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UNIVERSITY TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE

A REPORT OF THE MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION OF URBAN UNIVERSITIES, NOVEMBER 15–17, 1915

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UNIVERSITY TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE.

INTRODUCTION.

The Association of Urban Universities, organized in Washington, D. C., November 9–10, 1914, held its second conference in Cincinnati, November 15–17, 1915. At the first meeting the discussions embraced broad questions, such as: The need for universities maintained as parts of the systems of public education in cities; the functions of such institutions, and the forms of service to the cities which they and the privately endowed universities of urban location should undertake. The proceedings were printed in Bulletin, 1915, No. 38, of the Bureau of Education. The second conference was given over primarily to a consideration of training for public service.

The program had three subdivisions: The need for cooperation between the university and the city governments in providing training for public service, methods of training, and the results of cooperative training. As an introduction to the *abridged forms* of some of the papers read at the conference and printed in this bulletin, it may be well to indicate, in a related and organized way, the most important conclusions which were brought out in various parts of different addresses and discussions.

I. While the general function of all institutions of higher learning is to give a rounded training for the cultivation of broad information and lofty character, those situated in cities should especially emphasize the duties of citizenship and the need for responsible and efficient government. Furthermore, they should offer special work to train for the duties peculiar to urban activities in the arts, sciences, and industries.

II. Courses of training for public service should be organized for two purposes, at least:

(*a*) To develop leading citizens who will understand the machinery of governmental busines and support movements for city betterment.

(*b*) To train experts to enter city service.

III. Though the effective demand by city officials for such trained experts is now much below the obvious need, and though the degree of encouragement from most civil-service commissions and appoint-

ing officers now leaves much to be desired, conditions are improving; and, furthermore, the training has educational value, if it does not lead immediately to an official position.

IV. The training should be concrete and replete with field work in bureaus and departments of the city. Methods similar to those used in cooperative engineering, pedagogical, medical, and other professional courses should be employed.

V. Various ways of organizing, conducting, and crediting this field work have been devised and are now in operation, but the whole technique is in need of standardization.

VI. It was resolved that the work of the year for the association would be to make a thorough study of field work. A committee was appointed to do this, and its report will be the basis of much of the discussion at the next meeting. Committee: Chairman, President Parke R. Kolbe, of the Municipal University of Akron; President William T. Foster, of Reed College; Prof. Augustus R. Hatton, of Western Reserve University; President Charles William Dabney, of the University of Cincinnati; President Godfrey, of Drexel Institute; Dean Otis W. Caldwell, of the University of Chicago; Dean Everett W. Lord, of Boston University; Prof. James Q. Dealey, of Brown University; Prof. Philip A. Parsons, of Syracuse University.

Officers were elected as follows:

President.—Sidney Edward Mezes, LL. D., president of the College of the City of New York, for a term of one year.

Vice president.—Augustus R. Hatton, Ph. D., professor of political science, Western Reserve University, for a term of two years.

Secretary-treasurer.—Frederick B. Robinson, Ph. D., director of the evening session and municipal courses, College of the City of New York, for a term of three years.

The growing interest in the work of the Association of Urban Universities is indicated by the increase in membership and by the notable gathering of educators at the conference. Membership is by institution. The first 16 following are charter members, and the rest joined at the second conference: Boston University; The College of the City of New York; Hunter College of the City of New York; Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.; Municipal University of Akron, Akron, Ohio; New York University; Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.; Reed College, Portland, Oreg.; Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.; Toledo University; University of Buffalo; University of Cincinnati; University of Louisville; University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.; University of Pittsburgh; Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.; Brown University, Providence, R. I.; Case School of Applied Sciences, Cleveland, Ohio; Clark University, Worcester, Mass.; Drexel Institute, Philadelphia, Pa.; University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.; University

of Toronto, Canada; University of Vermont, Burlington, Vt.; University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.; University College of the University of Chicago; University of Denver; University of Rochester; Syracuse University; Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.; Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio; Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio; Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.; University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

The following educators were present at the conference:

Morton A. Aldrich, dean of the College of Commerce, Tulane University; representing also the New Orleans Association of Commerce, New Orleans, La.
William H. Allen, Plandome, New York.
W. M. Anderson, professor of physics, University of Louisville, Louisville, Ky.
Charles A. Andrews, Manufacturers' Equipment Co., Waban, Mass.
S. W. Atkin, National Cash Register Co., Dayton, Ohio.
Frederick E. Ayer, dean of the College of Engineering, Municipal University of Akron, Akron, Ohio.
Brown Ayres, president of the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.
Will P. Blair, secretary of National Paving Brick Manufacturers' Association, Cleveland, Ohio.
Leonard Blakey, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Edgar E. Brandon, dean of the College of Liberal Arts, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.
E. S. Brandt, promotion secretary, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
E. J. Brown, superintendent of Dayton public schools, Dayton, Ohio.
Edward L. Burchard, secretary of the Civic Extension Commission, Chicago, Ill.
Allen T. Burns, director of the Cleveland Foundation, Cleveland, Ohio.
Otis W. Caldwell, dean of University College, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
C. E. Chadsey, superintendent of public schools, Detroit, Mich.
A. E. Claggett, principal of Parker High School, Dayton, Ohio.
Walter E. Clark, professor of political science, the College of the City of New York.
Robert T. Crane, professor of political science, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.
Allan R. Cullimore, dean of the College of Industrial Science, Toledo University; also representing Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, Toledo, Ohio.
Charles William Dabney, president of the University of Cincinnati.
Dwight T. Davis, City Plan Commission, St. Louis, Mo.
J. Q. Dealey, professor of social and political science, Brown University, Providence, R. I.
W. E. Dorland, Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America, New York City.
Rev. Arthur Dumper, Dayton, Ohio.
G. W. Dyer, professor of economics, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.
John W. Fahey, president of Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America, Boston, Mass.
Robert A. Falconer, president of the University of Toronto, Canada.
A. N. Farmer, National Cash Register Co., Dayton, Ohio.
Charles E. Ferris, dean of the College of Engineering, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.

