cooperate to carry on the work. The law states that the work is to be carried on "in such a manner as may be mutually agreed upon by the Secretary of Agriculture and the State agricultural college or colleges receiving the benefits of (the) act." Before the Federal funds granted under the act become available to any college for any fiscal year the college is required to submit plans to the Secretary of Agriculture for the work to be done and to have his approval. At the close of the year each college receiving the benefits of the act must annually make a detailed report of its operations in extension work, including the receipts and expenditures, to the governor of the State, and copies of the report must be sent to the Secretary of Agriculture and the Secretary of the Treasury.

The Federal administration of the agricultural extension system is committed to the Secretary of Agriculture. He certifies annually to the Secretary of the Treasury as to each State whether it is entitled to receive its share of the Federal appropriation and the amount to which it is entitled. He also makes an annual report to Congress on the receipts, expenditures, and results of the extension work. Upon him is conferred extensive administrative authority to safeguard the use of Federal funds. He approves annually the plans of each college for extension work and ascertains whether each State is entitled to receive its Federal allotment.

The Federal act required each State by action of proper authorities to assent to the provisions of the act before the State could participate in the Federal aid. All the States accepted the provisions of the act and prepared to inaugurate the work. In order that there might be agreement on the procedure employed a "memorandum of understanding" was drawn up and made the basis of cooperation.³ It included the things the State agricultural college and the Department of Agriculture agreed to do, and it was signed by the president of the college and the Secretary of Agriculture. Two institutions, the University of California and the University of Arizona, declined to accept the

³ True, Alfred Charles. *A History of Agricultural Extension Work in the United States, 1785-1923* pp. 118-120.

memorandum. The latter afterwards accepted it, but the University of Illinois withdrew its acceptance. However, the general principles set forth in the memorandum were followed in the arrangements for the extension work in all the States.

3. Funds for the Agricultural Extension System

At the basis of the agricultural extension system are the funds appropriated by Congress through the Smith-Lever and the Capper-Ketcham Acts. Under the former each State receives \$10,000 a year and under the latter \$20,000 a year. Both acts provide additional annual amounts, the Smith-Lever Act \$4,100,000 and the Capper-Ketcham Act \$500,000, which are apportioned to the States on the basis of their rural population.⁴ These additional sums must be matched by the State or by contributions from some other source within the State. Congress also appropriates a Federal supplementary Smith-Lever fund, amounting to \$1,580,000 (1935), which is distributed to the States and the Territory of Hawaii on the basis of their rural population. It must be matched by the States and the Territory in the same way as the additional appropriations included in the Smith-Lever Act. Not more than \$300,000 of the supplementary fund may be expended for purposes other than salaries of county agents.

Congress makes several other appropriations for extension work, all of which appear in the act, making appropriations to the Department of Agriculture. The appropriation for the farmers' cooperative demonstration work is used by the Department for cooperation with the land-grant colleges in such ways as may be agreed upon, the greater part of it going toward the payment of county agents and others connected with the agricultural extension system. The rest is used to maintain the Federal office and its field staff. The use of the Clarke-McNary forestry extension funds and the additional cooperative fund, first appropriated for the fiscal year 1931, have been explained in part III, chapter I.

Various bureaus of the Department of Agriculture do some extension work through lectures, etc., to the extent of perhaps \$150,000 a year. The funds used for this purpose are included in the appropriations to the Department for research. This work is done on a cooper-

⁴See appendix VIII.

⁵The Territory of Hawaii is included in the Capper-Ketcham Act, and by subsequent legislation (1928) the Smith-Lever appropriations have been increased to provide for the Territory without diminishing the appropriations to which the States are entitled. The Territory of Puerto Rico was in 1931 admitted to participation in the permanent annual appropriations for extension work and the Federal appropriations were increased for this purpose.

ative basis with the State extension service; but the Federal funds so used are not necessarily matched from other sources.

In actual practice the States and other sources contribute considerably more to the extension service than does the Federal Government (table 1). Measured by the funds spent the agricultural extension system is a large enterprise.

TABLE 1.—Funds spent by the States for cooperative extension work every fifth year, 1915-30 and 1932-33

Year	Federal funds	Funds from State, county, and other sources	Total
1	2	3	4
1914-15	\$1,485,885.13	\$2,111,350.72	\$3,597,235.85
1919-20	5,891,456.71	8,766,623.21	14,658,079.92
1924-25	7,070,330.90	12,268,040.50	19,332,371.40
1929-30	8,732,716.69	15,533,348.18	24,266,064.87
1932-33	9,410,053.31	12,366,787.77	21,776,841.08

4. Federal Organization ⁶

When the Smith-Lever Act was passed, work of the kind contemplated in the act was already being done by several agencies, particularly the Federal Department of Agriculture, State departments of agriculture, State agricultural colleges, and county farm bureaus or similar organizations, with or without public funds. There was much variety in the State and local organizations and in the sources of the funds which supported the work. To unite all these efforts and establish a new and more comprehensive service was the task placed before the Secretary of Agriculture.

Impressed with the growth of the Department of Agriculture, the Secretary in 1914 decided upon a reorganization and Congress authorized him to prepare and submit a plan to accomplish his purpose. In the meantime he appointed a States Relations Committee to deal with the agricultural extension work, and under this arrangement the agricultural extension system was organized.

In 1915 Congress accepted the plan of the Secretary of Agriculture for the reorganization of his department. He then established in the Department the States Relations Service, which included the Office of Experiment Stations, the Office of Extension Work in the South, the Office of Extension Work in the North and West, and the Office of Home Economics. The Service was placed under the direction of Dr. A. C. True. Six years later the administration of the extension

⁶ True, A. C., *op. cit.*, pp. 115-116, 120, 127, 172, 194; Smith, Clarence Beaman, and Wilson, Meredith Chester, *The Agricultural Extension System of the United States*, pp. 15-16.

work in the North and West and the South was combined in the Office of Cooperative Extension Work.

Two years afterward (1923) the Department of Agriculture was again reorganized. The activities of the Department were then grouped under four main heads: (1) Research, (2) extension work, (3) regulatory and service work, and (4) publicity and publications. Directors of the first three types of work were appointed. This reorganization resulted in the abolishment of the States Relations Service on June 30, 1923. Dr. True then retired from the extension work.

The Extension Service is organized in four divisions—(1) the Division of Cooperative Extension, (2) the Division of Exhibits, (3) the Division of Motion Pictures, (4) the Division of Business Administration. The Director represents the Secretary of Agriculture in the extension work. There is an assistant director, who serves also as the Chief of the Division of Cooperative Extension. Four regional agents represent the office in dealing with the State directors. To each of these agents about 12 States are assigned. Twelve organization assistants study the county work in all the States and assist the State supervising agents with their problems. Twenty-six subject-matter specialists carry the practical results of the researches of the Department of Agriculture to the States and aid the State extension departments to incorporate this information in the State extension programs. Three members of the Federal office are concerned with extension studies and teaching and three others with visual instruction and editorial activities.

5. State Organization¹

The agricultural extension service in each State is under an extension director who has his office at the State college of agriculture. He is usually of the same rank as the director of the agricultural experiment station and the director of instruction (where there is such a director). He is usually directly responsible to the dean of the college of agriculture, sometimes to the president of the institution. He deals directly with the Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture, to which he annually submits his plans for approval. He also makes an annual report to the Department of Agriculture. The salaries of these directors vary from \$4,000 to \$8,000 a year, averaging about \$5,500.

To aid him in his work the director of extension has a staff of supervisors or State leaders, men and women who supervise the work of the extension agents in the counties. There are State leaders for each of

¹ Smith, C. B., and Wilson, M. C., op. cit., pp. 13-14.

the three types of county work: County agent leaders to supervise the county agricultural agents, home demonstration leaders to supervise the home demonstration agents, and boys' and girls' club leaders to supervise the county club agents. Usually there is a State leader to each 15 to 20 agents in the State. The leaders represent the director in arranging with the county officials for the employment of the county agents. They also help the county agents to organize their work and see to it that the county agents secure from the colleges and the Federal Department of Agriculture such help as they need.

In addition to the State leaders the extension director has a staff of subject-matter extension specialists such as an agronomist, an economist, a horticulturist, a dairy specialist, a clothing specialist, etc., usually not more than one in any line of work for each 30 to 50 counties. These specialists bring to the county extension agents the latest information in their fields and help those agents to use such information in the extension work.

The States employ 1,719 officials (1934) in the State machinery, as follows: 83 extension directors and assistant directors; 429 State, assistant State, and district leaders or supervisors of county extension agents; and 1,111 full-time and part-time State extension specialists.

6. County Organization *

It has already been suggested that there are three types of county extension agents: The county agricultural agent, the home demonstration agent, and the boys' and girls' club agent (sometimes known as "assistant county agents"). Some counties have all 3, some have only 2, or even 1, while other counties have none. In some States the county commissioners (or the county governing board) decide whether a county agent is to be employed. In others the decision rests with voluntary organizations. Frequently a combination of these methods is used.

These agents are selected by the proper county authorities in mutual agreement with the extension officials of the State college of agriculture. The Federal Department of Agriculture appoints many of them as agents of the Federal Government with the privilege of using the penalty envelopes of the Department of Agriculture for the free mailing of official matter. These agents are thus employees of the Federal Government and when injured in the performance of duty they can secure compensation from the Government. More than 95

* Smith, C. B., and Wilson, M. C., op. cit., pp. 10-13, 147-152; U.S. Office of Education, op. cit., pp. 468-474.

percent of all county extension workers have been appointed as agents of the Government. The county agents are thus in the employ of the county, the State, and the Federal Government. More and more they are being regarded as college employees teaching outside the college walls. In this way the college is being expanded to cover the entire State, and what it teaches within its walls in agriculture and home economics is taught in its practical aspects through the county agents to the people of the open country.

At the latest report (March 1934) there were 4,496 white county extension agents and assistants, as follows: 2,739 agricultural agents, 383 assistant agricultural agents, 1,161 home demonstration agents, 32 assistant home demonstration agents, 163 boys' and girls' club agents, and 18 assistant club agents.

The salaries of the white county agricultural agents ranged from \$1,173 to \$5,000, with an average of \$2,517; those of the home demonstration agents ranged from \$1,020 to \$3,800, with an average of \$2,056; and those of the club agents ranged from \$1,200 to \$3,600, with an average of \$2,176. The salaries are paid partly from Federal funds and partly from other sources, usually State and county appropriations. In Pennsylvania and California the counties pay necessary expenses such as office and traveling costs but nothing for salaries, while in Massachusetts practically the entire cost above the Federal allotment is borne by the counties. Most States lie between these two extremes in their practices. There is some tendency toward an increase in the practice of paying the salaries of the agents from State and Federal funds, leaving to the county and local people the payment of the local expenses of the agents. This plan of financing presents certain obvious advantages over the plans most commonly employed.

In practically every county which has agricultural extension work there is some form of county and community organization which aids in the extension work. In the different States it takes various forms. The county and community council is commonly found in the Cotton Belt and in some other States. It is usually organized by the county agricultural agent, who has the various farmers' organizations elect representatives to it. Sometimes business organizations are also represented. The council discusses the extension work with the agent, particularly those points on which the agent needs advice. In other States the type of local organization which has been developed is known as the "farm bureau."

7. The Farm Bureau⁹

The first farm bureau had its origin in Binghamton, N.Y., in 1910, in an effort to promote better agriculture among the farmers about the city. The farm bureau was an organization in the local chamber of commerce. The idea of chambers of commerce giving help to farmers through such a plan spread rapidly. Very soon, however, the farmers felt that their interests would be better served by an organization wholly under their own control, and as a result county farm bureaus were established independent of chambers of commerce. In some States they went by other names, such as "Soil and Crop Improvement Association" (Illinois) and "Better Farming Association" (North Dakota).

These farm bureaus helped to secure county agricultural agents for their counties, in many cases paying part of the agents' salaries and other expenses. In many States the farm bureau became the legal organization for the expenditure of public funds in agricultural extension work. So helpful were the county farm bureaus to the county agents that during the World War the Federal and State Governments led in organizing farm bureaus throughout all the northern and western States. State farm-bureau federations were soon formed, and in 1919 the American Farm Bureau, a national organization, was established. In most of the States the membership was limited to those who paid dues, which in some cases were as high as \$15 per member. This means that the membership never included all the farmers of a county; in fact, in many cases it included only a very small percentage of the farmers.

The farm bureaus were intended to be different from other agricultural organizations in that their work was to be essentially educational. They became popular and members of other agricultural associations joined them. Soon, however, the farm bureaus began to engage in other activities which were not educational, such as marketing enterprises, lobbying for legislation, etc., some of which made them rivals of other farm associations. This situation created a problem for the extension system. Many county agents were secretaries of the county farm bureaus and spent much of their time in the service of the bureau and bureau members. Consequently rival farm organizations became antagonistic to the farm bureaus, and some of the antagonism affected the extension work.

⁹ Smith, C. B., and Wilson, M. C., *op. cit.*, pp. 12-44, 155; True, A. C., *op. cit.*, pp. 151-163; MacDonald, Austin F., *Federal Aid*, pp. 64-65.

To overcome the danger to the extension movement the United States Department of Agriculture and the American Farm Bureau in 1920 entered into a memorandum of understanding to clarify the situation. Under this memorandum the county agents were to perform service for the benefit of all the farming people of the county, whether members of the farm bureau or not, and to confine their activities to such as are appropriate to public officials working under the Smith-Lever Act. They were to cooperate with the bureaus or other like organizations in forming plans of cooperative extension work, but they were not to act as officials for the bureaus or to manage bureau activities which were outside the extension work. In 1922 the Secretary of Agriculture found it necessary to define further the proper sphere of county-agent activities.

In a few States the farm bureaus have not lost their original character as educational groups organized to advance extension work, and there they still serve as mediums through which the county agents reach many people. At present there is need in many States for some kind of public organization which can counsel and plan with the county agent in a way that is in harmony with the ideal of service for all the people.

8. The Work of the County Agricultural Agent ¹⁰

The man in the agricultural extension system upon whom in the last analysis the success of the system depends is the county agricultural agent. He brings to the farmers the service for which the system is organized. His work is both a teaching task and an organizing task.

Originally, the county agents in the farmers' cooperative demonstration work were essentially teachers who taught by the methods of demonstration. To a large extent this is their method today though it is much more inclusive. They do their teaching, for the most part, in two ways. Some of them deal with individual farmers and do practically all their teaching directly. Others deal with individual farmers only as they represent groups of farmers, and do their teaching largely through these individuals, usually called local leaders. These leaders carry on their agricultural work on an improved basis and thus make their work a demonstration for other farmers. The leaders are given special assistance by the county agent and the college extension specialists so the demonstration can be a success. There may be a number of these leaders in a community, all doing demonstration, but each in a different line. This type of teaching is now leading all others. It enables a county agent to have some form of agricultural improve-

¹⁰ Smith, C. B., and Wilson, M. C., *op. cit.*, pp. 47-57; U.S. Office of Education, *op. cit.*, pp. 518-530.

ment going on in each community of the county. The county agent does much teaching through group meetings and through organizations. He likewise spends much time with individual farmers in discussing their own problems.

As the work through local leaders increases, the teaching becomes for the county agent a task of organization and administration rather than personal teaching. The county agent encourages and promotes the organization of farmers in groups such as farmers' clubs, seed-testing associations, cow-testing associations, etc. One of his important duties is the development of an extension program for the county in cooperation with the agricultural leaders of the county.

The county agricultural agent is busy with many problems. His task calls for personal traits of a high order and a large fund of technical knowledge. In some States a man to become a county agricultural agent must have been graduated from a college of agriculture and have had extensive experience in agricultural work or teaching. However, not all the States set such commendably high requirements.

9. Extension Service for the Farm Home ¹¹

The farm home is such an important part of a farm that agricultural extension work is not complete without definite provision for its improvement. It is for this reason that the Smith-Lever Act includes "practical demonstrations" in home economics as a part of the cooperative agricultural extension service. For carrying on this work many counties employ technically trained rural-minded women commonly known as "home demonstration agents."

The home demonstration agent is usually coordinate in rank with the county agricultural agent. She is left free to develop her program within the field of home economics. In her work she often helps the county agricultural agent with the problems of poultry husbandry, gardening, dairying, etc., as related to the home. The things which a home demonstration agent can do to help farm women are many and varied. She generally organizes her work much as the county agricultural agent does his, but she also does much work through the direct teaching of assembly groups. Local leaders are extensively used in home demonstration work as in agricultural work.

An important activity of the home demonstration agent which is attracting increasing attention is the organization of camps for farm women. These camps are outings which usually continue for 1 week. They provide recreation, instruction, inspiration, etc. Sometimes

¹¹ Smith, C. B., and Wilson, M. C., op. cit., pp. 59-69.

they are held at the agricultural colleges and the women occupy the college dormitories.

Usually the home demonstration agent is a graduate of an institution having a good course in home economics. Preference is generally given to the graduates of the home-economics departments of the agricultural colleges and to women who have had experience in a farm home.

Many counties now have no home demonstration agents. In some of these counties the county agricultural agent furnishes some help to the farm women and sometimes helps to organize groups of farm women and secures college home-economics specialists to give the instruction.

• 10. Junior Extension Work ¹³

Another outstanding type of extension work is that for boys and girls on the farms. Before the Smith-Lever Act was passed boys' and girls' agricultural clubs had become popular in many sections of the country. This idea was incorporated in the agricultural extension system and made important from the beginning. The organization of clubs increased rapidly after 1914, particularly during the war period. No part of the system has had a more romantic development than the club work for juniors. Approximately 924,000 boys and girls were enrolled in these clubs in 1933.

Many of the earlier clubs used distinctive insignia, uniforms, caps, badges, etc., to denote membership and interest boys and girls. One leader used as a badge a 3-leaf clover and 3 H's representing head, hand, and heart. Later another leader in this work suggested that another leaf, representing health, be added to produce a 4-leaf clover. Another step was taken when it was decided to place the label "4-H" on standard products produced and sold by boys and girls in the clubs. The label soon appeared on club insignia and eventually it was used to designate the standard clubs throughout the country. It is now used for all the boys' and girls' clubs in the extension system.

There was great variety in the extent and character of the activities of the early clubs. For various reasons, principally for the regulation of interstate contests, it was found advisable to establish a distinct class of "standard clubs." Eleven requirements for such clubs were agreed upon in 1918. A standard club now has at least five members, all-carrying on the same kind of work. It has a local leader through-

¹³ True, A. C., op. cit., pp. 38-39, 46, 65-68, 186; Smith, C. B., and Wilson, M. C., op. cit., pp. 44, 70-83
See also supra, p. 12.

out the year and holds at least six meetings a year. It makes an exhibit of its products and it has a judging team. At least 60 percent of the members must complete their work.

In 1921 an organization of about 30 public-spirited and influential men and women in various parts of the United States organized the National Committee on Boys' and Girls' Club Work. This committee has organized the National Boys' and Girls' 4-H Club Congress, which is held in Chicago each year during the International Livestock Exposition. The congress consists of exhibits in home economics and agriculture, contests, educational tours of Chicago, and social features. About 1,000 boys and girls and 200 leaders, representing more than 40 States and the Dominion of Canada, attend the exposition. This attendance is made possible through funds contributed from commercial and industrial sources.

Another great landmark in the development of club work occurred in 1927 when a National 4-H Club Camp for farm boys and girls was established at Washington, D.C., under the auspices of the Department of Agriculture. Each State is entitled to send four 4-H club members annually to this camp, two boys and two girls. These boys and girls are chosen because of some outstanding piece of club work they have done. The State club leader accompanies the group from each State. These young people are housed in tents on the grounds of the Department of Agriculture. They hear addresses by cabinet officers, foreign ambassadors, and other well-known leaders. During the week they visit historic places about Washington.

The main objectives of 4-H club work include the improvement of farm and home practices, the development of rural leadership, training in agriculture and home economics, appreciation of nature, and pride in occupation. The boys and girls in the clubs learn and teach better ways on the farm, in the home, and in the community, earn money and acquire property, learn to play fair, to cooperate with others, to develop and preserve health, to be useful, to think clearly, and to be kind. The pledge of the club member varies in the different States. The national pledge, concurred in by the State leaders, is as follows: "I pledge my head to clearer thinking, my heart to greater loyalty, my hands to larger service, and my health to better living, for my club, my community, and my country."

The club work in the county is usually promoted by the county agricultural agent and the home-demonstration agent. In about 180 counties a county club agent is employed to organize and promote this work. As a rule it is much better done in those counties which employ separate agents for it. Each State extension service has a State

club leader with a number of assistants, who help the county agents in this service. Likewise the State extension specialists give assistance as it is needed. Each club usually has a local club leader, an older person who likes young people and knows the subject in which the club is working. The price of membership in a club is the carrying on of a demonstration or piece of work.

Each club has a regular organization. It holds meetings either at the schoolhouse or at the home of a member. Proper records are kept, and correct parliamentary practices are followed. The meetings include reports of progress of work, songs, games, demonstrations, etc. Most clubs carry on contests between their members.