Edward A. Fitzpatrick, Society for the Promotion of Training for Public Service, Madison, Wis.
John S. Fletcher, associate professor of political science, University of Chattanooga, Chattanooga, Tenn.
George W. Forbes, professor of philosophy, University of Rochester, N. Y.
A. Y. Ford, president of the board of trustees, University of Louisville, Louisville, Ky.
William T. Foster, president of Reed College, Portland, Oreg.
Hollis Godfrey, president of Drexel Institute; also representing the city of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, Pa.
F. H. Hankins, department of economics and sociology, Clark University; also representing Clark College, Worcester, Mass.
J. M. Hanson, Charity Organization Society, Youngstown, Ohio.
Mrs. L. G. Hartman, registrar of the University of Cincinnati; representing also the National Association of Registrars.
Augustus R. Hatton, professor of political science, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.
C. R. Hebble, National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Cincinnati, Ohio.
C. N. Hitchcock, Akron Bureau of Municipal Research, Akron, Ohio.
George W. Hoke, professor of geography, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.
Charles S. Howe, president of the Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, Ohio.
Sydney D. M. Hudson, New York School of Philanthropy, New York City.
Lauder W. Jones, professor of chemistry, University of Cincinnati; representing also Williams College; Cincinnati, Ohio.
Clyde L. King, assistant professor of political science, University of Pennsylvania; also representing city of Philadelphia, Pa.
Thomas J. Knight, Louisville People's Forum and Louisville Commercial Club, Louisville, Ky.
Parke R. Kolbe, president of the Municipal University of Akron, Ohio.
Daniel Laurence, secretary of the University of Cincinnati; representing also the Association of Business Officers of Universities.
John H. Leets, dean of the School of Applied Science, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.
S. B. Linhart, secretary of the University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Milton E. Loomis, registrar of New York University, New York City.
Everett W. Lord, dean of the College of Business Administration, Boston University, Boston, Mass.
S. Gale Lowrie, professor of political science, University of Cincinnati.
Arch N. Mandel, Dayton Bureau of Municipal Research, Dayton, Ohio.
Leon C. Marshall, dean of the College of Commerce, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
Walter Matscheck, Wisconsin Efficiency Bureau, Madison, Wis.
Sidney E. Mezes, president of the College of the City of New York.
W. E. Morrow, Louisville Board of Trade, Louisville, Ky.
Henry Moskowitz, president of the New York Civil Service Commission, New York.
Edwin L. Miller, Detroit, Mich.
L. H. Murlin, president of Boston University, Boston, Mass.
Charles P. Norton, chancellor of the University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y.
O. E. Olin, professor of economics, Municipal University of Akron, Ohio.
Frances Parrott, Dayton, Ohio.

John L. Patterson, dean of the College of Liberal Arts, University of Louisville; also representing the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States; Louisville, Ky.

J. J. Pettijohn, director of extension division, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

L. C. M. Reed, Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America, Washington, D. C.

C. E. Rightor, director of the Dayton Bureau of Municipal Research, Dayton, Ohio.

Frederick B. Robinson, director of the evening session, College of the City of New York, New York City.

Frederick W. Roman, professor of economics, University of Syracuse; also representing the city of Syracuse, N. Y.

James Hardy Ropes, Hollis professor of divinity, Dexter lecturer on Biblical literature, and dean in charge of university extension, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

Herman Schneider, dean of the College of Engineering, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.

J. A. Shawan, superintendent of the Columbus public schools; representing also the National Council of Education; Columbus, Ohio.

A. I. Spanton, professor of English, Municipal University of Akron, Ohio.

Henry Russell Spencer, professor of political science, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

Arthur E. Swanson, assistant professor of economics and business organization, and director of evening classes, Northwestern Univerity, Evanston, Ill.

L. D. Upson, executive secretary, National Cash Register Co., Dayton, Ohio.

George R. Wallace, Pittsburgh, Pa.

G. A. Warfield, dean of the School of Commerce, University of Denver, Denver, Colo.

George F. Willett, Norwood Civic Association, Norwood, Mass.

C. H. Winder, superintendent of the city schools, Chattanooga, Tenn.

John W. Withers, principal Harris Teachers' College; also representing the St. Louis public schools, St. Louis, Mo.

Howard Woodhead, department of sociology, University of Pittsburgh; also representing the American Sociological Society, Pittsburgh, Pa.

S. M. Woodward, professor of mechanics and hydraulics, College of Applied Science, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

Victor S. Yarros, Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, Chicago, Ill.

L. S. Young, associate professor of political science, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

Besides these educators a large representation from the instructional staff of the University of Cincinnati attended the conference. The Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce and business organizations of the city sent delegates and did much to help in making various arrangements for meetings and entertainment.

The first president of the association, Dr. Charles William Dabney, president of the University of Cincinnati, welcomed the conference to Cincinnati and to the university and presided at most of the meetings. He and Prof. S. Gale Lowrie, as secretary of the committee of arrangements, had organized a most interesting program of visita-

tion which demonstrated the remarkable work of the University of Cincinnati in cooperation with the educational, business, and governmental agencies of the city. Probably more than in any other single place, the ideals for which the Association of Urban Universities stands are being realized in Cincinnati.