The club work can be done only in communities which have a sufficient number of boys and girls who are interested in it. The junior extension work is not, however, limited to boys and girls so fortunately situated. The county agent deals with those who are located so far apart that clubs are impractical for them. These lone 4-H members enroll as club members and follow directions for carrying on their projects. Good demonstration work is done in this way in communities, though much is lost to the member because of his lack of association with other club members.

One important feature of practically all clubs is a final county-wide achievement day. On this day the members of the clubs come to one place with parents and invited guests to listen to the records of achievement of the various clubs and of the outstanding members. Usually an interesting program is provided. The 4-H club emblem is awarded to all club members who complete all the work and file reports. The clubs also have a part in the local fairs, and the best of the winners often exhibit and demonstrate at the county and the State fairs. Some of the contestants have even gone to international expositions.

Another notable feature of club work is the club camp. The camp is arranged by the county agent or the State club leader. In camp the members are taught subject matter relating to their projects, the amenities of social life, etc. The State 4-H camp is held for a week at the State agricultural college. These weeks bring to the colleges annually thousands of boys and girls. Here they meet the teachers of the college and see the college buildings and farms. They receive instruction in practical matters of all kinds and engage in many pleasurable activities. The camps furnish valuable contacts for the agricultural colleges as well as for the boys and girls.

11. Extension Work for Negroes¹³

Very early in the development of the farmers' cooperative demonstration work in the South the desirability of having some Negro agents became apparent, and in 1906 the first Negro agent was appointed by the Department of Agriculture in cooperation with Tuskegee Institute in Alabama. A month later another agent was appointed in cooperation with Hampton Institute in Virginia. When the Smith-Lever Act went into effect, there were about 100 Negro men and women agents in 11 States.

In the discussion of the Smith-Lever bill in Congress there was extended debate regarding extension work for Negroes. An effort was made to amend the bill to require that some of the money for extension work in the States having separate land-grant colleges for Negroes should go to these colleges. The amendment was rejected, and the act consequently makes no mention of work for Negroes. However, when the agricultural extension system was organized, definite provisions were made for the Negroes with the result that there are now (1934) 173 Negro county agricultural agents, 128 Negro home demonstration agents, and 1 Negro club agent. The Negro work is administered and supervised by the white State extension director, though in a number of States the State Negro supervising agents have their headquarters at the Negro land-grant college.

Two Negro employees of the Department of Agriculture are concerned with the general supervision of the work for Negroes. One has his headquarters at Tuskegee Institute and aids in supervising the work in 8 States; the other has his headquarters at Hampton Institute and helps to supervise the work in 8 other States. One of these men is a graduate of Tuskegee Institute, and the other was graduated at Hampton Institute.

The extension work for the Negroes is carried on in close cooperation with the white agents in the same counties and it follows much the same program. In counties which have a Negro population but no Negro extension agent, the white agents render some assistance to the Negroes. They cannot, however, enter the homes and lives of the Negroes as can Negro agents. Boys' and girls' club work is a strong feature of the Negro extension work. These clubs are conducted exactly as the clubs for white boys and girls and they have the same general purposes.

¹³ Smith, C. B. and Wilson, M. C., *op. cit.*, pp. 218-227; True, A. C., *op. cit.*, p. 189. See also *supra*, pp. 90-91.

The Negro extension agents are a high-grade group of men and women. Almost half of them are graduates of institutions like Hampton Institute and Tuskegee Institute while nearly all the others have attended college but have not been graduated. Their salaries average about \$1,515 a year (1934) for the men and \$1,326 for the women. Out of these salaries they usually pay their traveling expenses. Their salaries are paid from Federal and State sources though counties are more and more contributing toward the salaries.

12. Cooperative Farm Forestry ¹⁴

A very large part of the farm acreage of the United States is in woodland, and much of the income of farmers in certain sections, particularly in the Southern and Northeastern States, is from forest products. County agricultural agents generally are not trained in forest management. In order that the extension service may render the needed service in forestry, special provision has been made through the Clarke-McNary Act (1924), and the Government now makes appropriations "for cooperation with appropriate officials of the various States or with other suitable agencies to assist the owners of farms in establishing, improving, and renewing wood lots, shelter belts, windbreaks, and other valuable forest growth, and in growing and renewing useful timber crops."

In 1934 a cooperative arrangement was in effect with 32 States, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico. The usual arrangement is for the Government to contribute \$1,620 toward the salary of an extension forester in a State, the State providing for the remainder of his salary, State travel expense, and clerical assistance. The State extension forester assists the county agents. He arranges demonstrations in wood-lot management, selection of trees for cutting, estimating merchantable timber, etc. In many States he is also active in assisting farmers in forest-planting plans and in interesting members of boys' and girls' clubs in tree planting. The United States Department of Agriculture employs an extension forester, who represents the Forest Service and the Extension Service, to give direction to extension in farm forestry.

13. Cooperation with the Agricultural Adjustment Administration

In 1933 Congress passed the Agricultural Adjustment Act "to relieve the existing national economic emergency by increasing agri-

¹⁴ House Committee on Appropriations, Subcommittee in Charge of the Agricultural Department Appropriation Bill for 1935, Hearing, pp. 102-103.

cultural purchasing power, to raise revenue for extraordinary expenses incurred by reason of such emergency, to provide emergency relief with respect to agricultural indebtedness, to provide for the orderly liquidation of joint-stock land banks, and for other purposes."¹⁵ This act was in two parts, one dealing with agricultural adjustment and the other with agricultural credits. An important part of the plan of agricultural adjustment was to control the production of basic agricultural commodities.

The act established the Agricultural Adjustment Administration of the Department of Agriculture to carry out the program. When this agency was organized, the President and the Secretary of Agriculture decided to have the Extension Service carry out a number of the provisions of the act, particularly those relating to the plans for crop-production control.¹⁶ This decision added a heavy responsibility to the extension program. Approximately 700 emergency agents were employed to supplement the existing force of county agricultural agents, the cost of which was paid almost entirely by the Agricultural Adjustment Administration. In the areas where important production-control campaigns were conducted the State and county extension workers gave practically their entire time to the adjustment work. Extension workers explained to farmers the purposes and methods of the production-control campaigns, organized and managed the campaigns, and assisted in the formulation of county-control associations.

14. The Extension Service Review

For a number of years the Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture endeavored to reach the field through several mimeographed periodicals. In 1930 these periodicals were superseded by the *Extension Service Review*, a monthly publication issued free to workers and cooperators of the Department of Agriculture who are engaged in extension activities.

The purpose of the publication is stated as follows:

To keep extension workers in every part of the United States acquainted with the latest results and methods in the extension field, to exchange news of activities in the various States, to be instructive, to indicate the sources of information and assistance helpful to the field, to center attention on the major objectives of extension work, and to encourage pride in the profession of the extension teacher.¹⁷

¹⁵ 73d Cong., 1st sess. Statutes of the United States of America, 1933, p. 31.

¹⁶ House Committee on Appropriations, Subcommittee in Charge of the Agricultural Department Appropriation Bill for 1935, Hearing, pp. 77-78.

¹⁷ Warburton, C. W., "Our New Publication" in *Extension Service Review*, 1:1.

The periodical features stories of outstanding extension accomplishments and methods. It carries administrative announcements and notices of new publications of interest to extension workers. The editorial page reflects the policies and opinions of the Extension Service.

15. Results of the Agricultural Extension System ¹⁸

It is very difficult to evaluate objectively the accomplishments of the agricultural extension system. However, evidence has been collected which clearly indicates some of the results of this work. The system develops rural leadership. Through the carrying on of the various organizations in connection with the extension work, rural people are learning how to lead and manage groups. The importance of such leadership can scarcely be overestimated in the progress of rural life. Through the boys' and girls' club work, the extension system is training future farmers and home-makers as well as better citizens. Studies have shown that the extension teaching has greatly affected farm and home practices. The increased crop and livestock production is apparent today. An outstanding result of the system is the stimulus given to various community activities. Community enterprises of all kinds have had their origin in the community organization which was brought about through the extension services. Finally, the higher standard of living among rural people than formerly prevailed owes not a little to the extension system.

The evidence indicates that the great majority of the farmers in the communities having extension work favor it. There is, however, a rather important minority which is either indifferent (15 to 33 percent) or opposed (2 to 8 percent). In areas which have been investigated it is reported that approximately 70 percent are favorable to extension work. Occasionally counties have undertaken extension work and later given it up.

The importance of the agricultural extension system becomes apparent in times of national or regional emergency. During the World War it was effectively used to stimulate agricultural production, promote food conservation, secure information needed by the Federal Government, etc. On the occasion of the influenza epidemic during the war the home-demonstration agents acted as advisory nurses. When a prolonged drought in the Southwestern States threatened the starvation of thousands of cattle and sheep, the Federal Government

¹⁸ Smith, C. B., and Wilson, M. C., *op. cit.*, pp. 25-27, 189-215; U.S. Office of Education, *op. cit.*, pp. 531-538.

through the county agents located pasturage in other sections of the country to which the livestock could be sent. When the hurricane in Florida and the floods along the Mississippi River laid waste crops, the county agents were at hand to render needed assistance. They also functioned effectively in the loan and drought relief work in the unprecedented drought of 1930-31. The use of the extension system in the recent work of agricultural adjustment illustrates the importance of the system in carrying out a great national program.

16. Problems of the Agricultural Extension System ¹⁹

Several important problems confront the agricultural extension system. One of these, discussed elsewhere (pt. IV, ch. II), is the relation it should bear to agricultural education under the Smith-Hughes Act. This matter has been only partly cleared up. Another problem is the completion of the system. For various reasons numbers of rural counties have not as yet inaugurated extension work while in other counties the service is not adequate. Apparently in the past there has been an overemphasis on agricultural production without sufficient attention to the distribution of agricultural products and to the improvement of rural life, though these have in late years been receiving greater consideration than before.

The county agent himself constitutes a very real problem. The salaries are low, but the service calls for training, personality, and industry of a high order. In some cases the county agent has not yet been entirely divorced from partisan politics.

The relation of the agricultural extension work to commercial agencies and activities is a problem which has not been fully solved. How to utilize such relations and at the same time avoid exploitation in the interest of business enterprises and compromising with educational principles and responsibilities demands careful thought. Improvement is constantly being made and there is reason to believe that these and other problems of the service will be solved as the system matures.

17. Organizations of Extension Workers

For years there have been in existence a number of organizations of persons in the extension service, such as State associations of extension workers, a national county agents' association, an extension section of the American Home Economics Association, and a national camp and conference of 4-H club leaders. One section of the Associa-

¹⁹ MacDonald, A. F., op. cit., pp. 67-77; U.S. Office of Education, op. cit., pp. 506-511.

tion of Land-Grant Colleges is devoted to the problems of extension work.

A series of conferences on a national organization were held in 1928, 1929, and 1930, which culminated in the formation of the National Cooperative Extension Workers' Association, in December 1930.²⁰ The objects of the association have been officially stated as follows: (a) The improvement of the professional status of the membership; (b) the improvement of extension teaching; and (c) the development of group insurance, workmen's compensation, and unemployment relief. The organization has not been particularly active from a Nation-wide standpoint, but in certain sections studies are being made by some of its members which are generally helpful.

Another association of extension workers is a national honorary extension fraternity known as "Epsilon Sigma Phi."²¹ The first chapter of the fraternity was organized at Bozeman, Mont., in January 1927. The object of this honor society, as stated in its constitution, is "to maintain the ideals, preserve the traditions, and uphold the morale of the Extension Service and develop a spirit of fraternity among its members." The fraternity reaches to each State and the Territories of Hawaii and Alaska and there are now (1934) 1,840 members. Membership is based on a minimum of 10 years of meritorious extension service, either in the Department of Agriculture or in the States. There are organized chapters in 45 States, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia. The business of the fraternity is carried on through a National Grand Council, which holds annual meetings at the time of the annual meeting of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges.

The fraternity carries on various activities through national standing committees. It is now particularly interested in developing a retirement plan for the extension workers consistent with the Federal Retirement Act. The most recent activity of the fraternity was in securing the enactment of a Senate joint resolution establishing memorial archways to James Wilson, formerly Secretary of Agriculture for 16 years, and Seaman A. Knapp, father of the Extension Service.

²⁰ Frame, Nat T., "National Cooperative Extension Workers' Association" in the *Extension Service Review*, 2: 137; National Cooperative Extension Workers' Association, Constitution and Bylaws adopted Dec. 5, 1930.

²¹ W. A. Lloyd, Letter to L. E. Blauch, Aug. 14, 1934. Mr. Lloyd is the Grand Director, Grand Council of Epsilon Sigma Phi.

Special honors are conferred by the fraternity. The highest honor is the distinguished-service ruby, which is granted for outstanding service to agriculture. It is made on recommendation of the local State chapter and unanimous approval by the Grand Council. Five men have been honored with this award. Distinguished-service certificates are granted for outstanding service to agriculture in the field of extension. Nine men have recently been honored with this recognition.

Chapter II

The Vocational Education System ¹

1. The Smith-Hughes Act and its Acceptance by the States

The Smith-Hughes Act represents an effort to establish vocational education in the United States on a permanent basis on a plan so designed as to be easily adapted to the varying conditions and needs of the States and local communities. While the act contains new features, it is in line with other Federal legislation granting aid to the States for educational purposes, particularly with the Smith-Lever Act for cooperative agricultural extension work, which it follows in its emphasis on cooperation between the States and the Federal Government in the service which is provided.

Although the organization of the vocational education system was not undertaken until some 3 months after the Nation's entrance into the World War, the National Vocational Education Act was in no sense whatever an emergency war measure. It was passed nearly 2 months before the Nation declared war, and its essential features were formulated several years earlier by the Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education, which had reported its draft of the bill to Congress on June 1, 1914, before any suspicion of war in Europe had been aroused.

The sentiment of Congress in enacting the legislation was reflected in the States. By the end of the year 1917 each of the 48 States had accepted the act, either by State statute or by proclamation of the Governor, and had designated or created a State board as the administrative agency within the State to cooperate with the Federal Board for Vocational Education. No State has withdrawn its acceptance, and from year to year additional States and local funds have been appropriated in support of vocational education.

Both Hawaii (1924) and Puerto Rico (1931) have accepted the benefits of the Vocational Education Act as extended to these areas by separate acts of Congress. The benefits of the George-Reed Act were extended to the Territory of Alaska but without any designation of a minimum amount of funds to be made available for that Territory. Under the apportionment of the Federal appropriations on the basis of

¹ Prepared with the assistance of John Cummings, Chief, Research and Statistical Service for Vocational Education, Office of Education.

the population the amounts made available for Alaska (\$797.81 for 1932) were so inconsiderable that no cooperative program of vocational education was organized in the Territory. The George-Elzey Act, authorizing annual appropriations in addition to those made by the Smith-Hughes Act, provides for minimum appropriations to Alaska, as to each State, of \$5,000 in each of the three fields of vocational education. These appropriations will become available on acceptance of and compliance with the requirements of the act by Alaska.

2. The Meaning of Vocational Education

In a few statements the Smith-Hughes Act clearly defines the vocational education which is aided. It states that the controlling purpose of agricultural education receiving Federal aid "shall be to fit for useful employment; that such education shall be of less than college grade and be designed to meet the needs of persons over 14 years of age who have entered upon, or who are preparing to enter upon the work of the farm or the farm home." Likewise the act states that the controlling purpose of trade, home economics, and industrial education receiving Federal aid "shall be to fit for useful employment; that such education shall be of less than college grade, and shall be designed to meet the needs of persons over 14 years of age who are preparing for a trade or industrial pursuit, or who have entered upon the work of a trade or industrial pursuit."

Special conditions are set up in the act with reference to utilization of Federal money for certain types of part-time and evening schools. In part-time trade, home economics, and industrial classes or schools for workers who have entered upon employment, Federal aid may be used for "any subject given to enlarge the civic or vocational intelligence of such workers over 14 and less than 18 years of age." At least one-third of the trade, industrial, and home economics fund if used must be expended for such part-time schools or classes. Evening trade, industrial, and home economics schools receiving aid under the vocational education act are required to set a minimum age limit of 16 years, and to "confine instruction to that which is supplemental to daily employment."

With exception of the provision permitting instruction in part-time schools "to enlarge civic or vocational intelligence", the Federal appropriations are made expressly for the purpose of providing specifically vocational education intended for persons who have chosen or have entered upon a particular employment. This purpose has been con-

sistently followed in the policies—Federal, State, and local—adopted for administration of vocational education, although it has not always been clearly understood by others.

3. Funds for the Vocational Education System

At the basis of the vocational education system are the funds appropriated by Congress through the Smith-Hughes (1917) and the George-Ellzey (1934) Acts. The first of these acts now makes a continuing appropriation of \$3,000,000 annually to be used in "cooperating with the States in paying the salaries of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects." This appropriation is allotted to the States on the basis of their rural population according to the last preceding Federal census. The minimum allotment to any State is \$10,000, and for providing this minimum an additional annual appropriation of \$27,000 is now made.

A similar appropriation, with a similar minimum allotment, is made for the purpose of "cooperating with the States in paying the salaries of teachers of trade, home-economics, and industrial subjects." This appropriation is allotted to the States on the basis of their urban population. To provide the minimum allotment, the act includes an additional appropriation of \$50,000.

The Smith-Hughes Act includes also an appropriation of \$1,000,000 for allotment on the basis of the total population, with an additional appropriation of \$90,000 to provide minimums, for training teachers. Teacher-training developments under this appropriation are described in the chapter following.

A State may accept the act as a whole or the benefits of any one of the three funds exclusively, and its obligations are limited to those imposed in connection with the funds it accepts. The act provided, however, that after 1920, a State must take advantage of at least the minimum amount appropriated for the training of teachers in a field of vocational education if it desired to receive any appropriation for the salaries of teachers in that field.

The George-Reed Act of 1929 authorized for a period of 5 years additional appropriations for education in agriculture and home economics.² This authorization continued for 5 years, beginning in July 1929. The George-Ellzey Act of 1934 has continued authorizations for a period of 3 years, 1935-37, of appropriations in the two fields covered by the George-Reed Act, and has provided similar authorizations in the trade and industrial field.³

²For the details of the appropriations see *supra*, pp. 141-143.

³For details see *supra*, pp. 152-162.

Utilization of Federal money under these appropriations is conditional upon the requirement that for each dollar of Federal money expended the State or local communities in the State, or both, shall expend an equal amount for the same purposes. The cost of instruction supplementary to the instruction in agricultural and in trade, home economics, and industrial subjects must be borne by the State and local communities, as must also the cost of the necessary plant and equipment.

The extent of State and local participation in the national program of vocational education, as well as the popularity of this development of the public-school system, is evidenced by the expenditures reported under State plans (table 2). State and local appropriations have from year to year greatly exceeded the amounts required to match the Federal money. During the year ended June 30, 1933, the States and communities provided on the average for all types of vocational education \$2.90 for each dollar of Federal funds used, and for several years past they have been providing close to \$3 of their own to \$1 of Federal money used. These expenditures under State plans for vocational education and teacher training—which do not include any expenditures of State and local money for land, buildings, or equipment—have in recent years amounted to approximately 1 percent of the total expenditures in the country as a whole for all types and grades of education.