FREDERICK B. ROBINSON,
Secretary, The College of the City of New York.

I. THE GENERAL RELATION OF THE UNIVERSITY TO THE CITY.

WELCOME.

By Hon. Frederick S. Spiegel,
Mayor of Cincinnati.

Training for public service, long established in Germany, has been considered only for a few decades within the boundaries of the United States. Heretofore, in America, faith has been not so much in training for public service as in the old German proverb, "To him to whom the dear Lord gives an office he will also give the necessary sense to conduct it properly."

It is good to know that we have indeed come to a realization of the necessity of training properly for public service. This necessity is emphasized in our own case by the fact that our city, to which I take more than ordinary pleasure in welcoming you, is expending almost eight million dollars a year for the welfare of its citizens. Since this amount must be raised by taxation, its expenditure in various departments should be conducted wisely and judiciously. Under our plan of government the mayor is responsible for every act of his subordinates. When once you realize the amount of work that he is expected to do, you will understand what the duties of a mayor presiding over a corporation of this kind are; and you will also agree that two years is not enough time to train him to discharge properly the duties of his office. Thus, you will see how absolutely appropriate it is that in your discussions here in one of the metropolises of the State of Ohio you should give serious consideration to this matter of training for public service. In your endeavor to solve this question satisfactorily, I wish you all success in the world.

What I particularly desire is this, that you will impress upon the people the need of giving greater liberty to the cities of the different States, in order that they may become at least what they are in Europe, each a free state within a state; in order that the city may be able to conduct not merely its educational, but all of its enterprises without being circumscribed by laws, and by being compelled to go to the State legislature, as undoubtedly you have had

to do in New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, or in any other State of the Union. As the creature of the State, each city must ask permission to tax itself and to spend its own money in furtherance of the higher ideals of this century.

Furthermore, the time has passed for us to discuss simply the Constitution; the time has come in this great day of progress when we should consider the details of administration, realizing that the proper functioning of these details is more necessary to our welfare than an academic discussion of the Constitution.

RESPONSE.

By CHARLES P. NORTON,
Chancellor of the University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y.

We have come with peculiar eagerness to Cincinnati because here in Cincinnati is an organization at work demonstrating that one of the great problems of the day, the training of Americans for public service, is being solved, and solved well. I come from the city of Buffalo. Buffalo is like so many cities of the United States which have sprung into being as the creation and result of the joining of the great railroads and the industries, and the imperious demand of them both for labor. To Buffalo, as to Cincinnati, there have come the children of the nations of the earth who have heard in their distant lands the mighty call of the voice of a new era whose name is Freedom. They have come with freedom as a new concept to them, confusing it, too often, with wealth and easy living, bringing the inheritance that their forefathers passed on to them, with the notions of government prevalent in their own countries. And among this huge host there were but few, very few, trained to regard the real basic principles of democracy as living forces for the guidance of communities.

On the other hand, they have come to America, bringing to it a wealth of excellent traits. Thousands of Germans have come, bringing the idealism of their race; thousands of Irish, bringing their ready wit and humor and loyalty. The French have brought their charming manners, their grace, their æstheticism; the Jew and the nations of the East their spiritual perception which men of other races have wondered at, but to which they have never attained. On the basic characteristic of the first English settlers, the civic structure is founded in the English sense of fairness and of love of order and of law and of liberty. Italians are here, with their love of grace, art, and music. Yes, each nation has come to my city, has come to every city in this country, bringing to it its best for

the making of the character of a new type of man. It is for us educators to develop their traits and add to these qualities, thus making the new man one who is generous, patient, humble minded, strong, brave, wise, and merciful. And then, when we have trained this composite type of man, we shall christen him with a new and glorious name in history as the citizen who is the evolution of the ages; and the name we shall give him will be "American." This new man looks upon a new world, with new work laid ready to his hand.

In the latter part of the eighteenth century an epoch was entered marked by many distinctions, but most strikingly by what may be called the transformation of the world. The generations before that time, whether ancient or modern, had found the world in which they lived much the same, so far as concerns the common conditions of life; but for us of the present age it has been utterly transformed. Its distances mean nothing that they formerly did; its terrifying pestilences have been half subdued, by discovery of the germs from which they spring; its very storms, by being sentineled, have lost half their power to surprise us in our travels or our work. Netting the earth with steam and electric railways, seaming it with canals, wire-stringing it with telegraphic and telephonic lines; ferrying its oceans with swift, steam-driven ships; ploughing, planting, harvesting, spinning, weaving, knitting, sewing, writing, printing, doing everything, with cunning machines and with tireless forces borrowed from coal mines and from waterfalls, men are making a new world for themselves out of that in which they lived at the dawn of the era of mechanism and steam.

These, however, are but outward features of the change that is being wrought in the world. Socially, politically, morally, it has been undergoing, in this epoch, a deeper change. The growth of fellow-feeling that began in the last century has been an increasing growth. It has not ended war, nor the passions that cause war, but it is rousing an opposition which gathers strength every year, and it is forcing nations to settle their disputes by arbitration, more and more. It has made democratic institutions of government so common that the few arbitrary governments now remaining in civilized countries seem disgraceful to the people who endure them so long. It has broken many of the old yokes of conquest, and revived the independence of many long-subjugated States. It has swept away unnatural boundary lines which separated peoples of kindred language and race. It is pressing long-neglected questions of right and justice on the attention of all classes of men everywhere, and requiring that answers shall be found.

Even these are but minor effects of the prodigious change that the nineteenth century has brought into the experience of mankind.