TABLE 2.—Expenditures of Federal, State, and local money under State plans for salaries of vocational teachers, directors, and supervisors and for maintenance of vocational teacher training, by years, 1918-33

FROM FEDERAL, STATE, AND LOCAL FUNDS COMBINED

Year ended June 30	Amount expended				
	Total	For agricultural education	For trade and industrial education	For home-economics education	For teacher training
1	2	3	4	5	6
1918	\$3,039,061	\$739,933	\$1,536,439	\$334,549	\$428,140
1919	4,951,776	1,413,938	2,002,474	554,195	981,169
1920	8,535,164	2,437,286	3,396,727	1,054,489	1,646,662
1921	12,618,263	3,393,088	5,291,762	1,822,348	2,111,065
1922	14,812,988	4,058,440	6,417,777	2,118,563	2,218,208
1923	17,132,446	4,647,042	7,513,130	2,748,947	2,223,327
1924	18,845,331	5,233,913	8,555,484	2,744,636	2,291,318
1925	20,919,855	6,146,124	9,977,893	2,943,524	2,252,314
1926	23,181,700	7,164,460	10,690,838	3,137,392	2,229,010
1927	24,516,625	7,469,295	11,339,064	3,337,828	2,370,438
1928	25,709,747	7,608,914	12,020,696	3,721,132	2,359,045
1929	27,465,383	8,418,981	12,746,711	3,903,119	2,396,572
1930	29,858,899	8,743,382	14,280,080	4,382,037	2,455,400
1931	32,139,192	9,977,116	14,808,542	4,751,274	2,602,260
1932	33,298,447	10,212,811	15,425,723	5,129,039	2,530,874
1933	30,082,938	9,468,536	13,614,736	4,677,657	2,261,982

TABLE 2.—Expenditures of Federal, State, and local money under State plans for salaries of vocational teachers, directors, and supervisors and for maintenance of vocational teacher training, by years, 1918-33—Continued

FROM FEDERAL FUNDS

Year ended June 30	Amount expended				
	Total	For agricultural education	For trade and industrial education	For home-economics education	For teacher training
1	2	3	4	5	6
1918	\$812,427	\$273,282	\$307,375	\$57,774	\$193,996
1919	1,560,009	528,679	491,193	115,952	424,185
1920	2,476,303	889,886	699,645	155,768	731,204
1921	3,357,494	1,192,131	1,006,771	192,387	966,405
1922	3,890,119	1,435,473	1,170,907	245,886	997,851
1923	4,308,886	1,669,699	1,345,912	285,968	1,007,307
1924	4,832,881	1,897,808	1,589,524	331,861	1,013,688
1925	5,614,530	2,262,543	1,822,634	400,120	978,233
1926	6,548,657	2,656,886	2,403,774	499,631	988,366
1927	6,729,212	2,801,991	2,426,577	485,033	1,016,011
1928	6,821,451	2,844,464	2,454,445	492,158	1,030,384
1929	6,878,530	2,903,960	2,467,217	481,193	1,026,160
1930	7,404,223	3,173,623	2,909,531	678,226	1,042,843
1931	7,978,929	3,460,786	2,578,544	877,091	1,062,308
1932	8,414,834	3,688,514	2,546,900	1,130,398	1,049,022
1933	7,728,245	3,364,441	2,298,676	1,116,077	949,051

FROM STATE AND LOCAL FUNDS

1918	\$2,206,634	\$466,651	\$1,229,064	\$276,775	\$234,144
1919	3,391,767	885,239	1,511,281	438,243	556,984
1920	6,058,661	1,547,400	2,697,082	898,721	915,458
1921	9,260,769	2,200,957	4,285,191	1,629,961	1,144,660
1922	10,962,869	2,622,965	5,246,870	1,872,677	1,220,357
1923	12,823,560	2,977,343	6,167,218	2,462,979	1,216,020
1924	14,012,470	3,336,105	6,965,960	2,412,775	1,277,630
1925	15,305,305	3,883,581	7,604,259	2,543,404	1,274,061
1926	16,633,043	4,507,574	8,247,064	2,637,761	1,340,644
1927	17,787,413	4,667,704	8,912,487	2,852,795	1,354,427
1928	18,888,296	4,764,490	9,566,211	3,228,974	1,328,661
1929	20,586,853	5,515,021	10,279,494	3,421,926	1,370,412
1930	22,454,676	5,569,759	11,770,549	3,703,811	1,410,557
1931	24,160,263	6,516,330	12,229,998	3,874,183	1,539,752
1932	24,883,613	6,524,297	12,878,823	3,998,641	1,481,852
1933	22,294,693	6,104,095	11,316,087	3,561,580	1,312,931

¹ In addition there were expended from State and local funds for administration and other purposes the following amounts not distributed to the different types of vocational education: In 1927, \$36,708; in 1928, \$8,924; in 1929, \$6,015; in 1930, \$30,000; in 1932, \$103,957; and in 1933, \$10,930.

4. Federal Organization

For administration of the National Vocational Education Act, Congress established the Federal Board for Vocational Education of seven members—four ex officio, including the Secretary of Agriculture, the Secretary of Commerce, the Secretary of Labor, and the Commissioner of Education, and three appointed by the President for terms of 3 years, expiring in rotation. One appointive member

must be selected to represent the interests of labor, one the interests of agriculture, and one the interests of manufacturing and commerce.

Congress placed certain definite responsibilities upon the Federal Board for Vocational Education, which included administration of the vocational education act, and cooperation with State boards in the promotion of vocational education. State plans for vocational education under which Federal aid was to be expended must be approved by the Federal Board in advance, such approval being mandatory on the Board if it should find the proposed plans to be in conformity with the provisions and purposes of the act. No authority was vested in the Board to dictate plans or policies to the States. It was made a duty of the Board to ascertain annually whether the several States were using or were prepared to use the Federal money received by them. On or before the first day of January of each year the Board was required to certify to the Secretary of the Treasury each State which had accepted the provisions of the act and complied therewith, together with the amounts each State was entitled to receive. The Board was authorized to disallow expenditures of Federal money not made in compliance with the act, and was required to make an annual report to Congress on the administration of the act and the expenditure of money allotted to each State.

Even more important than its administrative responsibilities, however, were the requirements of service to the States and of research. The act was entitled an act to provide "for the promotion of vocational education", and "for cooperation with the States in the promotion of such education", and the Board was required to make, or cause to have made, studies, investigations, and reports, with particular reference to their use in aiding the States in their vocational education programs.

The Board was organized for work on July 21, 1917. In August it appointed Dr. Charles A. Prosser as director. Four assistant directors also were appointed—one each for agricultural, industrial, and home-economics education, and one for research—and the following month a special agent for commercial education was employed.

Soon after its organization the Board adopted the plan of developing its administrative principles and policies in cooperation with officials representing the States. A series of conferences was held in August 1917 to clarify in the minds of Federal and State administrators the problems to be met and to make the contact with the States which would insure success. Forty States sent representatives, principally State superintendents of public instruction, representatives of State

departments of education, and members of State boards of control or of education. At these conferences the general policies were agreed to, which were afterward published as Bulletin No. 1. Tentative standards also, around which the first State plans submitted to the Board were built, were formulated at the conferences. Through experience and later conferences, principles and practices have been developed for the organization and administration of the vocational-education system.

During the period of its continuance as an independent office of the Federal Government, 1917 to 1933, the Federal Board held regular monthly meetings and special meetings as occasion demanded. It considered major matters of policy and administration which required its approval. The three appointive members devoted their full time to the work of the Board, and together with the Commissioner of Education constituted a standing committee of the Board to act on matters referred to it in the interim between regular meetings of the Board. In evolving its policies the Board, working in cooperation with State officials, established standards to be followed in developing and administering vocational programs. These standards were accepted or proposed by the States themselves. They indicated approved minimum requirements which it was hoped the States would be able to exceed. Every effort was made by the Board in its relations with the States to avoid a dictatorial attitude, and these relations were throughout the period of its administrative activity entirely on a basis of service and cooperation.

In 1918 Congress enacted a law for the vocational rehabilitation of the disabled soldiers and sailors and committed the administration of this service to the Federal Board for Vocational Education. The administrative staff was then organized under the Director in three divisions—one for vocational education, one for research, and one for rehabilitation. Later the Research Division was discontinued, and its functions were vested in the several administrative services of the Board's staff. Under the Civilian Vocational Rehabilitation Act, approved in 1920, a Division of Industrial Rehabilitation was organized. In August 1921 the Division of Soldier Rehabilitation was taken over by the newly established Veterans' Bureau, and since that date no responsibilities for work with ex-service men have devolved upon the Federal Board for Vocational Education.

The Research and Statistical Service of the Board was organized in 1930 to conduct research, and cooperate with the other services

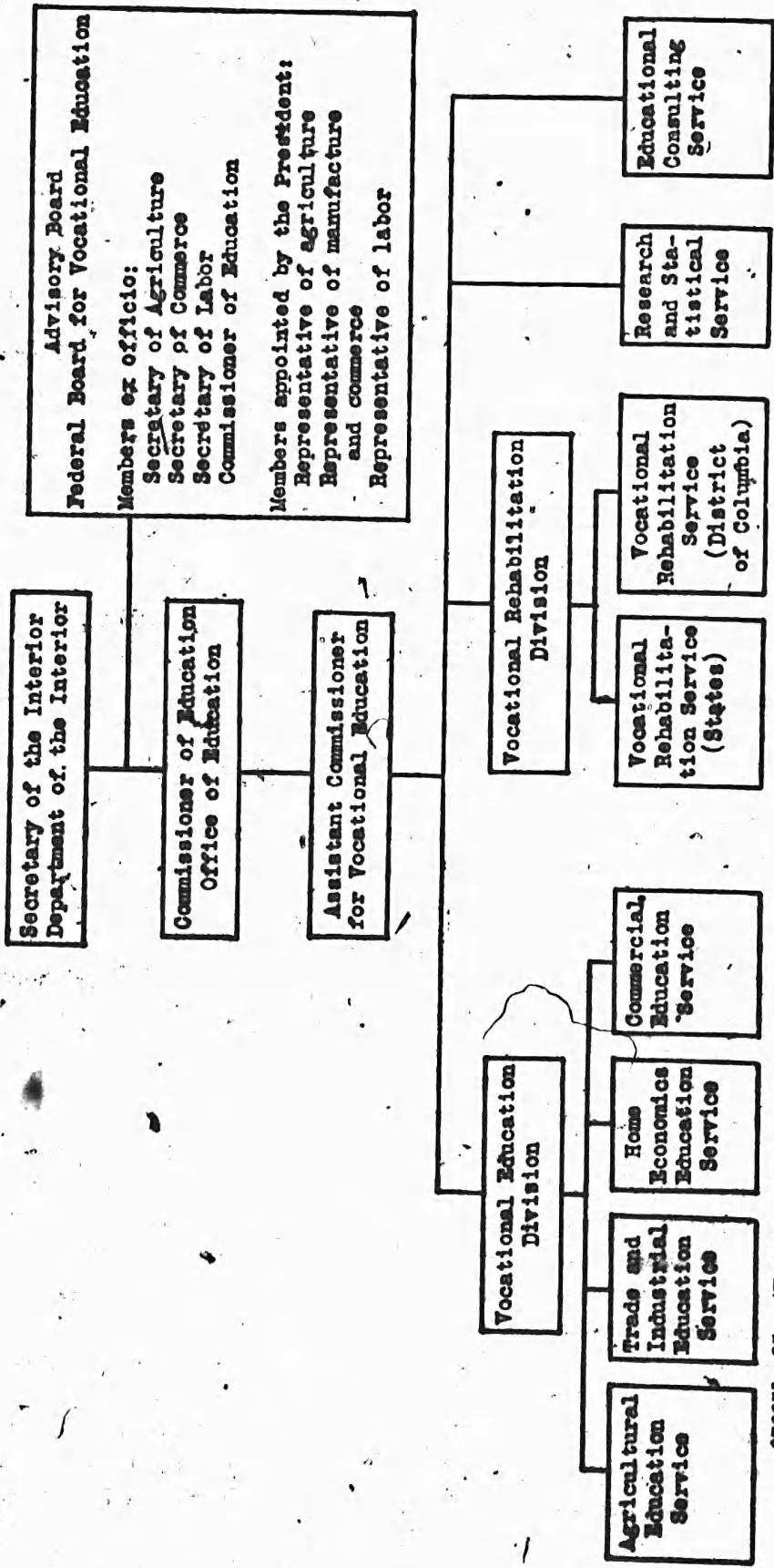
in the conduct of research, to provide general editorial and statistical service, to audit State accounts, compile State reports, and certify State allotments under different acts.

By Executive order of June 10, 1933, effective on August 10, the functions of the Federal Board for Vocational Education were transferred to the Department of the Interior, and the Board made an advisory board to act without compensation. On October 10, 1933, the Secretary of the Interior assigned the functions of the Board to the Commissioner of Education, the necessary personnel under the Board to be organized as a subdivision of Education under the general supervision of the Commissioner of Education, who was directed to proceed with the necessary reorganization of the Office of Education. An abridged annual report of the Federal Board for Vocational Education for the year ended June 30, 1933, is accordingly included in the Annual Report of the Secretary of the Interior to Congress.

The administrative staff of the Board at the time of its transfer to the Office of Education included a director, an educational consultant, and six chiefs of services. The staff personnel included, also, some 29 regional agents and research specialists, 2 supervisors for the rehabilitation service of the District of Columbia, and an auditor for State accounts. Under the reorganization procedures the title of the director of the Board was changed to "Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education" with no change in duties, and the staff organization and personnel continued without material change under the Assistant Commissioner. Certain accounting and other office services were merged. The set-up of the staff following this reorganization is shown in the accompanying chart.

To each of the 4 regional areas into which the country has been divided are assigned, in the present organization as in the past, 3 agents for assisting State authorities in developing their vocational education programs—1 each in the fields of agricultural, trade and industrial, and home-economics education. In addition the Federal staff in each of the services working in these fields comprises special agents not assigned to regions, who have been appointed for research, for special field service, or for work with special groups. Similarly the Rehabilitation Service has 4 regional agents and 1 special agent.

The work of the staff of the Board includes participating in educational conferences of State administrators, supervisors and teacher-trainers, and vocational teachers; conducting vocational surveys; assisting in training State and local officials and industrial representa-



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tives to deal with special problems; assisting State staffs and industrial organizations in developing training programs; providing technical content for vocational courses; and conducting research and investigations in the problems of vocational education. Research has been conducted by the staff in cooperation with numerous governmental agencies, and with national associations representing the interests of agriculture, industry, commerce, and home-making.

The Federal office issues publications giving the results of its "studies, investigations, and reports" made to aid the States in developing their programs of vocational education and vocational rehabilitation.

5. State and Local Organization

As a condition of participating in the benefits of the Federal vocational education act, each State was required to "designate or create a State board, consisting of not less than three members", with all the necessary authority to cooperate with the Federal Board in administration of the act. A survey of the State vocational boards as of June 30, 1930, found that in 32 States the State board of education had been designated by the State law to function also as the State board for vocational education. In Colorado it was identical with the State board of agriculture. In each of the 14 remaining States a vocational education board had been created de novo by State statute.

In size these boards range from 3 to 13 members, and they are of varied character as regards *ex officio*, appointive, and elective composition. Agricultural, industrial, home-making, and commercial interests have been given very general representation, a number of States providing by statute for the representation of designated groups. Wisconsin, for example, provides that 3 members of its board shall be employers of labor, 3 skilled employees, and 3 practical farmers, and that the State superintendent and a member of the State industrial commission shall be members *ex officio*.

An important obligation imposed on the State boards is the preparation of plans showing the manner in which they propose to use the Federal funds for vocational education. These plans are submitted to the Federal office for its approval as complying with the provisions of the Federal act. They are comprehensive and may cover as much as 125 or more pages. In them are set forth the kinds of vocational education to be provided, including the kinds of schools and equipment, the courses of study, the methods of teaching, the qualifications to be required of the teachers, and plans for the training of vocational teachers. The State interest in developing their plans in such detail

is obvious, since expenditures under them are large. Prior to 1922 the State boards submitted plans annually, but since that time they have been submitted for 5-year periods. They may be amended at any time that occasion makes a change advisable.

Another obligation of the State boards is the submission of an annual report to the Federal office, describing the work done and reporting on the receipts and expenditures of money under the National Vocational Education Act. These reports furnish much useful information and data, which are compiled in the Federal office.

The State administrative staffs generally include an executive officer of the State board for vocational education, a director of vocational education, and one or more supervisors for agricultural, for trade and industrial, and for home-economics education, together with teacher-trainers in these fields. In some States the functions of the executive officer and the director are combined in one office, and in a majority of the States the executive officer of the State board for vocational education is also the principal State school official. The State staffs in 1933 included, in addition to State directors of vocational education or officials acting in that capacity, 199 State supervisors and agents, and 252 teacher-trainers—the personnel of these staffs having been somewhat reduced during 1932-33 under the general pressure for economy. Upon these staffs, under the direction of the State boards, devolves the responsibility for the administration of the State programs by the local school boards, which are the final authorities in determining what courses of training shall be provided. However, in Connecticut the State board and in Hawaii the Territorial board operate vocational schools directly. In Wisconsin the State law has established local vocational boards to administer the local programs of vocational education.

6. Diversification of State Programs under State Plans

Only in a restricted sense can the program of vocational education set up under the National Vocational Education Act be described as national in character. The initiative in planning and the management of vocational education rest with the States and local communities. In this way provision is made for great flexibility in establishing State and local systems.

Under the arrangement for cooperation with the States it was inevitable that a diversity of plans should develop to serve local needs. Consequently the "national" program of vocational education is very far indeed from being today one simple national program. Quite to the

contrary, it is rather a composite of 48 different State and 2 Territorial programs, each being based, so far as possible, upon the special needs of local communities as those needs have been interpreted by the communities themselves and their State board for vocational education.

7. Types of Vocational Schools

Three well-defined types of vocational schools and classes are in operation: All-day schools, part-time schools, and evening schools. The all-day school provides vocational training for boys and girls of high-school age regularly enrolled for full-time school attendance. Whatever the line of training provided, it is essentially vocationally "preparatory" in character, that is to say, designed to prepare boys and girls for entrance into useful employments on leaving school.

The part-time school is designed primarily to meet the needs of boys and girls of high-school age who have entered upon employment, and who come back to the school for part-time enrollment in classes during their regular working hours. Attendance upon part-time schools in some States is compulsory under State laws for children within designated age limits. Instruction may be similar to that provided in all-day vocational schools to prepare for entrance into selected occupations; or it may be "extension" training, designed to meet the needs of the working boy or girl or regular apprentice along the lines of his or her employment; or it may be of "continuation-school" character, having the broader objectives of improving "civic or vocational intelligence."

Evening schools are organized to give workers over 16 years of age training supplemental to their daily employment. The training is designed to meet definite needs of workers of all ages with short-unit intensive instruction. The instruction must be given outside regular working hours, and it may under certain conditions be given in the daytime.

8. Agricultural Education

Types of schools.—Five types of schools offer systematic technical and practical instruction to persons who are farming or preparing to farm, as follows: (1) Rural schools with special agricultural classes, (2) high schools with vocational departments of agriculture, (3) special county and State schools of agriculture, (4) part-time schools for persons who have left the regular schools and are not yet established in farming, and (5) evening schools for adult farmers. The classes usually meet in the rooms of a regular school building, but other suitable places may be used.

The development of vocational training in agriculture has been largely affected by the provision written into the Federal statute requiring directed or supervised practice in agriculture on home farms of the pupils or on farms provided by the schools, for at least 6 months per year. This provision applies to part-time and evening courses, as well as to courses for pupils enrolled for full-time work in day schools. The requirement serves several useful purposes. It insures contact by the learner with the farming vocation for which he is being prepared. Supervised or directed practice aids the teacher to make intimate contacts with the farm homes of his pupils, which in turn helps him to acquire a basis for the development of worth-while objectives in his teaching. The supervision of home projects is likely to result in improved practices on the home farm, which may spread to other farms in the community. This practice work has had an extensive development in field-crop, livestock, horticultural, vegetable, and other projects.

The all-day school is relatively more popular than the part-time or evening school in the agricultural vocational education program—partly for the reason that agricultural education fits rather easily into the program of the rural day schools.

Part-time schools for farm boys who have left school and are not yet established in farming have had a rather slow development. The reasons for this may be found in the common attitude of the farm boys toward farming and school attendance. Such schools have, however, been successfully conducted in some localities for a number of years. Usually the classes meet for periods of a month or more during the dull seasons on the farm.

The evening school for adult farmers is rapidly increasing in popularity. It is designed for effecting improvement in particular phases of farming, and it is usually organized in short-unit intensive courses of 10 or more sessions. The courses are conducted on a conference basis and they include supervised practice so planned as to insure the working out on home farms of the problems taken up in class. Some States have definite policies of promoting these evening schools, such as that every teacher of vocational agriculture shall ultimately be conducting an evening school.

The 4,600 or more teachers of vocational agriculture, practically all of whom have grown up on the farm and received their professional training in the land-grant colleges and universities, are of necessity working in close contact with farm life. Their experience and training enable them to render a wide range of service of practical value in the rural economy of their communities.

Student contests.—Almost from the beginning of the teaching of vocational agriculture, competition among vocational pupils has been encouraged as a means of stimulating their interest, improving their farm practice, improving their skill, and testing the quality of instruction provided. Local contests were undertaken at first but the scope was later widened into State and national events. National contests serve as a means for bringing together local and State activities on a national basis. State and local contests include activities in livestock, dairy, and poultry judging, crop judging, seed identification, fruit identification and judging, farm mechanics demonstrations, agricultural demonstrations, home projects, and public speaking. The primary purpose of these contests has been educational.

Two large national contests have been organized. In 1925, through the efforts of a committee of the agricultural section of the American Vocational Association, a separate dairy-cattle-judging contest for vocational pupils was arranged in conjunction with the National Dairy Show and continued until 1932.

The other outstanding national contest was organized in 1926 in connection with the American Royal Livestock Show at Kansas City, Mo. This was a vocational-livestock-judging contest and with it grew the National Congress of Vocational Agricultural Students now held annually in Kansas City. Due to the closing of the National Dairy Show in 1932, the dairy contest was moved to Kansas City and a meat, a milk, and a poultry contest have also been included in the events of the Congress.

Future Farmers of America.—In the earlier years, following the introduction of vocational agriculture into public secondary schools in 1917, local and State organizations of vocational agriculture students were started in a number of States under varying names. The need for a national organization which would weld together these local organizations became more and more apparent until in 1928, at the Third Annual National Congress of Vocational Agriculture Students, these local agricultural clubs and organizations were brought together in a national organization known as the Future Farmers of America. This national organization comprises affiliated State associations, which in turn comprise local chapters in schools giving instruction in vocational agriculture under the provisions of the National Vocational Education Act. Local chapters may be organized only in schools of the type mentioned.