Far beyond them all in importance are the new conceptions of the universe, the new suggestions and inspirations to all human thought that science has been giving in these later years. If we live in a world that is different from that which our ancestors knew, it is still more the fact that we think of a different universe, and feel differently in our relations to it.

We are the vedettes of a host which shall come to its work of serving and developing the mighty forces that the age in which we live has called into being. And one of the chiefest of them is this governmental experiment, the municipality which we are now considering. The population of the United States at the time of the formation of the Constitution was rural. It is now urban. At the time of the formation of the Constitution the little town meeting was the fundamental idea upon which the Constitution rested, and it was administered by men trained in the English common law and the English constitution, of which it was in fact the outgrowth. To-day the intellectual forces that create the American Constitution no longer are the inheritance of the majority of American citizens. Especially is this the case in the city, and in the cities one of the works of most importance is to either teach the citizens of cities the principles of democracy embodied in the American Constitution, or else to teach them principles evolved out of the great principles of human brotherhood which shall be better than the principles which the founders of the Constitution taught.

We are coming to try and find ways and means to develop the cosmopolitan man, the American, and to make him worthy of the new day that in our own time has dawned so splendidly upon humanity. And the true ultimate of this democracy, if we can develop this cosmopolitan man to grow up to it and adapt him to this new world, is that brotherhood of man which Christ founded so many years ago.

Cincinnati has been for generations an intellectual center, and, if you will allow me to be hackneyed, a veritable Athens of the West. It is fitting that this city should initiate and put into practical shape these principles of cooperation which are to work here. It is fitting that she should initiate and seek out a practical method to apply the higher education and developed knowledge to training her citizens for the service of democracy. In giving to the sons and daughters of men of small incomes the opportunity of strengthening themselves in their various livelihoods; in causing the cooperation between your university and their professions or business or conduct of life, Cincinnati is giving that equality of opportunity which shall cherish the new birth of freedom. In training educated and patriotic citizens for public service she is lessening the chances of defeat in this trial of the theory of the government of the people, by the people, for the people.

RESPONSE.

By ROBERT A. FALCONER,

President of the University of Toronto.

We have all heard for long of certain of the German urban universities which have had close connection with their cities; and some of us know very well the great provincial universities of England, such as Leeds, Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, and others in which similar results have been wrought out with great success; but I think that it is to the honor of the University of Cincinnati to have performed a unique function on this continent in being probably the most representative of these urban universities and an exemplar in more or less close similitude of the universities of the older countries.

How full of romance is the history of universities, and how splendidly the institution has adapted itself to the needs of the age. The university has been for the most part creative, rather than imitative. It has been the home of the pioneer thinker and the far-sighted investigator, from whom the generous youth has caught a new vision that caused alarm in the breast of the comfortable conservative, but which became the dogma of a succeeding age. The university has done much to give birth to the spirit of each new era. It has, indeed, served at times to enslave a people to false current conceptions, but most frequently it has stimulated them to noble patriotism and has been the home of quickening ideals which were cherished by its educated youth before their contemporaries were prepared to understand them and adopt them as the ruling conception of the Nation.

We must, therefore, expect that the university of the last quarter of the nineteenth and the first part of the twentieth century will have been modified very greatly from any earlier type. This period has been the age of science, of industrialism, and of cities. Ideas, methods, and discoveries, many of them by no means new or recent, suddenly burst into flower and fruit under the ripening atmosphere of the age. Physical science grew apace. Applications of scientific results to industry created new industries or revolutionized old ones. Inventions and discoveries flowered thick and fast. The means of communication also have been transformed, and new parts of the world have been explored. So ramified the land has been with railways, so furrowed the ocean with steamships, that the conception of distance has been modified and the mystery of the world has in part vanished.

Another result of these improved means of communication and of the industrial changes that have come is the shifting of population. Villages have become towns; towns have become cities; cities have begun to rank by the half million inhabitants' standard. The

urban population in most civilized countries has increased so rapidly that in some countries one-half in others three-fourths, are now to be found in cities and towns.

The town as we know it in America differs from the old town in Europe. It differs in affairs municipal, in affairs industrial, and in affairs educational. Social change has demanded modifications in all directions. Old methods and systems have disappeared, and new ones have taken their place.

In municipal affairs the change is obvious. What was once performed or neglected by guilds is now done by the city itself under its own officials, who do work for the city as a whole and not for any one class. The expert engineer is one of the officials of greatest influence in the counsels of the city.

In affairs industrial the change is marked by the disappearance of tradesmen, craftsmen, and guilds, who had their privileges, who trained for the trade, and who transmitted their privileges to others, and who thus kept alive powerful associations of producers. Not only has the accumulation of men in cities produced new industries, but it has led to social changes, through the necessity of caring for the comfort and health of peoples who have thus been gathered together. A sense of community life has been diffused through the State, the city being regarded as an organism, and part of the higher organism of the State. Everywhere there is an increasing demand for standards, which have to be observed; standards in education, standards in sanitary conditions, and standards in the means of livelihood. Minima are required: The minimum wage, the minimum in education, and the minimum as regards housing. This development in the character of the town has had its effect also on the industrial development.

As you think of the manufactures of the country, two classes stand out before your mind. There is the directing mind, and the executing arm; the engineer who plans, the artisan who works as he is told. There is the engineer who has planned the bridge, built the railway, excavated the foundations; the architect who has designed the building with its thousands of rooms; the chemist who has discovered the new methods and valuable by-products; the miner who lays out the mine. All these are the mind, the controlling thought of our industrial life. Through them and on their advice the energy and will of the capitalist set into motion the machinery of our modern world.

And how complex is the modern world! What skilled directors it demands! It is true that the men who constructed the pyramids, erected the aqueducts, chiseled the marble of the Parthenon and placed it in position combined science and art and engineering skill in a fashion that challenges our admiration. It is true that those

who designed and built the Gothic and Norman cathedrals were master workmen who need not fear the judgment of any age; but in variety of activity, in ingenuity, in the range of application of scientific principles to industry, the modern world stands by itself. This variety, this multiplicity, demands as never before a multitude of skilled directors of industry. Wealth would be idle without them, an inert mass, blind, and groping darkly.

Now, during the past generation our universities have served the life of the Nation well in supplying the country with these skilled leaders of industry. Every large university has its faculty of applied science, and in most this is the faculty that is growing fastest. Yet, we do not hear that of the graduates who are sent forth every spring, like a fleet from our harbor into the ocean of life, there are many derelicts. They get employment soon; with their good theory and their scientific training they pick up through practical experience the principles of their industry or trade, and soon step into positions of command.

Every year we have requests from some source for expansions or for new departments. We endeavor to supply the greatest needs of the country, but it is hard to keep up with the industrial demands of a growing nation.

But what about the noncommissioned officers and men of this industrial army? What of the foreman and the average artisan? Less has been done as yet for them than for their leaders. Let me not, however, allow you to fall into the error of thinking that by curtailing the education of the leaders you will further that of the men. Too much has not been done for the former. More must be done for the latter. Doubtless, the cry has often been heard in this city, as in others, urging that elementary education should be furthered and that too much is being spent on higher education. But the two must go together. A highly educated, well-trained leadership is bound to provide for a well-trained workman. Good engineers require good foremen and good artisans. So in this indirect way the university contributes through its standards in applied science to the creation of an industrial education for the workman.

The skilled engineer, the responsible head of an industrial concern, is well aware that his results can only be attained by means of skilled foremen and intelligent workmen. The higher the attainment and the more outreaching and ambitious the proposals of the directing head, the more earnest will he be to secure the best possible men to cooperate with him in carrying out his plans. The necessary complement to a well-equipped school of practical science or faculty of applied science in which the leaders of our industries are trained is a system of secondary industrial education for the training of

those who are to carry into execution their instructions or designs. Thus, the university indirectly contributes to the whole industrial life of the Nation by creating a need for industrial schools through its demand for efficiency in the workman to carry out the work assigned him by the engineer. In those States and Provinces where professional education is highest will good secondary education be called for soonest.

There is another important aspect of the work of the university in the city life. Thus far we have considered the function of the university in the actual preparation of the engineer by instruction in scientific principles, and indirectly and even directly in doing something for those in the employ of the engineer, the great multitude of workmen. But we must not overlook the character of a university. In a modern State or city its service is not to be confined to any one class; it is for the people, not for any one section of the people. It is not for the city man alone, but also for him who comes from the village or countryside. In politics city may be ranged against country, farmer against manufacturer; in a university never. We must endeavor to look at life steadily and, if possible, look at it whole.

A university stands for the advancement of science, knowledge, the humanities, those principles that are concerned with the constitution of man as a physical being in a physical environment, as a being with a mind, a memory, an imagination, and hope, as a member of a society in which alone he attains to what on this earth we call life. By the books a man reads, by the friendly chats with his neighbors, by his thought on the problems of the State, above all by his kindly deeds in his own home or circle, and his aspirations Godward, he finds life filled with a reasonable and satisfactory content. The function of a university can be fulfilled only in a social atmosphere in which the worth of a human life stands forth clear and luminous. There are hours of work and hours of freedom from labor; the day or most of it may be spent in what is often drudgery in order to get our living, or it may be absorbed in the interest of our work. But too much work stales the mind; the body needs rest or change of occupation; man should call into exercise other powers than those of intellect or affection. Man will forever go forth to his work and to his labor until the evening; but it concerns us in the university to ask in what spirit he fares forth to his work, to what home he returns, and with what measure of intelligence he occupies his evening hours. It is by this extra accomplishment that man refreshes his spirit and with the returning day returns renewed to the round of his toil. Nor is the fullness of life for the rich alone and for the highly trained professional man. It is the right and privilege of all. Our social advancement will be measured by the extent of oppor-

tunity for this self-development and its range among the classes of the people. Social advancement will manifest itself in industrial efficiency. From intelligent people will come a grade of industry immeasurably beyond the work of the dull driven slave.

So the university, open to all and to every class of the community, aiming only at the pursuit of truth in as wide a field as possible, must by its liberal studies and its broadly human view endeavor to set clearly before the people the varied phases of life in its truest aspects—man's history, his endeavors to understand himself, the laws of his mind, his principles of conduct, his social efforts, his scientific interpretation of the universe, and his marvelous control of nature through the accurate intuition of its character and his own powers. Whatever dignifies and ennobles man is a theme for our consideration. Therewith labor, one of man's worthiest expressions, in any and every form, will be invested with a new dignity, and the contempt under which it suffered through the dark centuries, yea, millenia, when manual toil fell to the lot of the underworld of slaves, will be replaced by the self-respect of the intelligent workman who will find his pride in sharing with his sympathetic director the credit of bringing to pass those results which with comprehension he sees shaping under his hand.

II. NEEDS FOR COOPERATION.

CAN BUSINESS METHODS BE APPLIED TO THE CONDUCT OF MUNICIPAL AFFAIRS?