The membership of the Future Farmers of America consists of boys regularly enrolled in all-day, part-time, or day-unit classes in vocational

agriculture. The boys may retain their active membership for 3 years after completing their systematic study. Former students and former active members may be elected to associate membership, and instructors, school principals, superintendents, business men, and others who are helping to promote vocational agriculture may be elected to honorary membership.

The Future Farmers of America has an elaborate machinery and ritual.⁴ Four grades of active membership are defined in terms of individual achievement: The "Green Hand" must be at least 14 years of age and be conducting a satisfactory program of supervised practice. To be eligible for election to the second grade of "Future Farmer" a member must have completed at least 1 year of vocational agriculture, have earned and deposited or invested at least \$25, be regularly enrolled in vocational agriculture with an amplified practice program, and have fulfilled certain other requirements. Qualifications for election to the grade of "State Farmer" are left to the State organizations. A "State Farmer" is eligible for election to the grade of "American Farmer" on nomination of the national board of trustees to the national congress of the organization, provided he meets certain requirements.

The organization is an integral part of the vocational agriculture program; its national headquarters are at the Federal office which administers the Vocational Education Act, and State headquarters are with the State boards for vocational education. Undoubtedly it has been an effective agency in the development of agricultural education, as may be inferred from the following statement:

The principal justification of the new organization (the F.F.A.) has been as a device for teaching cooperation to rural boys. It has been found valuable also in creating interest in vocational agriculture, in bringing the boys and their accomplishments before the public in a desirable way, in carrying on community-service projects, in stimulating supervised-practice activities, and in providing recreational programs for farm boys. In several States, most of them in the South, summer camps for future farmers are held annually.⁵

Since its establishment in 1928, membership in this organization has increased rapidly. By July 1934 the number of local chapters organized in State associations exceeded 3,500, and active membership in these local chapters representing every section of the country, including Hawaii, had increased to approximately 90,000 boys.

Agricultural education and extension work.—Stated in very general terms, the large objective of vocational education in agriculture under the National Vocational Education Act is to train present and pro-

⁴ Future Farmers of America, Revised Manual (4th ed.).

⁵ Office of Education, Bulletin, 1931, no. 20, p. 4.

pective farmers for proficiency in farming, while the extension work under the Smith-Lever Act is for the "promotion of an effective system of agriculture." In a large measure, workers under both acts deal with rural groups and conditions which are identical, with adult farmers, farm boys and girls, farm practices, and farm homes. It has been recognized from the beginning that by cooperative agreements the scope and character of the activities to be carried on under each act should be defined precisely so as to safeguard against any overlapping of services.

Such agreements have been entered into, and they have been effective. The survey of the land-grant colleges and universities, made by the Office of Education and completed in 1930, notes that "on the whole it is apparent that extension services . . . and Smith-Hughes work . . . have been developed intensively in each of the 48 States with a large degree of cooperation and with relatively little serious difficulty."⁶

Broadly the separation of functions is determined from the side of vocational education by the provisions in the Smith-Hughes Act that all vocational training in agriculture under this act shall be provided in courses of instruction including the requirement of at least 6 months' supervised or directed farm practice by each pupil enrolled in evening, part-time, or all-day classes. Furthermore, this work must conform to definite standards as regards time schedules, number of meetings of classes, qualifications of teachers and supervisors, and other such matters as are set up in the State plan of each State. Extension service, on the other hand, which includes providing cooperative demonstrations, lectures, instruction, exhibits, printed material, and aid to individual farmers on special problems is not subject to the requirements of the Smith-Hughes Act or of the State plan formulated under that act. For each group of workers, as is pointed out in the survey quoted above, "there is a large field that may be satisfactorily defined" and the staffs provided under the two acts combined are "even now wholly inadequate to the task ahead."⁷

Throughout the period under review the work has been conducted under cooperative agreements interpreting in terms of specific services the statutory provisions of both acts. As early as 1918 representatives of the Federal Board for Vocational Education and of the United States Department of Agriculture met in conference to mark out their respective fields of activity and arrange for effective cooperation. In the years following, numerous conferences of representatives of Federal and State agencies have been held, and at the present time the work is being conducted under a "memorandum of understanding relative to

⁶ Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930, no. 9, vol. II, p. 303.

⁷ Ibid.

Smith-Hughes and Smith-Lever relationships in agriculture." This memorandum was drawn up in 1928 by administrative officers of the Federal Board and the Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture in conference with the committee on extension organization and policy of the Land-Grant College Association and the relations committee of the National Association of State Directors of Vocational Education.

9. Trade and Industrial Education

Many different types of trade schools offering a great variety of training have been organized under State plans. Numerous schools and communities have organized their trade and industrial training in such a way as to make possible the development of courses reflecting local business and industrial requirements. A study of the situation in 1929 showed that a total of 225 different lines of training were then being offered.

The raising of the age limits of compulsory school attendance under State laws, and in some States the requirement of part-time attendance over a longer or shorter period by those who have left school to go to work, have imposed new responsibilities upon State and local authorities for providing training adapted to the vocational needs of the increasing number of boys and girls being held in school for longer periods of full- or part-time attendance. These responsibilities have been further increased by child labor laws raising the minimum age of employment, and more recently under N.R.A. codes fixing the minimum age of employment at 16 years or more advanced ages. As these needs have become increasingly urgent in recent years, special attention has been given to them in the States in the organization of trade and industrial courses.

Day trade and industrial schools organized under State plans are intended for boys and girls not yet employed, who have chosen a trade or an industrial pursuit and desire specific training in it. Under the national vocational educational act, schools or classes giving instruction to persons who have not entered upon employment must require that at least half of the time of such instruction be given to "practical work on a useful or productive basis." Since the primary emphasis of trade and industrial training has, however, been centered on service to employed wage earners, the enrollment of such workers in evening and part-time classes has constituted a large proportion of the total enrollment in trade and industrial classes of all types. In 1931 the enrollment in trade and industrial classes of boys and girls in full-time school attendance, constituted only 13.5 percent of the total

trade and industrial enrollment. This proportion increased in 1932 to 17.9 percent, and in 1933 to 23.5 percent—reflecting on the one hand a decrease of enrollment in evening and part-time schools under the prevailing conditions of unemployment (enrollment in such classes being restricted to *employed workers*) and on the other hand an increase of enrollment of pupils in full-time school attendance.

Day trade and industrial schools are of two types: (1) The unit-trade school, and (2) the general industrial school. The unit-trade school is so organized that each pupil is taught only one trade or parts of one trade. Although such a school may teach a number of trades, instruction in each trade is organized as a unit and each pupil pursues only the unit which aims to fit him for the single specific trade he has chosen for his future work.

The general industrial school gives instruction to each pupil in the elements of several closely related trades or industrial pursuits centered around a basic trade. The problems encountered in providing trade and industrial education through small local school systems are different from those in large school systems. These differences relate to school enrollments, size of the teaching staff, and the amount of money available for instruction and equipment. Then, too, many a tradesman in a small community earns his living by working at a fairly wide range of jobs rather than at a highly specialized trade. These differences are recognized in the National Vocational Education Act by the provision that for cities and towns of less than 25,000 population the State board for vocational education, with the approval of the Federal office, may modify the conditions as to length of the course and hours of instruction per week for schools and classes giving instruction to those who have not entered upon employment, so as to meet the particular needs of such cities and towns. This provision enables small communities to organize instruction in one course for a few closely related subdivisions of a trade rather than for one specific trade only. An example would be building construction, which might include plastering, bricklaying, and cement finishing. The number of general industrial schools has, however, never been large.

Part-time trade and industrial schools and classes were strongly favored by those who drafted the National Vocational Education Act.⁹ The act consequently requires that at least one-third of the sum appropriated to any State for the salaries of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects shall, if expended, be applied to part-time schools or classes for workers over 14 and less than 18

⁹Supra, pp. 110-111.

years of age who have entered employment. The courses conducted on this basis must be designed to give not less than 144 hours of instruction per year. The instruction may include any subject given to enlarge the civic or vocational intelligence of the workers.

Part-time schools and classes related to trades and industries are of two types: (1) the trade-extension type, and (2) the general-continuation type. The former aim primarily at giving instruction and training to supplement the job experience of the learners. They provide various types of courses, including (1) dull season trade-extension courses organized to give workers intensive training during dull seasons; (2) courses for apprentices providing technical instruction related to the occupations of the apprentices enrolled; (3) cooperative part-time courses, where the time of the pupil is equally divided between school training and training on the job, and where the school training is related to the pupil's employment; and (4) vestibule courses conducted in the shop or other place of employment, for pupils carried on pay rolls or under contract for employment. Closely related to and frequently regarded as constituting a special type of the part-time trade-extension school is the part-time trade-preparatory school, which is intended to prepare boys and girls employed in juvenile jobs for advantageous entrance into industrial occupations requiring technical knowledge and skill.

The general-continuation part-time school is different from the other part-time schools in that its object is to give instruction in subjects designed to enlarge the "civic and vocational intelligence" of young workers rather than to give a specific trade training. Most of the boys and girls in these schools are employed in juvenile jobs. Among the objectives of the school are (1) to develop, when necessary, the ability to read, write, spell, and compute; (2) to promote good health in the boys and girls; (3) to develop wholesome leisure-time interests; (4) to furnish guidance, particularly vocational and educational guidance; (5) to give training in the elements of good citizenship; (6) to give fundamental instruction in industrial adjustments; (7) to give first-hand acquaintance with typical kinds of work through try-out and exploratory courses; and (8) to develop proper attitudes toward life and work.

Organized apprenticeship training in part-time schools has been provided in cooperation with employers and employees, and in cases has been planned to supplement the training given on the job. At least one State has required arrangements for such training to be set up in regular indentures of apprenticeship. Recognition of the need for

apprenticeship training is found also in many N. R. A. codes, which contain regulations governing the provision of such training.

Trade and industrial evening schools provide opportunity for journeymen workers to secure training and instruction devised to improve their efficiency and qualify them for promotion along the lines of their employment. Many journeymen and apprentices attend evening classes offering technical instruction that they cannot easily obtain in their jobs.

An inquiry conducted by the Federal Board for Vocational Education in cooperation with the States found that evening and part-time apprentice classes in operation in 1931 provided special training for some 150 different trades.

That trade and industrial education as it has developed under the National Vocational Education Act deals principally with out-of-school groups, including wage earners of all ages, may be inferred from the fact that in 1933, taking the country as a whole, over three-fourths (76.5 percent) of the total trade and industrial enrollment was in classes designed exclusively for employed wage earners. This is in marked contrast to the enrollment reported for vocational agriculture, of which in this same year, nearly two-thirds (63.9 percent) was found in all-day schools.

A type of service, in the trade and industrial field especially, which has received a considerable emphasis under the national program, is foreman training. In the readjustment following the World War the factories were filled with untrained help. The situation made it necessary for the industries to train many workers. This task fell to foremen, mechanics, and other minor executives, many of whom were not specially trained for rendering service as teachers. The Federal Board for Vocational Education appreciated the need of these foremen for special training as teachers, especially for industries in which it seemed difficult to serve the employees directly through the usual provision of industrial education. As a result of its efforts, definite arrangements were made in the vocational programs of many States to render this service, which involves two types of training: (1) The extension of a foreman's knowledge of his work as a manager and instructor; and (2) the training of a foreman or other minor executive to make him a good instructor of other foremen and minor executives. The former is known as foreman training and it properly belongs in vocational education classes, particularly trade-extension evening classes. The latter is considered as being a form of teacher training.

10. Home Economics Education

Schools and classes in home economics under the National Vocational Education Act have in general been restricted to the following groups: (1) Women employed in homemaking in their own home or in other homes; (2) girls and women employed outside their homes in industrial, commercial, or other occupations; (3) household employees; (4) girls still in full-time school attendance; and (5) girls out of school who have not entered upon any wage-earning employment. The needs of these groups have been met in evening classes for women, in part-time classes for the girls or women employed in industry or the home, and in classes in the all-day school.

Under the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act a fairly extensive program in home economics education was organized prior to 1929. The additional funds made available through the George-Reed Act, beginning in 1929, permitted a rapid expansion in this field. They also enabled the Federal Board for Vocational Education to carry on more studies in home economics education and to give a greater amount of assistance to the States in dealing with their problems.

The all-day classes in home economics are generally organized in the upper grades of the elementary schools or in the high school, but this work may be done in independent schools. The program in the day school has been developed around the responsibilities carried by girls in the home, and it offers some preparation for their potential responsibilities as future homemakers.

The requirement under the Smith-Hughes Act that trade and industrial education for persons who have not entered upon employment shall include "practical work on a useful or productive basis" applies also to home economics education under the act. However, this requirement has been given special interpretation for home economics, the interpretation providing for instruction in science and art related to the home, and the carrying out of home projects. The passage of the George-Reed Act in 1929 provided for a variety of programs which could be adapted to several different kinds of school schedules. With these programs varying proportions of time were spent on instruction classified specifically as home economics instruction or instruction in related subjects, and on home projects.

The home project is a home responsibility chosen by the pupil, to be carried out in the home with the cooperation of the mother and under the guidance of the teacher. It enables a pupil to carry on work under normal occupational conditions. In addition to serving as an effective device of instruction, the home project serves to carry over into the

home the actual application of the school instruction where it affects not only the work of the pupil but of the mother as well. Home projects are now required of all vocational home economics pupils in a number of States, in some of which the teachers are employed on a 12-month basis to provide more continuous service in supervising projects.

The training offered by the part-time classes in home economics aims to assist girls and women unable to attend school 5 days a week by providing instruction in the care of their own health, in the economical expenditure of their limited wages, in the selection of clothing which is suitable and attractive, in the selection of foods, and in solving other personal problems. For the older girls or women the program is centered more directly around the responsibilities of the home.

Evening classes in home economics are organized to provide short-unit instruction in different phases of homemaking selected with reference to the ascertained needs of those enrolled. In these classes prospective housewives may prepare to make a home and set up standards of living based on their needs and income, or prospective mothers may learn how best to adjust the family life to meet the new demands, or experienced homemakers may learn how to discharge certain responsibilities that they fail to meet with the degree of success desired.

In home economics education, as elsewhere in the field of vocational education, the tendency has been to provide instruction under more flexible time schedules. The units of instruction may vary in length from 4 to 16 or more lessons and a woman may enroll for any single unit or for a sequence of units extending throughout a year or even for a period of years.

11. Commercial Education

No Federal financial aid to the States has been provided expressly for commercial education, although since part-time courses federally aided out of the trade and industrial fund are permitted to cover "any subject given to enlarge the civic or vocational intelligence" of workers 14 to 18 years of age, certain commercial subjects have been taught in such courses.⁹

The Vocational Education Act of 1917 nevertheless provided that the Federal Board for Vocational Education should make studies, investigations, and reports to aid the States in this field as in other fields—to cover, in the phraseology of the act, "commerce and commercial pursuits and requirements upon commercial workers."

⁹ The number of students taking commercial subjects in part-time courses cannot be precisely determined, since enrollments in these courses have not been compiled separately by subjects taught.

The Federal staff has accordingly given assistance of this character, including research and special reports on problems developing in the organization, administration, and supervision of commercial education in the public schools, and in the training of vocational teachers of commercial subjects. Furthermore, studies have been made at the request of national associations, such as the department of superintendence of the National Education Association, the National Committee on Advanced Courses in Vocational Education, the National Federation of Commercial Teachers, and the Eastern Commercial Teachers Association. National trade associations, also, have come to the Federal staff for aid in outlining educational programs which they could promote.

The principal contribution of the Federal service in this field has been in defining the proper scope of commercial education to embrace other commercial employments than those—typewriting, stenography, and bookkeeping—traditionally covered in commercial courses. Commercial training had been largely restricted to these subjects, even in rural communities where the demand for those trained was exceedingly restricted. Practically no provision was being made for training outside these conventional lines in, for example, the broad field of retail store services and salesmanship generally. This situation has been partially corrected under the leadership of the Federal staff in this field.

12. Vocational Education for Negroes

Vocational education is provided for Negroes in the States which have separate school systems for the two races. Training in agriculture and in home economics has had a fair development. Some of the attainment in agricultural and home economics education has been very creditable. For years the Federal staff has included in the agricultural service a special agent for Negro schools. Since 1929 a special agent in home economics has been employed who has been able to give a large proportion of her time to the promotion of home economics instruction in Negro schools. Much assistance has been given to States also in helping them adapt the vocational agriculture and home economics programs to their needs in Negro teacher-training institutions, as well as in vocational schools.

13. Enrollments in Vocational Education

The extent of the vocational education program is apparent from the enrollment of students who receive instruction from year to year (table 4). During the year ended June 30, 1933, as in other recent

years, well over a million boys and girls and men and women attended the several types of vocational schools and classes being conducted under State programs.

TABLE 3.—Enrollment in vocational schools or classes operated under State plans, year ended June 30, 1933

Type of school or class	Total	Agricultural	Trade and industrial	Home economics
1	2	3	4	5
All types.....	1,190,353	266,004	537,512	346,837
Evening.....	382,237	83,398	155,624	143,215
Part-time, total.....	299,728	12,558	255,440	31,730
Extension.....	82,513	12,558	38,225	31,730
Continuation.....	217,215		217,215	
All-day.....	458,388	160,048	126,448	171,892
Day-unit.....	10,000	10,000		

During the 15 years from 1918 to 1932, total enrollments in vocational classes increased from year to year. In 1933, for the first time since initiation of the national program, enrollments fell off slightly, the decrease reflecting the decrease of enrollments in trade and industrial evening and part-time classes under the prevailing conditions of industrial depression and unemployment. As has been noted already, enrollment in these classes is confined to employed workers and inevitably tends to fall off in such periods as the past few years.

TABLE 4.—Enrollment in evening, part-time, and all-day vocational schools or classes operated under State plans, by years, 1918-33

Year ended June 30	Number enrolled in vocational classes			
	Total	Agricultural	Trade and industrial	Home economics
1	2	3	4	5
1918.....	164,186	15,453	117,934	30,799
1919.....	194,895	19,933	135,548	39,414
1920.....	265,058	31,301	184,819	48,938
1921.....	324,247	43,352	217,500	63,395
1922.....	475,828	60,236	296,884	118,708
1923.....	536,528	71,298	325,889	139,341
1924.....	690,055	89,640	428,473	171,942
1925.....	792,424	94,765	490,791	206,868
1926.....	885,275	111,585	537,738	235,952
1927.....	911,626	129,032	564,188	218,406
1928.....	999,031	147,481	619,548	232,002
1929.....	1,047,976	171,466	627,397	249,113
1930.....	1,064,536	193,325	633,153	238,058
1931.....	1,126,385	237,375	602,356	286,654
1932.....	1,176,162	257,255	579,591	339,316
1933.....	1,190,353	266,004	537,512	346,837

14. Problems in the Field

It was inevitable that any such broadening out of educational functions as that involved in the assumption by the public schools of the responsibility for providing vocational training of less than college grade for boys and girls and adults of all ages, in the fields of agricultural, trade and industrial, and home-making employments, should develop administrative problems for local and State officials. This new order of educational service required, among other things, the adoption of relatively flexible time schedules, the modification or abandonment in vocational work of certain established academic standards, the clear definition of vocational objectives in the scheme of secondary education, and the organization of instruction in many lines on an individual rather than a group basis. In its report to Congress in 1930, the Federal Board noted the "tendency to organize vocational work on the same basis as that of the regular secondary schools, which commonly set up courses of 1 year, 2 years, or 1 or 2 semesters, wherein the student gets what may be called a 'fixed exposure.'" The Board also said: "Recent surveys have shown that in a considerable number of courses the time allowed has been inadequate to train the student properly for the employment level which the school authorities have designated as the level with reference to which the work has been organized." On the other hand, it has been found that meeting the need for short-unit intensive training courses may in some cases involve a breaking down into smaller units of the traditional time schedule under which trade and industrial training has been organized in the past.

Some confusion of general education objectives with specifically vocational objectives still persists in certain communities, especially as regards the objectives of such general education courses as manual training and industrial arts as distinguished from those of specifically vocational courses. This confusion, where it has prevailed, has tended to impair the efficiency of the vocational program.

Finally, since pupils accepted for vocational training may individually advance rapidly, or slowly, or in some exceptional cases not at all toward the goal of employability on a wage-earning basis, vocational instruction must, it is contended, be organized on an individual basis more extensively than has been done in general education courses. Administrative problems have arisen in the effort to fit a scheme of instruction organized to develop specific individual efficiencies, into a scheme organized to provide groups of pupils with certain disciplines of cultural and social value.

None of these problems, it may be noted, has been in any way associated with the policy of granting national aid for the promotion of vocational education. They were inherent in the evolutionary process of secondary education in this country to embrace specifically vocational together with traditional academic objectives. The vocational education movement did not propose that the new objectives should supplant the old, but only that they should be comprehended along with the old in the scheme of public-school education. The problems of building the new order into the old were bound to be encountered whether or not the National Government participated in providing financial aid.