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The achievement of a democracy like ours can be no higher than the standard of its citizenship as expressed not only in the conduct of its business affairs but also in the government of the city, the State, and the Nation. Indeed, the conduct of our Government itself should be on such a plane that it would serve as the best example and the highest source of inspiration to our business and commercial interests rather than merit their disdain. We have the power within us, because knowledge is power, but as we look about us we have good reason to pause and wonder whether we can so apply it that we may attain the necessary standard.

It is acknowledged the world over that our most successful American industrial concerns are attaining the very best business methods. We may well learn to apply them also to the conduct of the affairs of the Government.

There is no business in the world that is more efficiently managed—taking its size into consideration—than the United States Steel Corporation, the largest of our industrial groups. The ownership of this company lies within a large group of stockholders. They choose by ballot a board of directors, who, in turn, choose an executive committee for the closer counsel and guidance of their chairman, Judge Gary, who stands at the head of this general executive department which determines the plans and policies of the business. These plans and policies are carried out by the administrative department, which consists of as many operating units—with an expert in that particular line at the head of each—as are required to give every part of the business competent leadership and oversight; all brought together as a disciplined, homogeneous group under one administrative or operating head, President Farrell. He, with the heads of the accounting and financial divisions, makes contact with the executive head, Judge Gary, at a single centralized point.

The difference between these two men is typical of the personnel of the distinct branches which they represent. Judge Gary, trained as a lawyer, holds his place at the head of the organization because his unusual executive qualities fit him to represent ably the interests of the directors and the stockholders; President Farrell is a business expert strong in practical knowledge of the operating end of the steel business, in which he has grown up. Those who best know the methods of this organization believe that they are so sound and effective that, if the company were to become twice as large, it would be just as effectively administered as it is to-day. Its ownership is steadily going into the hands of its employees and into the hands of the general citizenship of the country at large; but, despite this ever-widening ownership, the business itself is wisely and successfully carried on.

It is a simple application of this functional idea of organization that we have followed in Norwood, Mass. Ten years ago the situation in Norwood was inexcusably bad. We had the highest tax rate in the State of Massachusetts, $25.60 per thousand. With the exception of a memorial library, given by a private citizen, we had no public buildings except our schoolhouses, which were wooden and of indifferent style and construction. Although abounding in splendid natural advantages, Norwood had no parks or playgrounds, no hospitals or similar institutions. The railroad station was a disgrace, although within a few miles of the station are located some of the largest industries of their particular kind in the world.

By a more rigid enforcement of the antiquated Massachusetts tax laws, it became imperative for certain people in Norwood to move away. It was apparent that those who remained would have a still heavier burden of taxation to bear, and the prospects of the town

became critical. Under these circumstances the responsibility of the citizens asserted itself. There came the realization among all classes that the town is a unit and that this idea should control the conduct of its common interests, political and otherwise.

When we began to study our situation from this new point of view and sought to improve it, it became apparent to us that: First, the form of town government that the old New England methods prescribed by law for all Massachusetts towns did not secure unified, efficient, economical administration of public affairs; second, there did not exist any single organization capable of looking out for the nonpolitical and yet common interests of the citizens in matters civic, charitable, and educational in the broadest sense, in such a way as to avoid duplication and waste and to secure efficient and unified handling of them; third, in order to make the town planning effective—to establish parks, boulevards, playgrounds, and improve the style and method of building construction and housing conditions—it was wise and necessary to control the ownership of certain real estate situated at strategic points.

As a first result of this awakened interest, subcommittees were formed, reassessments of property were made, economies in appropriation were introduced, and the matter of devising a business management was taken vigorously in hand. We soon found that in assessing our taxes we were merely distributing the burden of the support of government. The vital matter was to determine how to get the most for the money that was spent.

As a result of several years of study and hard work, a new charter was adopted which went into effect about a year ago. The principal feature of this new charter is the separation of the government into the executive and administrative divisions to which reference has already been made. The executive or official division is composed of the elected officials of the town. Various unwieldy boards and commissions, such as are usually found in municipal governments, have been consolidated into one board of five members (called the selectmen), the chairman of which is the head of the government. This board performs its duties in the same way as a board of directors and devotes itself to seeing that the policies of the town as expressed by the citizens in town meeting are properly carried out. As a part of their duties they appoint the board of assessors and the board of relief (one of the latter board may be a woman), each consisting of three members. In making these appointments the idea is carried out that such boards should be comprised only of those especially fitted for the duties involved and that on this account the members can be better selected by a small deliberative commission than by general vote of the citizens.

Besides the board of five selectmen, the citizens elect a finance commission of three members which makes a general audit of all expenditures and prepares the town budget, and a school commission, which, as formerly, handles school affairs through a paid superintendent.

The members of the boards of the official division receive no salary. Under the new method a comparatively small amount of time—and that mainly in the evening—is required of them, because the actual performance of the work is delegated to the administrative division.

At the head of this division is a general manager. He is chosen by the selectmen on the basis of merit and fitness alone, and he is obliged to choose his subordinates on the same basis. He is in charge of all public work and of the police and fire departments, and it is his duty to organize and direct this work along standardized business lines. He is retained in office only so long as he performs his work efficiently and well. He is assisted by an expert accountant who fills the office of town clerk and whose duty it is to keep a complete record of all transactions and their costs of operation. Every dollar spent must be accounted for as in any well-conducted business, so that every citizen may know what is being done and what it costs.

The second task before the citizens in the regeneration of the town was to create a central community and civic organization; in fact, it was very nearly necessary to create a civic sense. A start was made by inviting to a conference representatives from the various social and civic bodies of the town—the board of trade, woman's club, fraternal organizations, and the like. This finally resulted in the organization of the Norwood Civic Association. Such property as the civic association acquires is to be held for all time by nine trustees for the benefit of the community as a whole. Its management is in the hands of a board of 27 governors, who are chosen by an election committee consisting of the trustees, selectmen, and school committee; so that its control rests with the elected representatives of the people. There is also a woman's standing committee of 21 members, which deals with those matters which are of particular interest to the women of the community and the home. Its purpose, as set forth in its articles of organization, is to promote—

> the welfare of the town of Norwood, Mass., and to improve the morality, industry, thrift, health, cleanliness, education, and good citizenship of its inhabitants.

There was some hesitancy over the word "civic," but when it was found that its inherent meaning is "belonging to the people," it was accepted as the best possible name.

The clubhouse has a floor space of some thirty thousand square feet. It contains an auditorium, gymnasium, swimming pool, bowl-

ing alleys, a billiard room, game rooms for the children, a social hall, and various rooms used for the meetings of outside organizations. The town meetings are held at the clubhouse, and its auditorium is in frequent use for concerts, lectures, and other public assemblies.

Gymnasium classes for young and old of both sexes are conducted under the supervision of trained leaders for physical development and recreation, and every opportunity is taken to stimulate high standards of character. Exhibitions and contests are held at intervals. In the summer the athletic field and tennis courts are in constant use. One of the most important features of this physical work is in connection with a fully equipped corrective room in which cases of malformation, including spinal and foot troubles, are treated by the physical directors, under the supervision of physicians. By arrangement with the school department the physical training of school children is carried on at the clubhouse and the physical directors coach the school athletic teams. There is now under way a plan for a closer union of the schools with the work of the civic association, so that the school work, conducted along the lines of work at Gary, Ind., may help the children best to meet their opportunities in life.

In addition to its work at the clubhouse, the civic association is doing extension work in outlying parts of the town; social centers are being developed as places of instruction and inspiration for its neighborhood. Within a few months the civic association has acquired ownership of an unused hall in one of the outlying parts of the town, and in still another section the town itself is turning over to the association an old school building.

In one corner of the grounds is the Corner House, so called because of its location. This is the health center. Here is a small hospital with a fully-equipped operating room, and it is also the headquarters of the district and school nurses. A new and larger hospital is now being built. There are conducted regularly in the present hospital a dental clinic and an eye clinic, each in the care of a competent specialist. The entire work is under the general care of the women's standing committee, with the practical operation under a trained supervisor.

The supervisor is a graduate nurse and a student in social service, and she has under her a corps of trained assistants—both graduate nurses for service with physicians and attendant nurses for general nursing and home-keeping work. They all live together at the Corner House. They come in daily contact with the everyday life of numberless homes, and their influence is gradually manifesting itself. Norwood has to-day the lowest death rate in Massachusetts. The supervisor of the Corner House is the agent of the board of relief and helps to look after the dispensation of its funds; she

serves to help the unemployed. There is also a fund at the Corner House to assist young men and women to obtain higher educational advantages than are offered in the town itself.

Then, there is the Model House. This is a small dwelling beside the Corner House. It is modestly furnished as an example and illustration of an attractive home within the possibilities of all who are capable of appreciating it.

It should be noted that the civic association is an organization for the purpose of centralizing in some one place the various community activities, rather than a social organization for the purpose of bringing all of the townspeople together on a common social basis. That would be clearly impossible. Each social group is bound to have its own activities, and the natural social life of the churches, lodges, and other organizations is not rivaled in the slightest degree. We must learn to get effective cooperation of our existing social groups. In our community center we are striving to create and arouse this cooperative spirit.

We have a town-planning committee which is following the best practice in town planning, along familiar lines. The Norwood Housing Association has been formed for the purpose of holding various parcels of property—both unimproved land in the outlying districts and improved properties in the residential and business sections of the town. Something like this is quite essential to make effective the best development of the community. Land is held for factory sites, so that the industrial development may be furthered; and, as the demand arises, it is planned to build houses in such number and under such modern standardized methods as to secure the best results at the minimum cost.

The Norwood Housing Association also has in mind the need of centers of recreation and is providing them. It has control of the entire shores of a lake nearly 2 miles long and half a mile wide, which lies on the outskirts of the town. Here it is proposed to build bathhouses, boathouses, and such additional buildings as will contribute to the pleasure of the greatest number of people. One portion of the shore is being set aside for bungalows, so that those who are able to do so may have comfortable homes there during the summer.

All of this brings in revenue; in fact, it is expected that from the development of this property the housing committee will secure very handsome returns and a large increase on its investment. This increased investment becomes an endowment fund for the civic association. It has been carefully worked out in this way: For the land deeded to it, the housing association issues its securities to the full extent of its cost or assessed value; mortgage bonds paying 5 per cent are issued for 60 per cent; preferred stock paying 6 per cent is issued for the next 20 per cent, and the common stock holds

the remaining 20 per cent, which carries the entire equity of both the property and its earnings. Arrangements have been made by which the whole of this common stock may become the property of the civic association. As the town grows and its real estate develops, the civic association will thus find itself the beneficiary in a financial way of the development which it has helped make possible. Within a few years it should have sufficient income from this source alone to meet its entire running expenses. It is expected that this endowment fund, started with this common stock of the housing association, will be increased from time to time by legacies from public-spirited men and women in the community who have come to recognize the value of the work of the civic association and who will welcome the opportunity to aid in its continuance. The bonds and preferred stock of the housing association offer a safe and attractive investment for the townspeople, and at the same time serve to stimulate their interest in the whole undertaking.