15. The Philosophy of Vocational Education

It will be apparent that promotion of vocational education under the act of 1917 has involved some breaking away from traditions in public-school secondary education in this country. Specifically it has effected a broadening out of secondary education to embrace a field of training quite outside the limits as defined in academic tradition, which in the judgment of some educators were becoming too narrowly restrictive in that they were not taking sufficiently into account the needs of youth who would never go to college, but were being held in school under compulsory attendance laws, and dropping out at the earliest opportunity to enter directly into nonprofessional and manual-labor employments. Under these conditions, it was contended, the functions of secondary schools should be broadened to include specific preparation for the commoner employments into which the majority of public-school pupils were going, and also to provide for the requirements of adult workers who might need training along the lines of their daily employment or for occupational adjustment.

It is assumed that a social responsibility rests upon the public schools to provide vocational training insofar as such training may be advantageously organized under public supervision and control. Such training is conceived to occupy in secondary education much the same position as vocational training for scholastic, scientific, liberal arts, and professional careers occupies in the curricula of higher educational, professional, and engineering schools. In other words, it is contended that the scheme of secondary education should be expanded to embrace as it has been sometimes put, education for work along with education for citizenship, for leisure, or specifically for college entrance.

16. The American Vocational Association ¹⁰

The principal national association now devoted exclusively to furthering vocational education in the United States is the American Vocational Association. This organization was formed in 1925 by a merger of the National Society for Vocational Education and the Vocational Education Association of the Middle West. Its membership of 11,496 persons comprises vocational teachers, supervisors, and administrators, and others interested in vocational education. Seven vice presidents of the association officially represent the following seven types of vocational education: Agricultural education, commercial education, home economics education, industrial education, industrial arts education, part-time schools, and civilian vocational rehabilitation. Vocational guidance receives official recognition through a standing committee. The association holds annual meetings. It publishes a quarterly bulletin and occasionally its proceedings. In January 1934 an executive secretary was employed to give his entire time to the work of the association. The office is located in Washington, D.C.

¹⁰ Smith, Z. M. A brief history of the association and plan of affiliation with the association, pp. 8-13. Information regarding recent activities of the association was obtained from the executive secretary, July 24, 1934.

Chapter III

The Training of Vocational Teachers ¹

1. The Vocational Education Act and Teacher Training

The National Vocational Education Act of 1917 contains important provisions for the training of vocational teachers. By this act a special fund, now amounting to \$1,090,000, is annually appropriated for the purpose of cooperating with the States in preparing (1) teachers, supervisors, and directors of agricultural subjects; (2) teachers of trade and industrial subjects; and (3) teachers of home economics. The appropriation is allotted to the States on the basis of their total population, except for the sum of \$90,000, which is appropriated, or so much thereof as may be needed, to bring up allotments to each State to a minimum of \$10,000. A State may participate in these appropriations only to the extent that it provides State or local money in at least equal amount for joint expenditure with Federal money for teacher training. Not more than 60 percent nor less than 20 percent of a State's allotment for any year may be expended for preparing each of the three types of teachers. Further emphasis is placed upon the importance of vocational teacher training by the provision in the act that no State may receive any appropriation for salaries of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects until it has taken advantage of at least the minimum amount appropriated for training teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects; and by a similar provision covering the appropriation for salaries of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects.

The training provided with the appropriations must be carried out under the supervision of the State board for vocational education, and it must be given under public supervision or control. It may be given only to persons "who have had adequate vocational experience or contact in the line of work for which they are preparing themselves, as teachers, supervisors, or directors, or who are acquiring such experience or contact as a part of their training." The State board is required to establish minimum requirements for such experience or contact, subject to approval of the Federal office.

¹ Prepared with the assistance of Charles R. Allen, educational consultant for vocational education, Office of Education.

Except as noted in the preceding paragraphs, the National Vocational Education Act set up no standards or policies to be followed in training vocational teachers. This lack of definiteness is explained by the fact that very little was then known as to what vocational teachers would be required to do, or how they should be trained. In fact, the act provided for training teachers for a type of education which had not been provided to any very considerable extent, but was to be developed in the future. Not only was experimentation in this work possible—it was necessary.

2. General Principles

The qualifications of a teacher are essentially of two kinds. In the first place, he must possess a knowledge of his subject or field, and, in the second place, he must have the necessary command of teaching technique to enable him to teach his subject successfully and efficiently.

In the training of vocational teachers the knowledge of the subject, which is essentially the "mastery of the occupation," has received a particularly careful evaluation. The vocational teacher must know not only the manipulative skills and technical content of the occupation he teaches; he must, in addition, be familiar with working conditions in this occupation. The possession of this content or knowledge has usually been secured through a requirement that a certain length of time be spent in practice of the occupation. All State plans include, as a prerequisite for employment as a teacher in a federally aided State program, a minimum period of experience in the occupation to be taught by the teacher.

Theoretically, three types of plans can be drawn for training vocational teachers.³ The first one is to give both the occupational content and the professional training in an institution which trains teachers. The second theoretical plan is to give the occupational content to a group of teachers who have secured the necessary professional training for teaching. The third theoretical plan is to give training in teaching to individuals who have acquired the occupational content.

Of these three general plans the first is the most expensive. The second plan is wholly impractical. It is practically impossible, for example, to train a successful high-school teacher as a toolmaker, principally because he cannot be induced to take the training. The

³For a full discussion of these plans see *Vocational Education in a Democracy*, by Charles A. Prosser and Charles R. Allen, ch. XVII.

time factor also makes this method prohibitive in many lines of vocational education. The third plan is the cheapest. It depends upon the possibility of drawing from groups employed in gainful occupations individuals who not only have through experience and practice secured a mastery of the occupation but also have such other qualifications as may be necessary for successfully teaching a vocational class.

The Vocational Education Act was passed nearly 2 months before the country entered the World War; it did not become effective through organization of the administrative agencies until some months after that event. At that time every effort was being made to prepare for the emergency. There were great demands for agricultural products and the farmers were prosperous. Likewise, tradesmen were in great demand and wages were high. In such a situation it was no small undertaking to find capable persons and train them for the new system of education. It proved impossible to do much immediately. States necessarily had to temporize in the employment of vocational teachers and many were admitted to teaching positions who were not adequately trained.

3. Preemployment Training of Teachers of Agriculture

Before the passage of the National Vocational Education Act a few of the land-grant colleges and universities had begun to train teachers of agriculture for secondary schools. A number of State normal schools also had entered the field. Other normal schools and land-grant institutions were also interested in providing training for teachers of agriculture.

Immediately upon acceptance of the Federal act each State set up machinery designed to train teachers of vocational agriculture. In every State the State board for vocational education delegated this function to the land-grant college and in a few cases State normal schools also were designated for this work. This policy resulted in the adoption of a 4-year college course leading to the bachelor's degree as the standard for training teachers of vocational agriculture. It practically excluded from the potential teaching group the successful farmer and tended to neglect somewhat, though by no means altogether, a complete and adequate occupational experience in favor of a scientific training.

The standard adopted by the States generally could not at first be attained to any great extent. During the war very few teachers of agriculture were prepared through the regular courses. Many of the

States put into operation short, intensive emergency courses through which men experienced in farming, trained in science, and with experience in teaching were given instruction in technical agriculture. Summer schools were used for this purpose. Soon the need for such emergency training passed and by 1919 practically all of these courses had been discontinued.

The situation changed rapidly after the war and in 1922 the announcement was made that the number of men trained to teach vocational agriculture had apparently caught up with the demand. It then became possible to raise standards, and practically all the States required that teachers of vocational agriculture be graduates from a 4-year course in agriculture giving special attention to the diverse needs of a teaching position, and including a definite course in teacher training of from 9 to 20 or more semester hours of professional work. Practically every State had made arrangement for practice teaching by the trainee. In some States the supervised practice teaching was conducted through a system of apprentice teaching, the senior's spending the greater part of the last half year in teaching in an approved vocational department of agriculture in the State, under the direction of a member of the teacher-training-staff of the college. The preemployment training of teachers of vocational agriculture has now become a major responsibility of the colleges of agriculture. In 1932 it was reported that approximately 40 percent of the agricultural college graduates were specifically prepared to teach vocational agriculture.

A matter of some interest in relation to teacher training is the practice recently grown up in the South of selecting a "master teacher" from among the teachers of vocational agriculture. The practice became a regional affair, beginning with 1928, and each year a regional "master teacher" has been chosen. The selection has been made on the basis of the following and similar elements: (1) Supervised farm-practice program; (2) number of people reached in organized instruction; (3) preparation for, and methods of, instruction; (4) community group leadership activities; (5) plan of work based on community needs.

4. Preemployment Training of Teachers of Home Economics

When the National Vocational Education Act went into effect many of the land-grant and other colleges of the country were offering excellent courses in home economics and some good teacher-training work was being done. Most of these institutions offered the subject as a part of the 4-year college course leading to a college degree. In

some States, however, the work was not of so high a grade, but was often given as part of a 2-year normal course. These institutions were desirous of continuing and expanding their work. Consequently in a majority of the States one or two institutions—land-grant colleges and universities, State universities, women's colleges, and normal schools—with departments of home economics were in 1917 designated by the State boards of vocational education for the training of teachers of home economics. In three States in 1919 the teacher training was conducted directly by the State board at established centers within the States, using the plant and equipment in one or more colleges.

The length of the early teacher-training courses was 4 years in all but a few States. By 1924 no State provided in its plan for the employment of home economics teachers in its all-day vocational schools who were not college graduates.

In the early courses scientific training, rather than occupational experience, was emphasized. To be sure, many women pursuing home economics work in college had previously had experience with the problems of homemaking, but very few had had the full responsibility for managing a home. In a few States, in which the State boards trained their teachers directly, they accepted for entrance only women of maturity who had had adequate vocational experience. Vocational experience as a part of the teacher-training course was furnished in a variety of ways: (1) Through actual practice during the summer vacation; (2) by various projects performed during the regular term; and (3) through supervised work in the practice cottage. By 1919 all of the States included vocational experience in their programs for training teachers of home economics, either as a requirement for entrance to, or graduation from, their teacher-training course.

Work was begun rather early to train teachers of part-time and evening classes. This was usually carried on by special courses of about 80 lessons offered outside institutions. The students enrolled in the courses were mature women with vocational experience. They were recruited for work with only a small amount of preemployment training and were then given assistance in their work. For various reasons this form of teacher training developed rather slowly.

The training of home-economics teachers has been materially improved since 1918. Much of this improvement has occurred in four principal lines. Supervised practice teaching was a part of the original program in nearly all the States. At first the high schools, and in some cases elementary schools, were used to provide opportunities for this supervised service, and in several States an apprentice plan was

followed by which students were excused from regular college work for a definite period of time, during which they assisted the teacher in charge of the work in a school, and finally assumed full responsibility for the class. Later the supervised teaching was, as far as possible, done in vocational classes.

Instruction in home management has been greatly improved. Home-management houses have been provided in practically all the institutions training teachers of home economics. In these houses the students have actual practice under supervision in carrying on several of their household activities at the same time and in relation to one another and to the welfare of the group in the home-management house.

Another subject which has received much attention is child care and training. Excellent courses have been provided in a number of institutions. Many of the practice houses have very young children living in them to furnish a means of giving more effective training and experience to prospective teachers in child care and training. To provide further facilities for technical instruction in child care and training, nursery schools have been established in a number of teacher-training institutions.

5. Preemployment Training of Teachers of Trades and Industries

An extensive program of trade and industrial training such as that contemplated in the National Vocational Education Act calls for three classes of teachers: (1) Shop teachers; (2) technical, or related subjects, teachers; and (3) nonvocational teachers. The success of the program depends in a very large measure upon the shop teacher. In some local programs no technical teachers are employed, the shop teacher giving the instruction in both the shop work and the related subjects.

When the National Vocational Education Act went into effect the States had had almost no experience in training teachers of trade and industrial subjects. Consequently the training of such teachers brought the Federal and the State boards into an almost entirely new field. Owing to the conditions brought on by the World War the problem was complicated by the difficulty of inducing men to take the training.

Several possible sources and means of obtaining teachers of trade and industrial subjects were considered. First, a potential supply was seen in the institutions that were training teachers of manual arts. The feeling prevailed in some quarters that manual training and voca-

tional trade and industrial education were closely akin, the essential difference being merely, a difference in the amount of time devoted to shop work. However, a serious difficulty with this form of training was that it did not easily fit into the vocational education scheme since the students in the courses generally lacked adequate occupational experience and the objectives of the instruction in manual arts were different from those of instruction in trade and industrial subjects. As a source of supply for the teachers which were needed, the students in courses of manual arts did not seem very promising, though several States attempted to use this form of training, with some modifications.

Students of engineering seemed to be another potential supply for teachers of trade and industrial subjects. Many of the students had had some industrial experience before coming to college and the engineering shop work furnished training which, it was thought, might in part at least, serve as a substitute for first-hand experience in trades and industries. The idea was that if the interested engineering student were given certain professional teacher training courses he might become a successful teacher of trade and industrial subjects. A difficulty with the plan was that the training offered by the engineering colleges was not well adapted to preparing such teachers. Furthermore, the engineering colleges were not particularly interested in preparing teachers. Their objective was the training of engineers and they did not regard teaching positions in secondary schools as desirable for their graduates. Consequently the engineering schools brought practically no pressure to bear upon the State boards for vocational education for the opportunity to enter the field or to make the bachelor's degree a minimum requirement for teachers of trades and industries.

A third source of supply of these teachers was the trades and industries. Experience in Massachusetts had demonstrated the possibility of securing in industry individuals who were occupationally competent and who also possessed other characteristics which helped to qualify them as teachers in trade and industrial education. For two reasons it was more or less impractical to train such men in the colleges and universities: First, since they had generally left school to learn a trade, almost none of them were prepared to enter college; second, very few of these men could afford to stop earning and attend school for any considerable length of time. To prepare these men for teaching, it was proposed to give them a short simple course in how to teach what they knew.

In this situation the Federal Board for Vocational Education was not disposed to attempt a standardization of policy or finally to approve any procedure. However, it looked with particular favor upon industry as a promising source of a teacher supply.

To train teachers the States adopted various plans. Many State boards for vocational education designated State institutions for preparing teachers of trade and industrial subjects. A number of the institutions organized day resident courses, some of them continuing over a period of 4 years. At least two States—New York and Wisconsin—offered substantial scholarships, as maintenance and support, to properly qualified persons while enrolled in resident courses intended to prepare them as teachers of trade and industrial subjects, but this plan was not widely adopted.

In a number of States, extension courses, provided either by State colleges and universities or by State boards for vocational education directly, were offered in populous centers for training shop or technical teachers or both. Not infrequently a short intensive course on how to teach their subjects was given to experienced tradesmen. In other cases experienced tradesmen were employed to teach vocational classes and rendered some assistance at the beginning by itinerant teachers.

Very soon the tendency developed to shift from long-term residence courses to short-term intensive courses which were highly functional. Such courses were given in summer at the institutions, or in evening classes at convenient places. Almost all of the States at the beginning of their work provided long-term residence courses for training teachers of trades and industries, but they were found to be expensive and rather ineffective, and by 1924 they had become rather rare.

Preemployment training of teachers of trade and industrial subjects is now provided in three ways: (1) By residence courses in publicly controlled schools and colleges during the regular school year; (2) by extension service; and (3) by summer-school courses. Of the three ways mentioned the extension course has so far seemed to be the best and most efficient type of organization for training prospective teachers. Several States, however, provide 2- and 4-year resident curriculums for training such teachers. So great have been the difficulties in trying to operate an elaborate program of preemployment training that many States have practically ceased to provide courses for training prospective teachers. Some States have committed themselves to the principle that the proper time to begin the training of a teacher of trades and industries is identical with the time of beginning employment.

6. The Improvement of Teachers in Service

When the teacher-training program under the National Vocational Education Act was first organized, the emphasis was on the preemployment training of teachers, and very little thought was given to any provision for training teachers who were in service. Such agencies as the summer school and extension classes were not as popular then as they became 10 years later. The itinerant teacher-trainer was hardly known.

However, the in-service training of vocational teachers was by no means entirely overlooked. It was in recognition of the need for such work that the Federal Board for Vocational Education in 1918 announced a special ruling granting to the States permission to use teacher-training funds for part payment of the salaries of qualified State supervisors. This extension of the use of teacher-training funds was made on the theory that supervision had to do primarily with the improvement of teachers in service. The ruling has had important consequences in the development of plans for the improvement of teachers.

Seven years later (1925) the Federal Board came to the conclusion that the improvement of teachers in service was the most important problem in the field of teacher training, particularly in the case of part-time and evening-school teachers. At the same time the conclusion was reached that the local supervisors were the logical persons to carry on informal specialized professional improvement work with their own teachers. To promote this type of work the Board ruled that, under certain conditions, Federal teacher-training funds might be used to pay salaries of qualified local supervisors of agricultural, trade, home-economics, and industrial subjects.

The need for in-service training of vocational teachers, as well as the liberal rulings of the Federal Board, resulted in a rather rapid development of service for the improvement of teachers and teaching. This has developed in several ways. Some of it has been effective through specific courses in summer schools. Extension courses provided by educational institutions or by State boards have proved effective for in-service training, as have also late-afternoon, evening, and Saturday classes at the institutions. Other forms of in-service training have been provided through State and sectional meetings or conferences of vocational teachers and through correspondence courses. In trade and industrial education much of the teacher-improvement work is carried on by local supervisors, who train teachers in their own communities.

Important assistance is given to vocational teachers through what is known as itinerant teacher training—an arrangement by which the teacher-trainer goes to those to be taught. Ordinarily it means individual instruction of a teacher at the school where he serves, by a competent person whose duty it is to do such work where it is needed. This plan implies that the teacher-trainer shall go out to any locality in a State where a teacher is not rendering the service desired and shall stay with the teacher, or go back to him, until he has gained enough additional knowledge and skill to meet his problems with at least reasonable efficiency.

Included in the program of training trade and industrial teachers is the work of training instructors of foremen. Since foreman training is conducted largely by the conference method, the instructors, or conference leaders, are trained in conference procedure. In many States a member of the State staff trains local supervisors, or conference leaders, to work with foremen. The distinction between the training of foremen and the training of instructors of foremen has not always been clearly made by those engaged in the work.

The amount of general training desirable for teachers of trade and industrial subjects has recently been a subject of discussion. In many States and in many communities the possession of a college degree is considered a more important asset for a trade teacher than is the possession of an adequate mastery of his trade. This situation has produced two results. In the first place, there has been a tendency to place in teaching positions, whenever possible, individuals who had acquired a good general education but who possessed only the minimum requirements as to occupational experience. In the second place, the emphasis on academic education has in many cases forced competent mechanics to submit to a teacher-training program largely of an academic character which too often has been of doubtful value in assisting them to do better work as trade and industrial teachers. In a number of localities, a capable mechanic is barred from salary increase or promotion because he does not possess an advanced college or university degree. The Federal office has always adhered to the fundamental principle that a vocational instructor must be a thorough master of the occupation he teaches, and it has viewed with considerable anxiety the tendency to regard a college degree, rather than occupational mastery, as fundamental for teachers of trade and industrial subjects.

Recently a general tendency seems to have developed to stress general education in the improvement of vocational teachers even though certification standards may not require it. This takes the form of work

toward a college degree for teachers without degrees, and graduate study for those who already have degrees.³ The trend seems to be due to several reasons, such as (1) the tradition that teachers should be educated people, and (2) the belief that all successful teaching depends in large measure on the general education of a teacher. These and other factors are responsible for vocational teachers continuing their education.

7. Expenditures for Training Vocational Teachers

For the year ended June 30, 1933, the amount of Federal and of State and local money expended for training vocational teachers was as follows:

	Total	Federal	State and local
For training teachers of:			
(1) Agriculture	\$715,395	\$295,635	\$419,760
(2) Home economics	742,710	326,486	416,224
(3) Trades and industries	803,877	326,929	476,948
Total	2,261,982	949,050	1,312,932

Aggregate expenditures were fairly evenly distributed to the three fields. In this year, as in other years, the States provided funds in excess of the amount required to match the Federal funds being used for the same purpose.

³ Mays, Arthur B. *An Introduction to Vocational Education*, pp. 278-279.

Chapter IV

The Vocational Rehabilitation System¹

1. Meaning and Acceptance of Federal Cooperation

The Vocational Rehabilitation Act established as a public policy the principle that the Nation as a whole should share with the States the common responsibility for rehabilitating the physically disabled, but that direct responsibility for carrying on the work should rest with the States. Through this legislation Congress set up the program of rehabilitation of the disabled as a part of the Nation's general program of conservation, and recognized that conservation of the Nation's man power is a public responsibility. The recognition of that responsibility has been greatly encouraged in the States as a result of the national action.

Prior to the enactment of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act in 1920 only 12 States had enacted rehabilitation legislation and of these only 6 had actually initiated work. To date 45 States have enacted the necessary legislation providing for cooperation with the Federal Government, and all of these States are at present actively engaged in this service. In separate acts Federal legislation has extended the offer of Federal cooperation to Hawaii and Puerto Rico, but neither of these communities has as yet passed the necessary acceptance legislation. The three States which have no vocational rehabilitation legislation are Delaware, Kansas, and Vermont.

2. Definition and Objective of Vocational Rehabilitation

Vocational rehabilitation is defined in the Federal act as "the rendering of a person disabled fit to engage in a remunerative occupation." For the purposes of the act the term "disabled person" is construed to mean "any person who, by reason of a physical defect or infirmity, whether congenital or acquired by accident, injury, or disease, is, or may be expected to be, totally or partially incapacitated for remunerative occupation." In addition, the State and Federal acts impose upon the administrative officers the responsibility of placement of the disabled person in employment. As the work has developed throughout the country, vocational rehabilitation of the disabled is clearly differentiated from physical, mental, social, and other forms of rehabilitation.

¹ Prepared with the assistance of John Aibel Kratz, Chief, Vocational Rehabilitation Division, Office of Education.

The predominant objective of the State vocational rehabilitation service is the establishment or reestablishment of the physically vocationally disabled in such forms of remunerative productive employment as are followed by normal persons in making a livelihood. It should be pointed out, however, that as a condition of vocational rehabilitation State departments must frequently provide for physical, mental, and social rehabilitation as well.

3. Administrative Organization

The national agency designated for administration of the rehabilitation act was the Federal Board for Vocational Education. When the Vocational Rehabilitation Act became effective the Federal Board established in its office a Division of Rehabilitation and committed to it the work of national administration. Since the transfer of the functions of the Board to the Office of Education in 1933, this division has been continued under the Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education, in the Office of Education.

The division studies the State plans submitted for approval, and in many cases assists in formulating those plans. It makes research studies bearing on vocational rehabilitation. It holds regional conferences, which are in the nature of short-period training schools for workers engaged in the rehabilitation service, and also national conferences for the promotion of the rehabilitation program. Under a separate act, it also has charge of the rehabilitation service of the District of Columbia. The personnel of the rehabilitation staff comprises a chief, four regional agents, a research agent, and two supervisors for the District of Columbia service.

The State cooperating agency is the State Board for Vocational Education. It usually creates a division for rehabilitation, or a subdivision of the vocational education division, with a central office at the State capital. In a majority of the States it has been found necessary to establish regional offices for the purpose of concentrating the service in centers of population, as well as for economy of administration.

For the conduct of the work, staffs of technical workers are employed in the States who engage in rendering direct service to the disabled person. Approximately 190 persons carry on the program in the States. A number of the sparsely settled States have but 1 rehabilitation worker; the others have staffs ranging from 2 or 3 persons

to as many as 6 or 8 in a few States, and several States have 12 or more workers.

In the national program of vocational rehabilitation the Federal Government does not undertake the organization and immediate direction of the service. Rather it makes financial contributions to the support of the program, serves as a clearing house for the experience of the States, makes available to them the results of studies and investigations of rehabilitation or allied work, provides advice and assistance in matters of organization and administration, and promotes the work generally,

The principle underlying the cooperation between the States and the Federal Government is that the most practicable form of administration of rehabilitation is that under which the direct responsibility for the work rests with the States. The States are left free to develop their services in conformity with needs and conditions of their respective jurisdictions without interference by the National Government in the details of administration and operation which do not involve national interests. There is no conflict between the States and the Federal Government as to function and responsibility, the two agencies working in harmonious and cooperative relations as partners in the rehabilitation program.

One of the conditions upon which the Federal aid is granted to the States is that they submit annually to the Federal Office of Education for approval a plan for carrying on the State program. This plan becomes a cooperative agreement between the Federal Government and the State, but no general uniform agreement is imposed upon the States. Each plan is formulated and proposed by the State Board for Vocational Education for its own State, and is approved for that State only. No effort is made to set up a single uniform plan for the country as a whole with its widely diversified social, economic, and industrial conditions in the several States.

In considering the development of the Federal-State relations under the rehabilitation program, however, it should be noted that few States had initiated rehabilitation work prior to the enactment of the Federal law, and that partly as a consequence of this condition the first State plans submitted to the Federal Board for Vocational Education and approved by it, showed considerable similarity of provisions. The provisions of these early plans were rather general in their terms setting up objectives and procedures. As experience in individual States has demonstrated the need, the States have found it advisable and even necessary to submit more detailed plans and to introduce

variations intended to meet local conditions. The Federal Office has encouraged constructive experimentation and a disposition on the part of the States to set up special provisions for meeting particular local problems. Hence, the State plans today show considerable variation, not so much as to methods by which case work is carried on, as to certain policies respecting eligibility and selection of cases, and as to the development of administrative relations with local agencies and programs of rehabilitation.

A significant recent development with respect to the formulation of State plans is found in the effort being made in a number of States to set up working relations with cooperating agencies, more particularly with local communities which have expressed a willingness to assume responsibility for developing rehabilitation programs within their own jurisdictions. The tendency is accordingly for the program to become a Federal-State-local rather than simply a Federal-State undertaking. Moreover, diversification of State plans has resulted from the effort being made in certain States to set up special plans for rehabilitation of special groups presenting peculiar problems—such as the blind, those with hearing defects, and those with cardiac or tubercular diseases.

In recent years the development of the program has been characterized in some States by the establishment of working relations with agencies such as those created for the placement of disabled persons, or for dealing with special groups of the disabled. The usual procedure is to set up working relations and aid the agency out of State and Federal funds. It is provided in such cases that the work carried on by the agency shall be done in conformity with the standards set up by the State department for its own direct service to the disabled.

Furthermore, in some sections of the country local programs of rehabilitation have been established under which the local school board provides funds for carrying on work in cooperation with the State department. Federal and State, as well as local, funds are provided, and in these cases also the program is carried on in cooperation with the State.

The Wagner-Peyser Act, which became effective July 1, 1933, establishes a national system of employment offices operating through Federal-State cooperation very similar to that of the vocational rehabilitation program. This act requires cooperation between the State rehabilitation and employment services. A number of the States have already set up such cooperative relations.

4. Procedures in Vocational Rehabilitation

Disabled persons cannot be rehabilitated in groups. Because of varying degrees of disability, education, age, capacity, knowledge, spirit, or determination each case presents its own difficulties, and requires its own specific solution. All of the work is conducted by what is known as the "case method." The disabled person is interviewed for the purpose of securing a complete inventory regarding his disability, education, occupational experience, capacity, personality, financial resources, attitude toward rehabilitation, desires concerning return to employment, opportunity for employment, and possibly other factors. All of these are thoroughly studied for the purpose of developing the best plan of rehabilitation in each case. Such a plan requires on the part of the rehabilitation agent throughout the entire program a general service to the disabled person in the nature of advisement, guidance, and cooperation. This service does not cease until the disabled person has been definitely established in remunerative employment.

Although rehabilitation is a complex service suited to the circumstances of each case, the major portion of most plans takes the form of 1 or a combination of 2 or more of the following services:

Physical reconstruction.— This service is provided for the purpose of reducing the degree of disability or removing it altogether. The disabled person is far better served by being put in the way of physical reconstruction, if possible, than by being trained "around" his disability.

Provision of artificial appliance.— Mechanical devices are a form of physical restoration in that they serve to supply a missing member, or the function of a missing member.

Establishment in business.— Disabled persons are frequently rehabilitated by being established in business for themselves. In many cases this is a form of placement, although in many cases vocational or business training service is rendered in addition.

Direct placement.— Many disabled persons cannot be rehabilitated through training because of certain factors—such as age or lack of education—which make them nonsusceptible of vocational training. Rehabilitation in these cases must be accomplished through direct placement in a job following a service of counsel and advisement to determine the best job at which the disabled person can work, giving due consideration to his age and disability, and his educational and vocational experiences.

Vocational training.—The most lasting type of rehabilitation service is rendered, however, in the case of those persons who are susceptible of vocational training. The acquirement of a trade skill by a disabled man puts him in a position to compete with normal workers, and even provides him with the facility to make the best of opportunities for promotion. All types of vocational training, whether provided in schools or in commercial and industrial establishments, are given the disabled who are susceptible of profiting by it—including even tutorial and correspondence training.

Certain steps are followed in every case which receives a rehabilitation service. These steps may be briefly described as follows:

1. *Survey.*—A survey of each case is necessary to secure information upon the basis of which eligibility of a disabled person for service and his susceptibility for benefiting by the service may be determined, as well as the character and extent of rehabilitation needed.

2. *Counsel and advisement.*—A service of counsel and advisement is given in an endeavor to direct the interest of the individual person to the particular occupation for which, with his individual resources and disability, he may best be fitted.

3. *Determination of job objective.*—Before the rehabilitation plan in any case is initiated an occupational objective is determined upon.

4. *Preparation and execution of plan of rehabilitation.*—A plan of rehabilitation is made for each case, and the steps in the execution of it are supervised by the State rehabilitation department.

5. *Placement.*—All persons are placed in employment after having been fitted for employment.

6. *Follow-up.*—In every case a follow-up service is provided which is definite and organized, and is continued until there is reasonable assurance of satisfactory permanent employment.

These steps constitute case procedure in rehabilitation work.

It is a primary principle that the local rehabilitation department shall avail itself of the services of all agencies that are in a position to assist in the rehabilitation of the individual. For instance, when vocational training is a necessary part of the rehabilitation program for a particular individual, this training is secured by the rehabilitation agent from such facilities as are available in the community in which the disabled person resides. Instead of setting up a school for general or even specific forms of vocational training, instruction needed for disabled persons is secured or purchased from public or private schools. The same principle is followed for all services which are needed in the rehabilitation of individuals.

5. Service of the National Program

Since the inception of the work in 1920 about 68,000 persons have been rehabilitated and placed in remunerative employment. In the last 2 or 3 years the number of rehabilitations has been about 6,000 a year. At the present writing more than 30,000 disabled persons are on the live rolls of the States.

With present available funds and resources State programs of rehabilitation collectively cannot hope to produce a larger number of rehabilitations annually. The average cost of rehabilitating disabled persons is about \$300. The combined expenditures from Federal and State sources during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1933, were about \$2,153,000, expended for all purposes—administration and case work. As the program becomes better established, it is logical to expect State legislatures to provide more adequate funds for the work. However, the real opportunity for substantial expansion is to be found in the assumption by local communities of their proper responsibility for the provision of both funds and service. The justification for this type of expansion is set forth in the following section.

As indicating achievements in the States under their programs, some summary figures based upon reports by the States to the Federal Board for Vocational Education for the fiscal year 1930 may be cited.

Disabled Persons Rehabilitated, Fiscal year 1929-30

I. Age distribution:		Percent
Under 21	31
21 to 30	36
31 to 40	17
41 to 50	10
Over 50	6
II. Origin of disability:		
Employment accident	39
Public accident	18
Disease	37
Congenital	6
III. Nature of disability:		
Hand	13.0
Hands6
Arm	8.6
Arms3
Leg	35.1
Legs	8.5
Hand and arm5
Hand and leg	1.3

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Disabled Persons Rehabilitated, Fiscal year 1929-30—Continued

III. Nature of disability—Continued.		Percent
Arm and leg		2.0
Multiple		5.4
Vision		6.9
Hearing		3.5
General debility		3.1
Miscellaneous		11.2
IV. Kind of rehabilitation service:		
Institutional training		41
Employment training		8
Job restoration		51
V. Previous education:		
Sixth grade and less		33
Seventh to ninth grades		42
Tenth to twelfth grades		19
Twelfth plus		5

A study made by the Federal Board for Vocational Education in the year 1927, covering the post-rehabilitation experiences of a number of cases rehabilitated by the States during the period 1920-24, ascertained that a group of more than 6,000 disabled persons had been rehabilitated into more than 700 different types of employment. These persons had, as a general rule, been in continuous employment after rehabilitation. Of the group employed during a period of 2½ to 5 years, 48 percent had been continuously employed. The importance of the service is emphasized by the fact that 3,031 cases, or 47 percent of the total number rehabilitated, were under 30 years of age and had a period of industrial-life expectancy of at least 20 years. Additional statistics, showing the employment status of these cases at the time they were interviewed in the field after they had been in employment for periods ranging from 1 to 5 years subsequent to rehabilitation, are shown in tables 5 and 6. The average cost of rehabilitating 4,669 cases, or 76 percent of the total number rehabilitated, was less than \$150.

TABLE 5.—Employment status at interview (1927) of 6,000 disabled persons rehabilitated, 1920-24

Employed:	Percentage of the total
With same employer and at same job held prior to rehabilitation	7.6
With same employer but at different job from that held prior to rehabilitation	9.7
With different employer but at same job held prior to rehabilitation ..	6.4
With different employer and at different job from that held prior to rehabilitation	40.4
	— 64.1

TABLE 5.—Employment status at interview (1927) of 6,000 disabled persons rehabilitated, 1920-24—Continued

	Percentage of the total
Unemployed:	
Because physically unable to do the work	2.6
Because of business depression6
Because vocationally unable to do the work1
Because of other reasons	3.7
	7.0
Married (women)	1.3
Deceased	3.3
Not located	14.1
Information not reported	10.2
	100.0

TABLE 6.—Average weekly wages of 6,000 disabled persons rehabilitated, 1920-24, before and after rehabilitation

	Average weekly wages	
	Skilled	Unskilled
Before disability	\$28.85	\$19.71
Subsequent to disability	4.92	5.15
In rehabilitation job:		
Initial	22.98	19.61
Final	26.68	22.10

In concluding this summary it must be noted that the service of rehabilitation now rendered reaches but 11 percent of the disabled persons who are in need of it. The best figures which can be obtained with respect to industrial and public accidents and to disablements due to disease and congenital causes show, that there is an annual increment of about 60,000 persons who could profit by rehabilitation service. As the rehabilitation program has been in operation less than a decade, what has been accomplished may be considered significant, but it is obvious that promotion for further expansion must be continued if the program is to come nearer to dealing adequately with the problem of the physically disabled who are vocationally handicapped.

6. Outstanding Problems

National and State rehabilitation agencies are confronted with several outstanding problems. Upon each of these agencies devolves responsibility for stimulating local communities to establish their own rehabilitation departments. These should be carried on in conjunction with the State and Federal departments. Many advantages

accrue to the local communities and to the States where these communities assume their share of the rehabilitation problem. The service becomes more direct in its application, and frequently the local community can deal more effectively with the individual than can the more remote State service. Rehabilitation service requires continuous application in each case, and such application can be provided economically only under local programs. It is therefore a logical responsibility of State rehabilitation departments to stimulate the establishment of local programs of rehabilitation. Already a good beginning has been made, but much more along this line remains to be done.

Accompanying the development of the program of vocational rehabilitation there has been a movement for the vocational rehabilitation of the disabled child. This movement began some years ago with the emphasis upon promotion of physical reconstruction and education of the crippled child. Leaders in the movement have in recent years come to appreciate the need for completing their programs through the addition of vocational training and placement services. These latter services are naturally responsibilities of State rehabilitation departments, but children's agencies may under certain conditions take over these functions for the group under 21 years of age. A problem which confronts rehabilitation leaders is, accordingly, to bring about such a correlation of their movement with the movement regarding crippled children as will work to the best advantages of these children. Some advance has been made in this connection and pending Federal legislation may help to bring about the accomplishment of this much-to-be-desired objective.

Placement agencies for the physically handicapped have been developing in certain large centers of population. In several instances organized relations with the State rehabilitation department have been effected, and here again the movement is one of concern to State rehabilitation departments.

These developments bring leaders in rehabilitation work face to face with the problem of so organizing their departments that all services for disabled persons shall be properly correlated. The wisdom and diplomacy of leaders in rehabilitation work are essential in bringing about such a coordinated program for the disabled as will reduce to a minimum those overlappings and duplications of service which make for inefficiency and high cost of service.

Much remains to be done to educate the public, employers, and various organizations and agencies as to what the State departments of rehabilitation are attempting to accomplish. Cooperation by employ-

ers and agencies must be stimulated to the highest possible degree if / a maximum service to the disabled person is to be rendered.

7. The National Rehabilitation Association

The principal national organization devoted to the promotion of civilian vocational rehabilitation in the United States is the National Rehabilitation Association, which was formed in 1923. Its purpose is—

- (a) To provide through its meetings a forum in which all phases of vocational rehabilitation of disabled civilians and problems incidental thereto may be discussed.
- (b) To conduct a campaign of education to bring the general public to an adequate understanding of the importance of the civilian rehabilitation movement.
- (c) To further, so far as possible and desirable, agreement upon principles and practices in the field of civilian rehabilitation and to promote comity between the various agencies:
- (d) To set up a medium through which expression may be given to the views of the membership upon pending legislation and public policies affecting the civilian rehabilitation movement.²

The association holds an annual meeting in October. From time to time it issues news letters, and recently (1933) it published a year book entitled "*Courage; Facing Handicaps.*" It has a legislative committee which has been active in promoting Federal legislation on vocational rehabilitation.

² National Rehabilitation Association, Constitution and bylaws.

APPENDIX I

The Smith-Lever Act

AN ACT To provide for cooperative agricultural extension work between the agricultural colleges in the several States receiving the benefits of an act of Congress approved July second, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, and of acts supplementary thereto, and the United States Department of Agriculture.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That in order to aid in diffusing among the people of the United States useful and practical information on subjects relating to agriculture and home economics, and to encourage the application of the same, there may be inaugurated in connection with the college or colleges in each State now receiving, or which may hereafter receive, the benefits of the act of Congress approved July second, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, entitled "An act donating public lands to the several States and Territories which may provide colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts" (Twelfth Statutes at Large, page five hundred and three), and of the act of Congress approved August thirtieth, eighteen hundred and ninety (Twenty-sixth Statutes at Large, page four hundred and seventeen and chapter eight hundred and forty-one), agricultural extension work which shall be carried on in cooperation with the United States Department of Agriculture: *Provided,* That in any State in which two or more such colleges have been or hereafter may be established the appropriations hereinafter made to such State shall be administered by such college or colleges as the legislature of such State may direct: *Provided further,* That, pending the inauguration and development of the cooperative extension work herein authorized, nothing in this act shall be construed to discontinue either the farm-management work or the farmers' cooperative demonstration work as now conducted by the Bureau of Plant Industry of the Department of Agriculture.

SEC. 2. That cooperative agricultural extension work shall consist of the giving of instruction and practical demonstrations in agriculture and home economics to persons not attending or resident in said colleges in the several communities, and imparting to such persons information on said subjects through field demonstrations, publications, and otherwise; and this work shall be carried on in such manner as may be mutually agreed upon by the Secretary of Agriculture and the State agricultural college or colleges receiving the benefits of this act.

SEC. 3. That for the purpose of paying the expenses of said cooperative agricultural extension work and the necessary printing and distributing of information in connection with the same, there is permanently appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, the sum of \$480,000 for each year, \$10,000 of which shall be paid annually, in the manner hereinafter provided, to each State which shall by action of its legislature assent to the provisions of this act: *Provided*, That payment of such installments of the appropriation hereinbefore made as shall become due to any State before the adjournment of the regular session of the legislature meeting next after the passage of this act may, in the absence of prior legislative assent, be made upon the assent of the governor thereof, duly certified to the Secretary of the Treasury: *Provided further*, That there is also appropriated an additional sum of \$600,000 for the fiscal year following that in which the foregoing appropriation first becomes available, and for each year thereafter for seven years a sum exceeding by \$500,000 the sum appropriated for each preceding year, and for each year thereafter there is permanently appropriated for each year the sum of \$4,100,000 in addition to the sum of \$480,000 hereinbefore provided: *Provided further*, That before the funds herein appropriated shall become available to any college for any fiscal year plans for the work to be carried on under this act shall be submitted by the proper officials of each college and approved by the Secretary of Agriculture. Such additional sums shall be used only for the purposes hereinbefore stated, and shall be allotted annually to each State by the Secretary of Agriculture and paid in the manner hereinbefore provided in the proportion which the rural population of each State bears to the total rural population of all States as determined by the next preceding Federal census: *Provided further*, That no payment out of the additional appropriations herein provided shall be made in any year to any State until an equal sum has been appropriated for that year by the legislature of such State, or provided by State, county, college, local authority, or individual contributions from within the State, for the maintenance of the cooperative agricultural extension work provided for in this act.

SEC. 4. That the sums hereby appropriated for extension work shall be paid in equal semiannual payments on the first day of January and July of each year by the Secretary of the Treasury upon the warrant of the Secretary of Agriculture, out of the Treasury of the United States, to the treasurer or other officer of the State duly authorized by the laws of the State to receive the same; and such officer shall be required to report to the Secretary of Agriculture, on or before the first day of September of each year, a detailed statement of the amount

so received during the previous fiscal year, and of its disbursement, on forms prescribed by the Secretary of Agriculture.

SEC. 5. That if any portion of the moneys received by the designated officer of any State for the support and maintenance of cooperative agricultural extension work, as provided in this act, shall by any action or contingency be diminished or lost or be misapplied, it shall be replaced by said State to which it belongs, and until so replaced no subsequent appropriation shall be apportioned or paid to said State, and no portion of said moneys shall be applied, directly or indirectly, to the purchase, erection, preservation, or repair of any building or buildings, or the purchase or rental of land, or in college-course teaching, lectures in colleges, promoting agricultural trains, or any other purpose not specified in this act, and not more than five per centum of each annual appropriation shall be applied to the printing and distribution of publications. It shall be the duty of each of said colleges annually, on or before the first day of January, to make to the governor of the State in which it is located a full and detailed report of its operations in the direction of extension work as defined in this act, including a detailed statement of receipts and expenditures from all sources for this purpose, a copy of which report shall be sent to the Secretary of Agriculture and to the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States.

SEC. 6. That on or before the first day of July in each year after the passage of this act the Secretary of Agriculture shall ascertain and certify to the Secretary of the Treasury as to each State whether it is entitled to receive its share of the annual appropriation for cooperative agricultural extension work under this act, and the amount which it is entitled to receive. If the Secretary of Agriculture shall withhold a certificate from any State of its appropriation, the facts and reasons therefor shall be reported to the President, and the amount involved shall be kept separate in the Treasury until the expiration of the Congress next succeeding a session of the legislature of any State from which a certificate has been withheld, in order that the State may, if it should so desire, appeal to Congress from the determination of the Secretary of Agriculture. If the next Congress shall not direct such sum to be paid, it shall be covered into the Treasury.

SEC. 7. That the Secretary of Agriculture shall make an annual report to Congress of the receipts, expenditures, and results of the cooperative agricultural extension work in all of the States receiving the benefits of this act, and also whether the appropriation of any State has been withheld, and if so, the reasons therefor.

SEC. 8. That Congress may at any time alter, amend, or repeal any or all of the provisions of this act.

Approved, May 8, 1914 (38 Stat.L. 372.)

APPENDIX II

The Clarke-McNary Act

AN ACT To provide for the protection of forest lands, for the reforestation of denuded areas, for the extension of national forests, and for other purposes, in order to promote the continuous production of timber on lands chiefly suitable therefor.

This act established a national forestry policy. As the title suggests, it includes a variety of means for promoting the continuous production of timber. In section 4 the Secretary of Agriculture is—

... authorized and directed to cooperate with the various States in the procurement, production, and distribution of forest-tree seeds and plants, for the purpose of establishing windbreaks, shelter belts, and farm wood lots upon denuded or nonforested lands within such cooperating States, under such conditions and requirements as he may prescribe to the end that forest-tree seeds or plants so procured, produced, or distributed shall be used effectively for planting denuded or nonforested lands in the cooperating States and growing timber thereon: . . .

To enable the Secretary of Agriculture to carry out this provision an annual appropriation of not more than \$100,000 is authorized.

The particular section of the act which provides for cooperative extension work in forestry is as follows:

Sec. 5. That the Secretary of Agriculture is hereby authorized and directed, in cooperation with appropriate officials of the various States, or, in his discretion, with other suitable agencies, to assist the owners of farms in establishing, improving, and renewing wood lots, shelter belts, windbreaks, and other valuable forest growth, and in growing and renewing useful timber crops: *Provided*, That, except for preliminary investigations, the amount expended by the Federal Government under this section in cooperation with any State or other cooperating agency during any fiscal year shall not exceed the amount expended by the State or other cooperating agency for the same purpose during the same fiscal year. There is hereby authorized to be appropriated annually out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, not more than \$100,000 to enable the Secretary of Agriculture to carry out the provisions of this section.

Approved, June 7, 1924 (43 Stat. L. 653).

APPENDIX III

The Capper-Ketchum Act

AN ACT To provide for the further development of agricultural extension work between the agricultural colleges in the several States receiving the benefits of the act entitled "An act donating public lands to the several States and Territories which may provide colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts", approved July 2, 1862, and all acts supplementary thereto, and the United States Department of Agriculture.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That in order to further develop the cooperative extension system as inaugurated under the act entitled "An act to provide for cooperative agricultural extension work between the agricultural colleges in the several States receiving the benefits of the act of Congress approved July 2, 1862, and all acts supplementary thereto, and the United States Department of Agriculture", approved May 8, 1914, there is hereby authorized to be appropriated out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, for the purpose of paying the expenses of the cooperative extension work in agriculture and home economics, and the necessary printing and distributing of information in connection with the same, the sum of \$980,000 for each year, \$20,000 of which shall be paid annually, in the manner hereinafter provided, to each State and the Territory of Hawaii which shall by action of its legislature assent to the provisions of this act. The payment of such installments of the appropriations hereinbefore made as shall become due to any State or Territory before the adjournment of the regular session of the legislature meeting next after the passage of this act may, in the absence of prior legislative assent, be made upon the assent of the governor thereof, duly certified to the Secretary of the Treasury. There is hereby authorized to be appropriated for the fiscal year following that in which the foregoing appropriation first becomes available, and for each year thereafter, the sum of \$500,000. The additional sums appropriated under the provisions of this act shall be subject to the same conditions and limitations as the additional sums appropriated under such act of May 8, 1914, except that (1) at least 80 per centum of all appropriations under this act shall be utilized for the payment of salaries of extension agents in counties of the several States to further develop the cooperative exten-

sion system in agriculture and home economics with men, women, boys, and girls; (2) funds available to the several States and the Territory of Hawaii under the terms of this act shall be so expended that the extension agents appointed under its provisions shall be men and women in fair and just proportions; (3) the restriction on the use of these funds for the promotion of agricultural trains shall not apply.

SEC. 2. The sums appropriated under the provisions of this act shall be in addition to, and not in substitution for, sums appropriated under such act of May 8, 1914, or sums otherwise annually appropriated for cooperative agricultural extension work.

Approved, May 22, 1928 (54 Stat.L. 711).

APPENDIX IV

The Smith-Hughes Act

AN ACT To provide for the promotion of vocational education; to provide for cooperation with the States in the promotion of such education in agriculture and the trades and industries; to provide for cooperation with the States in the preparation of teachers of vocational subjects; and to appropriate money and regulate its expenditure.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there is hereby annually appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, the sums provided in sections two, three, and four of this act, to be paid to the respective States for the purpose of cooperating with the States in paying the salaries of teachers, supervisors, and directors of agricultural subjects, and teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects, and in the preparation of teachers of agricultural, trade, industrial, and home economics subjects; and the sum provided for in section seven for the use of the Federal Board for Vocational Education for the administration of this act and for the purpose of making studies, investigations, and reports to aid in the organization and conduct of vocational education, which sums shall be expended as hereinafter provided.

SEC. 2. That for the purpose of cooperating with the States in paying the salaries of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects there is hereby appropriated for the use of the States, subject to the provisions of this act, for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and eighteen, the sum of \$500,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and nineteen, the sum of \$750,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty, the sum of \$1,000,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-one, the sum of \$1,250,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-two, the sum of \$1,500,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-three, the sum of \$1,750,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-four, the sum of \$2,000,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-five, the sum of \$2,500,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-six, and annually thereafter,

the sum of \$3,000,000. Said sums shall be allotted to the States in the proportion which their rural population bears to the total rural population in the United States, not including outlying possessions, according to the last preceding United States census: *Provided*, That the allotment of funds to any State shall be not less than a minimum of \$5,000 for any fiscal year prior to and including the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-three, nor less than \$10,000 for any fiscal year thereafter, and there is hereby appropriated the following sums, or so much thereof, as may be necessary, which shall be used for the purpose of providing the minimum allotment to the States provided for in this section: For the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and eighteen, the sum of \$48,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and nineteen, the sum of \$34,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty, the sum of \$24,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-one, the sum of \$18,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-two, the sum of \$14,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-three, the sum of \$11,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-four, the sum of \$9,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-five, the sum of \$34,000; and annually thereafter the sum of \$27,000.

Sec. 3. That for the purpose of cooperating with the States in paying the salaries of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects there is hereby appropriated for the use of the States, for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and eighteen, the sum of \$500,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and nineteen, the sum of \$750,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty, the sum of \$1,000,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-one, the sum of \$1,250,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-two, the sum of \$1,500,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-three, the sum of \$1,750,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-four, the sum of \$2,000,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-five, the sum of \$2,500,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-six, the sum of \$3,000,000; and annually thereafter the sum of \$3,000,000. Said sums shall be allotted to the States in the proportion which their urban population bears to the total urban population in the United States, not including outlying posses-

sions, according to the last preceding United States census: *Provided*, That the allotment of funds to any State shall be not less than a minimum of \$5,000 for any fiscal year prior to and including the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-three, nor less than \$10,000 for any fiscal year thereafter, and there is hereby appropriated the following sums, or so much thereof as may be needed, which shall be used for the purpose of providing the minimum allotment to the States provided for in this section: For the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and eighteen, the sum of \$66,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and nineteen, the sum of \$46,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty, the sum of \$34,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-one, the sum of \$28,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-two, the sum of \$25,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-three, the sum of \$22,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-four, the sum of \$19,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-five, the sum of \$56,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-six, and annually thereafter, the sum of \$50,000.

That not more than twenty per centum of the money appropriated under this act for the payment of salaries of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects, for any year, shall be expended for the salaries of teachers of home economics subjects.

Sec. 4. That for the purpose of cooperating with the States in preparing teachers, supervisors, and directors of agricultural subjects and teachers of trade and industrial and home economics subjects there is hereby appropriated for the use of the States for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and eighteen, the sum of \$500,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and nineteen, the sum of \$700,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty, the sum of \$900,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-one, and annually thereafter, the sum of \$1,000,000. Said sums shall be allotted to the States in the proportion which their population bears to the total population of the United States, not including outlying possessions, according to the last preceding United States census: *Provided*, That the allotment of funds to any State shall be not less than a minimum of \$5,000 for any fiscal year prior to and including the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and nineteen, nor less than \$10,000

for any fiscal year thereafter. And there is hereby appropriated the following sums, or so much thereof as may be needed, which shall be used for the purpose of providing the minimum allotment provided for in this section: For the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and eighteen, the sum of \$46,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and nineteen, the sum of \$32,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty, the sum of \$24,000; for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty-one and annually thereafter, the sum of \$90,000.

Sec. 5. That in order to secure the benefits of the appropriations provided for in sections two, three, and four of this act, any State shall, through the legislative authority thereof, accept the provisions of this act and designate or create a State board, consisting of not less than three members, and having all necessary power to cooperate, as herein provided, with the Federal Board for Vocational Education in the administration of the provisions of this act. The State board of education, or other board having charge of the administration of public education in the State, or any State board having charge of the administration of any kind of vocational education in the State may, if the State so elect, be designated as the State board, for the purposes of this act.

In any State the legislature of which does not meet in nineteen hundred and seventeen, if the governor of that State, so far as he is authorized to do so, shall accept the provisions of this act and designate or create a State board of not less than three members to act in cooperation with the Federal Board for Vocational Education, the Federal board shall recognize such local board for the purposes of this act until the legislature of such State meets in due course and has been in session sixty days.

Any State may accept the benefits of any one or more of the respective funds herein appropriated, and it may defer the acceptance of the benefits of any one or more of such funds, and shall be required to meet only the conditions relative to the fund or funds the benefits of which it has accepted: Provided, That after June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty, no State shall receive any appropriation for salaries of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects, until it shall have taken advantage of at least the minimum amount appropriated for the training of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects, as provided for in this act, and that after said date no State shall receive any appropriation for the salaries of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects until it shall have

taken advantage of at least the minimum amount appropriated for the training of teachers of trade, home-economics, and industrial subjects, as provided for in this act.

Sec. 6. That a Federal Board for Vocational Education is hereby created, to consist of the Secretary of Agriculture, the Secretary of Commerce, the Secretary of Labor, the United States Commissioner of Education, and three citizens of the United States to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. One of said three citizens shall be a representative of the manufacturing and commercial interests, one a representative of the agricultural interests, and one a representative of labor. The Board shall elect annually one of its members as chairman. In the first instance, one of the citizen members shall be appointed for one year, one for two years, and one for three years, and thereafter for three years each. The members of the board other than the members of the Cabinet, and the United States Commissioner of Education shall receive a salary of \$5,000 per annum.

The Board shall have power to cooperate with State boards in carrying out the provisions of this act. It shall be the duty of the Federal Board for Vocational Education to make, or cause to have made studies, investigations; and reports, with particular reference to their use in aiding the States in the establishment of vocational schools and classes and in giving instruction in agriculture, trades and industries, commerce and commercial pursuits, and home economics. Such studies, investigations, and reports shall include agriculture and agricultural processes and requirements upon agricultural workers; trades, industries, and apprenticeships, trade and industrial requirements upon industrial workers, and classification of industrial processes and pursuits; commerce and commercial pursuits and requirements upon commercial workers; home management, domestic science, and the study of related facts and principles; and problems of administration of vocational schools and courses of study and instruction in vocational subjects.

When the Board deems it advisable such studies, investigations, and reports concerning agriculture, for the purposes of agricultural education, may be made in cooperation with or through the Department of Agriculture; such studies, investigations, and reports concerning trade and industries, for the purposes of trade and industrial education, may be made in cooperation with or through the Department of Labor; such studies, investigations, and reports concerning commerce and commercial pursuits, for the purposes of commercial education, may

be made in cooperation with or through the Department of Commerce; such studies, investigations, and reports concerning the administration of vocational schools, courses of study and instruction in vocational subjects, may be made in cooperation with or through the Bureau of Education.

The Commissioner of Education may make such recommendations to the Board relative to the administration of this act as he may from time to time deem advisable. It shall be the duty of the chairman of the Board to carry out the rules, regulations, and decisions which the Board may adopt. The Federal Board for Vocational Education shall have power to employ such assistants as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this act.

Sec. 7. That there is hereby appropriated to the Federal Board for Vocational Education the sum of \$200,000 annually, to be available from and after the passage of this act, for the purpose of making or cooperating in making the studies, investigations, and reports provided for in section six of this act, and for the purpose of paying the salaries of the officers, the assistants, and such office and other expenses as the Board may deem necessary to the execution and administration of this act.

Sec. 8. That in order to secure the benefits of the appropriation for any purpose specified in this Act, the State board shall prepare plans, showing the kinds of vocational education for which it is proposed that the appropriation shall be used; the kinds of schools and equipment; courses of study; methods of instruction; qualifications of teachers; and, in the case of agricultural subjects, the qualifications of supervisors or directors; plans for the training of teachers; and, in the case of agricultural subjects, plans for the supervision of agricultural education, as provided for in section ten. Such plans shall be submitted by the State board to the Federal Board for Vocational Education, and if the Federal Board finds the same to be in conformity with the provisions and purposes of this act, the same shall be approved. The State board shall make an annual report to the Federal Board for Vocational Education, on or before September first of each year, on the work done in the State and the receipts and expenditures of money under the provisions of this act.

Sec. 9. That the appropriation for the salaries of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects and of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects shall be devoted exclusively to the payment of salaries of such teachers, supervisors, or directors having the minimum qualifications set up for the State by the State

board, with the approval of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. The cost of instruction supplementary to the instruction in agricultural and in trade, home economics, and industrial subjects provided for in this act, necessary to build a well-rounded course of training, shall be borne by the State and local communities, and no part of the cost thereof shall be borne out of the appropriations herein made. The moneys expended under the provisions of this act, in cooperation with the States, for the salaries of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects, or for the salaries of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects, shall be conditioned that for each dollar of Federal money expended for such salaries the State or local community, or both, shall expend an equal amount for such salaries; and that appropriations for the training of teachers of vocational subjects, as herein provided, shall be conditioned that such money be expended for maintenance of such training and that for each dollar of Federal money so expended for maintenance, the State or local community, or both, shall expend an equal amount for the maintenance of such training.

Sec. 10. That any State may use the appropriation for agricultural purposes, or any part thereof allotted to it, under the provisions of this act, for the salaries of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects, either for the salaries of teachers of such subjects in schools or classes or for the salaries of supervisors or directors of such subjects under a plan of supervision for the State to be set up by the State board, with the approval of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. That in order to receive the benefits of such appropriation for the salaries of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects the State board of any State shall provide in its plan for agricultural education that such education shall be that which is under public supervision or control; that the controlling purpose of such education shall be to fit for useful employment; that such education shall be of less than college grade and be designed to meet the needs of persons over fourteen years of age who have entered upon or who are preparing to enter upon the work of the farm or of the farm home; that the State or local community, or both, shall provide the necessary plant and equipment determined upon by the State board, with the approval of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, as the minimum requirement for such education in schools and classes in the State; that the amount expended for the maintenance of such education in any school or class receiving the benefit of such appropriation shall be not less annually than the amount fixed by the State board, with the

approval of the Federal Board as the minimum for such schools or classes in the State; that such schools shall provide for directed or supervised practice in agriculture, either on a farm provided for by the school or other farm, for at least six months per year; that the teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects shall have at least the minimum qualifications determined for the State by the State board, with the approval of the Federal Board for Vocational Education.

Sec. 11. That in order to receive the benefits of the appropriation for the salaries of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects the State board of any State shall provide in its plan for trade, home economics, and industrial education that such education shall be given in schools or classes under public supervision or control; that the controlling purpose of such education shall be to fit for useful employment; that such education shall be of less than college grade and shall be designed to meet the needs of persons over fourteen years of age who are preparing for a trade or industrial pursuit or who have entered upon the work of a trade or industrial pursuit; that the State or local community, or both, shall provide the necessary plant and equipment determined upon by the State board, with the approval of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, as the minimum requirement in such State for education for any given trade or industrial pursuit; that the total amount expended for the maintenance of such education in any school or class receiving the benefit of such appropriation shall be not less annually than the amount fixed by the State board, with the approval of the Federal Board, as the minimum for such schools or classes in the State; that such schools or classes giving instruction to persons who have not entered upon employment shall require that at least half of the time of such instruction be given to practical work on a useful or productive basis, such instruction to extend over not less than nine months per year and not less than thirty hours per week; that at least one-third of the sum appropriated to any State for the salaries of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects shall, if expended, be applied to part-time schools or classes for workers over fourteen years of age who have entered upon employment, and such subjects in a part-time school or class may mean any subject given to enlarge the civic or vocational intelligence of such workers over fourteen and less than eighteen years of age; that such part-time schools or classes shall provide for not less than one hundred and forty-four hours of classroom instruction per year; that evening industrial schools shall fix the age of sixteen years as a minimum entrance requirement and shall confine instruction to that which is

supplemental to the daily employment; that the teachers of any trade or industrial subject in any State shall have at least the minimum qualifications for teachers of such subject determined upon for such State by the State board, with the approval of the Federal Board for Vocational Education: *Provided*, That for cities and towns of less than twenty-five thousand population, according to the last preceding United States census, the State board, with the approval of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, may modify the conditions as to the length of course and hours of instruction per week for schools and classes giving instruction to those who have not entered upon employment, in order to meet the particular needs of such cities and towns.

Sec. 12. That in order for any State to receive the benefits of the appropriation in this act for the training of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects, or of teachers of trade, industrial, or home economics subjects, the State board of such State shall provide in its plan for such training that the same shall be carried out under the supervision of the State board; that such training shall be given in schools or classes under public supervision or control; that such training shall be given only to persons who have had adequate vocational experience or contact in the line of work for which they are preparing themselves as teachers, supervisors, or directors, or who are acquiring such experience or contact as a part of their training; and that the State board, with the approval of the Federal Board, shall establish minimum requirements for such experience or contact for teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects and for teachers of trade, industrial, and home economics subjects; that not more than sixty per centum nor less than twenty per centum of the money appropriated under this act for the training of teachers of vocational subjects to any State for any year shall be expended for any one of the following purposes: For the preparation of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects, or the preparation of teachers of trade and industrial subjects, or the preparation of teachers of home economics subjects.

Sec. 13. That in order to secure the benefits of the appropriations for the salaries of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects, or for the salaries of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects, or for the training of teachers as herein provided, any State shall, through the legislative authority thereof, appoint as custodian for said appropriations its State treasurer, who shall receive and provide for the proper custody and disbursements of all money paid to the State from said appropriations.

Sec. 14. That the Federal Board for Vocational Education shall annually ascertain whether the several States are using, or are prepared to use, the money received by them in accordance with the provisions of this act. On or before the first day of January of each year the Federal Board for Vocational Education shall certify to the Secretary of the Treasury each State which has accepted the provisions of this act and complied therewith, certifying the amounts which each State is entitled to receive under the provisions of this act. Upon such certification the Secretary of the Treasury shall pay quarterly to the custodian for vocational education of each State the moneys to which it is entitled under the provisions of this act. The moneys so received by the custodian for vocational education for any State shall be paid out on the requisition of the State board as reimbursement for expenditures already incurred to such schools as are approved by said State board and are entitled to receive such moneys under the provisions of this act.

Sec. 15. That whenever any portion of the fund annually allotted to any State has not been expended for the purpose provided for in this act, a sum equal to such portion shall be deducted by the Federal Board from the next succeeding annual allotment from such fund to such State.

Sec. 16. That the Federal Board for Vocational Education may withhold the allotment of moneys to any State whenever it shall be determined that such moneys are not being expended for the purposes and under the conditions of this act.

If any allotment is withheld from any State, the State board of such State may appeal to the Congress of the United States, and if the Congress shall not direct such sum to be paid it shall be covered into the Treasury.

Sec. 17. That if any portion of the moneys received by the custodian for vocational education of any State under this act, for any given purpose named in this act, shall, by any action or contingency, be diminished or lost, it shall be replaced by such State, and until so replaced no subsequent appropriation for such education shall be paid to such State. No portion of any moneys appropriated under this act for the benefit of the States shall be applied, directly or indirectly, to the purchase, erection, preservation, or repair of any building or buildings or equipment, or for the purchase or rental of lands, or for the support of any religious or privately owned or conducted school or college.

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Sec. 18. That the Federal Board for Vocational Education shall make an annual report to Congress, on or before December first, on the administration of this act and shall include in such report the reports made by the State boards on the administration of this act by each State and the expenditure of the money allotted to each State.

Approved, February 23, 1917 (39 Stat. L. 929).

APPENDIX V

The George-Ellzey Act

AN ACT To provide for the further development of vocational education in the several States and Territories

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That for the purpose of providing for the further development of vocational education in the several States and Territories there is hereby authorized to be appropriated for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1935, the sum of \$3,000,000; for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1936, the sum of \$3,000,000; and for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1937, the sum of \$3,000,000. One-third of this sum each year shall be allotted to the States and Territories in the proportion that their farm population bears to the total farm population of the United States, exclusive of the insular possessions, according to the United States census last preceding the end of the fiscal year in which any such allotment is to be made, and shall be used for the salaries of teachers, supervisors, and directors of agricultural subjects in such States and Territories. One-third of the sum appropriated for each fiscal year shall be allotted to the States and Territories in the proportion that their rural population bears to the total rural population of the United States, exclusive of the insular possessions, according to the United States census last preceding the end of the fiscal year in which any such allotment is to be made, and shall be used for the salaries of teachers, supervisors, and directors of home-economics subjects in such States and Territories. One-third of the sum appropriated for each fiscal year shall be allotted to the States and Territories in the proportion that their nonfarm population bears to the total nonfarm population of the United States, exclusive of the insular possessions, according to the United States census last preceding the end of the fiscal year in which any such allotment is to be made and shall be used for the salaries of teachers, supervisors, and directors of trade and industrial-education subjects in such States and Territories: *Provided,* That the allotment of funds to any State or Territory for each of the three purposes enumerated in this section shall be not less than a minimum of \$5,000 for any fiscal year, and there is hereby authorized to be appropriated for each of the fiscal years ending June 30, 1935; June 30, 1936; and June 30, 1937, the sum of \$84,603, or so

much thereof as may be needed, which shall be used for the purpose of providing the minimum allotments to the States and Territories provided for in this section.

Sec. 2. For the purpose of carrying out the provisions of this act there is hereby authorized to be appropriated to the Department of the Interior, Office of Education, for vocational education, for each of the fiscal years ending June 30, 1935, June 30, 1936, and June 30, 1937, the sum of \$100,000, to be expended for the same purposes and in the same manner as provided in section 7 of the act approved February 23, 1917, as amended October 6, 1917.

Sec. 3. The Secretary of the Treasury, upon the certification of the United States Commissioner of Education, shall pay, in equal semi-annual payments, on the 1st day of July and January of each year, to the custodian of each State as designated in the act approved February 23, 1917, the moneys to which it is entitled under the provisions of this act.

Sec. 4. The appropriations made by this act shall be in addition to, and shall be subject to the same conditions and limitations as, the appropriations made by the act entitled "An act to provide for the promotion of vocational education; to provide cooperation with the States in the promotion of such education in agriculture and in the trades and industries; to provide cooperation with the States in the preparation of teachers of vocational subjects; and to appropriate money and regulate its expenditures", approved February 23, 1917, except that the appropriations made by this act for home economics shall be subject to the conditions and limitations applicable to the appropriation for agricultural purposes under such act of February 23, 1917, with the exception of that part of section 10 thereof which requires directed or supervised practice for at least six months per year; that such moneys as are provided by this act for trade and industrial subjects may be expended for part-time classes operated for less than one hundred and forty-four hours per year; and that the appropriations available under section 2 of this act shall be available for expenses of attendance at meetings of educational associations and other organizations, which, in the opinion of the Commissioner, are necessary for the efficient discharge of the provisions of this act.

Approved, May 21, 1934.

APPENDIX VI

The Vocational Rehabilitation Act

AN ACT To provide for the promotion of vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise and their return to civil employment.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That in order to provide for the promotion of vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or in any legitimate occupation and their return to civil employment there is hereby appropriated for the use of the States, subject to the provisions of this act, for the purpose of cooperating with them in the maintenance of vocational rehabilitation of such disabled persons and in returning vocationally rehabilitated persons to civil employment for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1921, the sum of \$750,000; for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1922, and thereafter for a period of two years, the sum of \$1,000,000 annually. Said sums shall be allotted to the States in the proportion which their population bears to the total population in the United States, not including Territories, outlying possessions, and the District of Columbia, according to the last preceding United States census: *Provided,* That the allotment of funds to any State shall not be less than a minimum of \$5,000 for any fiscal year. And there is hereby appropriated the following sums, or so much thereof as may be needed, which shall be used for the purpose of providing the minimum allotment to the States provided for in this section, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1921, the sum of \$46,000; for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1922, and annually thereafter, the sum of \$34,000.

All moneys expended under the provisions of this act from appropriations provided by section 1 shall be upon the condition (1) that for each dollar of Federal money expended there shall be expended in the State under the supervision and control of the State board at least an equal amount for the same purpose: *Provided,* That no portion of the appropriation made by this act shall be used by any institution for handicapped persons except for the special training of such individuals entitled to the benefits of this act as shall be determined by the Federal Board; (2) that the State board shall annually submit to the Federal Board for approval plans showing (a) the kinds of vocational rehabilitation and schemes of placement for which it is proposed the appropria-

tion shall be used; (b) the plan of administration and supervision; (c) courses of study; (d) methods of instruction; (e) qualification of teachers, supervisors, directors, and other necessary administrative officers or employees; (f) plans for the training of teachers, supervisors, and directors; (3) that the State board shall make an annual report to the Federal Board on or before September 1 of each year on the work done in the State and on the receipts and expenditures of money under the provisions of this act; (4) that no portion of any moneys appropriated by this act for the benefit of the States shall be applied, directly or indirectly, to the purchase, preservation, erection, or repair of any building or buildings or equipment, or for the purchase or rental of any lands; (5) that all courses for vocational rehabilitation given under the supervision and control of the State board and all courses for vocational rehabilitation maintained shall be available, under such rules and regulations as the Federal Board shall prescribe, to any civil employee of the United States disabled while in the performance of his duty.

Sec. 2. That for the purpose of this act the term "persons disabled" shall be construed to mean any person who, by reason of a physical defect or infirmity, whether congenital or acquired by accident, injury, or disease, is, or may be expected to be, totally or partially incapacitated for remunerative occupation; the term "rehabilitation" shall be construed to mean the rendering of a person disabled fit to engage in a remunerative occupation.

Sec. 3 That in order to secure the benefits of the appropriations provided by section 1 any State shall, through the legislative authority thereof, (1) accept the provisions of this act; (2) empower and direct the board designated or created as the State board for vocational education to cooperate in the administration of the provisions of the Vocational Education Act, approved February 23, 1917, to cooperate as herein provided with the Federal Board for Vocational Education in the administration of the provisions of this act; (3) in those States where a State workmen's compensation board, or other State board, department, or agency exists, charged with the administration of the State workmen's compensation or liability laws, the legislature shall provide that a plan of cooperation be formulated between such State board, department, or agency, and the State board charged with the administration of this act, such plan to be effective when approved by the governor of the State; (4) provide for the supervision and support of the courses of vocational rehabilitation to be provided by the State board in carrying out the provisions of this act; (5) appoint as custodian for said appropriations its State treasurer, who shall receive and pro-

vide for the proper custody and disbursement of all money paid to the State from said appropriations. In any State the legislature of which does not meet in regular session between the date of the passage of this act and December 31, 1920, if the governor of that State shall accept the provisions of this act, such State shall be entitled to the benefits of this act until the legislature of such State meets in due course and has been in session sixty days.

Sec. 4. That the Federal Board for Vocational Education shall have power to cooperate with State boards in carrying out the purposes and provisions of this act, and is hereby authorized to make and establish such rules and regulations as may be necessary or appropriate to carry into effect the provisions of this act; to provide for the vocational rehabilitation of disabled persons and their return to civil employment and to cooperate, for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of this act, with such public and private agencies as it may deem advisable. It shall be the duty of said Board (1) to examine plans submitted by the State boards and approve the same if believed to be feasible and found to be in conformity with the provisions and purposes of this act; (2) to ascertain annually whether the several States are using or are prepared to use the money received by them in accordance with the provisions of this act; (3) to certify on or before the 1st day of January of each year to the Secretary of the Treasury each State which has accepted the provisions of this act and complied therewith, together with the amount which each State is entitled to receive under the provisions of this act; (4) to deduct from the next succeeding allotment to any State whenever any portion of the fund annually allotted has not been expended for the purpose provided for in this act a sum equal to such unexpended portion; (5) to withhold the allotment of moneys to any State whenever it shall be determined that moneys allotted are not being expended for the purposes and conditions of this act; (6) to require the replacement by withholding subsequent allotments of any portion of the moneys received by the custodian of any State under this act that by any action or contingency is diminished or lost: *Provided*, That if any allotment is withheld from any State, the State board of such State may appeal to the Congress of the United States, and if the Congress shall not, within one year from the time of said appeal, direct such sum to be paid, it shall be covered into the Treasury.

Sec. 5. That the Secretary of the Treasury, upon the certification of the Federal Board as provided in this act, shall pay quarterly to the custodian of each State appointed as herein provided the moneys to which it is entitled under the provisions of this act. The money so received by the custodian for any State shall be paid out on the requisi-

tion of the State board as reimbursement for services already rendered or expenditures already incurred and approved by said State board. The Federal Board for Vocational Education shall make an annual report to the Congress on or before December 1 on the administration of this act and shall include in such report the reports made by the State boards on the administration of this act by each State and the expenditure of the money allotted to each State.

Sec. 6. That there is hereby appropriated to the Federal Board for Vocational Education the sum of \$75,000 annually for a period of four years for the purpose of making studies, investigations, and reports regarding the vocational rehabilitation of disabled persons and their placements in suitable or gainful occupations, and for the administrative expenses of said Board incident to performing the duties imposed by this act, including salaries of such assistants, experts, clerks, and other employees in the District of Columbia or elsewhere as the Board may deem necessary, actual traveling and other necessary expenses incurred by the members of the Board and by its employees, under its orders, including attendance at meetings of educational associations and other organizations, rent and equipment of offices in the District of Columbia and elsewhere, purchase of books of reference, law books, and periodicals, stationery, typewriters and exchange thereof, miscellaneous supplies, postage on foreign mail, printing and binding to be done at the Government Printing Office, and all other necessary expenses.

A full report of all expenses under this section, including names of all employees and salaries paid them, traveling expenses, and other expenses incurred by each and every employee and by members of the Board, shall be submitted annually to Congress by the Board.

No salaries shall be paid out of the fund provided in this section in excess of the following amounts: At the rate of \$5,000 per annum, to not more than one person; at the rate of \$4,000 per annum each, to not more than four persons; at the rate of \$3,500 per annum each, to not more than five persons; and no other employee shall receive compensation at a rate in excess of \$2,500 per annum: *Provided*, That no person receiving compensation at less than \$3,500 per annum shall receive in excess of the amount of compensation paid in the regular departments of the Government for like or similar services.

Sec. 7. That the Federal Board for Vocational Education is hereby authorized and empowered to receive such gifts and donations from either public or private sources as may be offered unconditionally. All

moneys received as gifts or donations shall be paid into the Treasury of the United States, and shall constitute a permanent fund, to be called the "Special fund for vocational rehabilitation of disabled persons", to be used under the direction of the said Board to defray the expenses of providing and maintaining courses of vocational rehabilitation in special cases, including the payment of necessary expenses of persons undergoing training. A full report of all gifts and donations offered and accepted, together with the names of the donors and the respective amounts contributed by each, and all disbursements therefrom shall be submitted annually to Congress by said Board: *Provided*, That no discrimination shall be made or permitted for or against any person or persons who are entitled to the benefits of this act because of membership or nonmembership in any industrial, fraternal, or private organization of any kind under a penalty of \$200 for every violation thereof.

Approved, June 2, 1920 (41 Stat.L. 735).

APPENDIX VII

The Vocational Rehabilitation Act Amended

In 1924 Congress amended the Vocational Rehabilitation Act as follows: (1) Federal appropriations of \$1,000,000 were authorized for the fiscal years ending June 30, 1925, June 30, 1926, and June 30, 1927, and thereafter for a period of 3 years; (2) for the purpose of providing the minimum allotment of \$5,000 for each State whose allotment would otherwise be less than that amount, the sum of \$34,000 was authorized to be appropriated for the fiscal years ending June 30, 1925, 1926, and 1927.¹ The original act made the appropriations; the amendment in 1924 merely authorized the appropriations.

In 1930 Congress again amended the Vocational Rehabilitation Act, as follows:

(1) Section 1 was amended to read as follows:

That in order to provide for the promotion of vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise and their placement in employment, there is hereby authorized to be appropriated for the use of the States, subject to the provisions of this act, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1931, the sum of \$1,000,000; for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1932, the sum of \$1,000,000; and for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1933, the sum of \$1,000,000. Said sums shall be allotted to the States in the proportion which their populations bear to the total population in the United States, not including Territories, outlying possessions, and the District of Columbia, according to the last preceding United States census: *Provided*, That the allotment of funds to any State shall not be less than a minimum of \$10,000 for any fiscal year: *Provided further*, That such portions of the sums allotted that will not be used in any fiscal year may be allotted in that year proportionally to the States which are prepared through available State funds to use the additional Federal funds. And there is hereby authorized to be appropriated for each of the fiscal years ending June 30, 1931, June 30, 1932, and June 30, 1933, the sum of \$97,000 or so much thereof as may be needed, which shall be used for the purpose of providing the minimum allotments to the States provided for in this section.

All money expended under the provisions of this act from appropriations authorized by section 1 shall be upon the condition (1) that for each dollar of Federal money expended there shall be expended in the State under the supervision and control of the State board at least an equal amount for the same purpose: *Provided*, That no portion of the appropriations authorized by this act shall be used by any institution for handicapped persons except for vocational rehabilitation of such individuals entitled to the benefits of this act as shall be determined by the Federal Board; (2) that the State board shall annually submit to the Federal Board for approval plans showing (a) the plan of administration and supervision of the work; (b) the qualifications of directors, super-

¹U.S.Stat.L., vol. 43, p. 430.

visors, and other employees; and (c) the policies and methods of carrying on the work; (3) that the State board shall make an annual report to the Federal Board on or before September 1 of each year on the work done in the State and on the receipts and expenditures of money under the provisions of this act; (4) that no portion of any money authorized to be appropriated by this act for the benefit of the States shall be applied, directly or indirectly, to the purchase, preservation, erection, or repair of any building or buildings or equipment, or for the purchase or rental of any lands; (5) that all vocational rehabilitation service given under the supervision and control of the State board shall be available, under such rules and regulations as the Federal Board shall prescribe, to any civil employee of the United States disabled while in the performance of his duty.³

(2) Section 3: In the phrase "(4) provide for the supervision and support of the courses of vocational rehabilitation to be provided by the State board in carrying out the provisions of this act" the word "program" was substituted for "courses."

(3) Section 4: The phrase "return to civil employment" was changed to "placement in employment", and in part four the word "unexpended" was omitted.

(4) Section 6: The sum of \$75,000 was changed to \$80,000.

In 1932 the Vocational Rehabilitation Act was again reenacted and the same appropriations were authorized for the fiscal years 1934, 1935, 1936, and 1937.⁴ No essential changes were made in the provisions of the act.

³ U.S. Stat. L., vol. 46, p. 524.

⁴ U.S. Stat. L. vol. 47, p. 448.

APPENDIX VIII

Federal Appropriations for Agricultural and Home-Economics Extension Work ¹

Year ending June 30	Smith- Lever Act	Farmers' cooperative demonstra- tion work	Supple- mentary Smith- Lever ²	Clarke- McNary Act	Capper- Ketcham Act	Other appropria- tions	For Alaska
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1915	\$480,000	\$1,073,240					
1916	1,080,000	1,052,100					
1917	1,580,000	1,139,540					
1918	2,080,000	1,237,800	\$4,348,400				
1919	2,580,000	1,204,940	6,100,000				
1920	3,080,000	1,396,320	1,500,000				
1921	3,580,000	1,350,520	1,500,000				
1922	4,080,000	1,350,520	1,500,000				
1923	4,580,000	1,300,000	1,300,000				
1924	4,580,000	1,284,350	1,300,000				
1925	4,580,000	1,307,940	1,300,000				
1926	4,580,000	1,308,540	1,300,000	\$50,000			
1927	4,580,000	1,308,540	1,300,000	50,000			
1928	4,580,000	1,424,000	1,300,000	60,000			
1929	³ 4,602,936	1,462,640	1,580,000	60,000	\$980,000	⁴ \$400,000	
1930	⁵ 4,602,936	1,495,000	1,580,000	60,000	1,480,000		
1931	⁵ 4,602,936	1,536,000	1,580,000	70,000	1,480,000	⁶ 1,000,000	⁷ \$10,000
1932	⁵ 4,606,096	1,574,430	1,580,000	74,000	1,480,000	⁶ 1,000,000	⁷ 10,000
1933	⁵ 4,656,096	1,483,320	1,580,000	69,850	1,480,000	⁶ 1,000,000	⁷ 12,000
1934	⁵ 4,666,096	1,420,189	1,580,000	64,787	1,480,000	⁶ 1,000,000	⁷ 12,000
1935	⁵ 4,676,096	684,648	1,580,000	51,354	1,480,000	⁶ 1,000,000	⁷ 12,000

¹ Compiled from the statutes.

² The appropriations for 1918 and 1919 were war-emergency appropriations.

³ Including the amount appropriated to the Territory of Hawaii.

⁴ To continue the employment of county extension agents in the area devastated by floods in 1927 where county funds were so impaired that the continued support of normal constructive activities of the counties was impossible.

⁵ Including the amounts appropriated to Hawaii and Puerto Rico.

⁶ *Supra*, p. 137.

APPENDIX IX

Federal Appropriations for Vocational Education

Year ending June 30	For the purposes of the Smith-Hughes Act		For the purposes of the George-Heed Act		To Hawaii	To Puerto Rico
	To the States	To the Fed- eral Board for Voca- tional Educa- tion	To the States and Terr- itories	To the Fed- eral Board for Voca- tional Educa- tion		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1918.....	\$1,660,000	\$200,000				
1919.....	2,312,000	200,000				
1920.....	2,982,000	200,000				
1921.....	3,636,000	200,000				
1922.....	4,129,000	200,000				
1923.....	4,623,000	200,000				
1924.....	5,118,000	200,000				
1925.....	6,180,000	200,000			\$30,000	
1926.....	7,167,000	200,000			30,000	
1927.....	7,167,000	200,000			30,000	
1928.....	7,167,000	200,000			30,000	
1929.....	7,167,000	¹ 213,600			30,000	
1930.....	7,167,000	¹ 213,400	\$300,000	\$95,000	30,000	
1931.....	7,167,000	¹ 213,400	962,806	95,000	30,000	
1932.....	7,167,000	¹ 205,000	1,483,000	94,380	30,000	\$45,000
1933.....	6,450,300	200,000	1,300,000	85,000	30,000	75,000
1934.....	5,940,000	175,000	1,273,000	68,000	25,700	84,000
1935.....	7,167,000	² 184,198	³ 3,084,603	² 60,000	30,000	105,000

¹ Includes appropriations required by the operation of the Welch Act approved May 28, 1928.

² Includes \$4,198 as provided in sec. 21 (c) of the act of Mar. 28, 1934.

³ For the purposes of the George-Elsey Act.

APPENDIX X

Federal Appropriations for Vocational Rehabilitation¹

Year ending June 30	To the States	To the Federal Board for Vocational Educa- tion	To the Dis- trict of Co- lumbia
1	2	3	4
1921.....	\$796,000	\$75,000	
1922.....	1,034,000	75,000	
1923.....	1,034,000	75,000	
1924.....	1,034,000	75,000	
1925.....	1,034,000	75,000	
1926.....	750,000	75,000	
1927.....	740,080	73,620	
1928.....	700,000	68,230	
1929.....	750,000	77,300	
1930.....	737,000	79,120	\$15,000
1931.....	900,000	80,000	15,000
1932.....	1,097,000	77,860	14,740
1933.....	1,097,000	65,000	12,000
1934.....	969,000	55,000	11,000
1935.....	1,097,000	\$59,426	15,000

¹ The appropriations for the first 4 years were made by the Vocational Rehabilitation Act. The later rehabilitation acts merely authorized the appropriations and the appropriations were therefore carried in the acts making annual appropriations to the Federal Board for Vocational Education.

² Includes \$1,426 as provided in sec. 21 (e) of the act of Mar. 28, 1934.

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