As you well know, this idea of the housing association is not a new one. There are over 100 cities in Germany which have no municipal taxes, because all the money for public expenditures which would otherwise have to be met by taxes comes from the leased property which the cities have held for years.

Norwood appears to have made a real beginning. By assigning the duties of the town government to these two classes of men—one, honorable officials serving without salary, meeting at convenient intervals and giving to the town the same sort of attention that they would give to a private enterprise of which they were trustees or directors, and the other, business experts, chosen by careful methods of selection—we have established a well-ordered, economically conducted government. We have secured greater democracy, because we have broadened the field of citizenship from which these officials may be chosen; and we have gained greater efficiency, inasmuch as it is now possible to introduce the best possible methods.

The same principle of committee representation, working through paid experts, is giving us and our general community work the same splendid results. For a given amount of money we are, in my opinion, accomplishing very much more than formerly. It is astounding to consider what savings and gains could be effected by a similar centralization under expert management in a place the size of Boston, which now has scores and hundreds of charitable and civic organizations. It is true that many of these organizations perform efficient service, but the duplication and confusion occasioned by their great number mean undue expense and only partial handling of the whole task.

There is scarcely a limit to the things which can be done by a community which will find ways of uniting its powers and developing

methods for expressing in action and deeds its ideals. Insurance against sickness and the loss of employment will go far toward removing a great fear from many households. We expect that we can work out in terms of the community some such form of insurance; and other problems are, we believe, capable of solution when once the community shall have appreciated its needs and its power to achieve.

In all these matters we are simply making effective in an old-fashioned New England community the same principles that have made German municipal management the most efficient in the world, and we are doing it by the cooperative effort of its citizens under the guidance of leaders of their own choice and kind. If we in Norwood, with no university to lead us, have made some progress in the direction of efficient democracy, how great are the possibilities of the cities of this country in which are established great universities, dedicated as they are to sound scholarship and lofty ideals of citizenship.

THE DEMAND FOR TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE.

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The time has not yet come for the urban universities to conduct an aggressive and insistent campaign to secure the employment of trained men in the public service. Something, of course, can be done; more in some cities than in others; but we have not yet reached the time for reaping the harvest of expert and efficient public service. We are rather still in the process of breaking the ground and sowing the seed. Expert public service will come only when there is a demand for it—not a theoretical demand that we ought to have expert service, but an economic demand, an actual desire on the part of city administrations to secure trained and efficient workers and to establish a permanent administrative organization on this basis.

City government is the product of the social and economic forces working in a community. In order to understand why a people which has developed great efficiency in its private affairs has failed to do so in its city administration, it is necessary to make some analysis of these forces.

Our city populations may be roughly divided for our purposes into three groups. There is, first, the general group of the average, nonpolitical citizen—the man who is earning from $700 or $800 a year to $5,000 or $10,000 a year. This group will constitute about half of our city population. It is composed of men who are essentially private men. They are absorbed in their private business and

family affairs. Many of them, if not natives of other places, were born in what was practically an overgrown country town, for a generation ago most of our large cities were little more than that. These men have no inherited loyalty to their city. Very few of them feel that the city government is of any vital importance to them. Perhaps a majority of them regard politics as something more or less alien to their real interests. They distinguish between business and politics, and many of them pride themselves on knowing nothing about the affairs of their city government and of taking no interest in them. Although there is a constantly growing sentiment among these people for better conditions in city service, they are unorganized, without power of effective action, without leadership, without the means of securing the very considerable funds which are necessary for successful civic campaigns. They are the easy victims of trumped-up issues, popular slogans, and appeals to party loyalty.

It is true that from time to time they grumble about high taxes, bad streets, poor fire and police protection, and occasionally, under the impulse of some dramatic happening, they unite and sweep their representatives into power. The result is almost always disappointing. The men elected, with the best of intentions, are utterly unskilled in city administration, lacking technical knowledge, uninformed as to the real purposes of city government, and are subject to pressures which greatly embarrass and hinder their successes, while the mass of the population, after such an election, relapses into indifference. Most men of this class come to regard present civic conditions as natural and inevitable, for they have no knowledge of city government in other countries and no point of view for comparison.

Above this group is a small group of men representing large economic units, who are intensely interested in city government, but in a private and personal way. The public utilities of most of our cities are owned and operated not by the city but by corporations. Those who are responsible to the stockholders of these corporations are primarily interested in the success and earning power of the corporation. This success and earning power is very greatly affected by the city government. These corporations must have franchises, as required, on satisfactory terms, privileges of opening streets, placing wires and conduits, regulations of surface openings, of questions affecting the cleaning and maintenance of streets, etc. A hostile city government can do them vast injury. By the very pressure of economic necessity they have been driven into city politics.

There are other groups in the city which necessarily, as a matter of business, are vitally interested in the city government. The liquor dealers, for instance, can have their profits greatly affected by the attitude of the police department. There are city contractors, and

there are the men on the shady side of the law, whose very existence depends upon a friendly administration.

In the American political system city government is inextricably enmeshed with the State and National Governments, and larger groups interested in State and National legislation and administration feel themselves compelled to protect their interests by taking a strong hand in the affairs of the city administration.

Below the great middle class lies the submerged class, the unskilled workmen, the thousands of foreigners, men without friends, without resources, without any economic strength, and therefore without any political strength. Perhaps 25 per cent or more of the actual voters in our large cities may be included in this class of helpless voters. The law gives them a ballot, but their economic position deprives them of it. They are at the mercy of the police and the police magistrates. They buy peace in the easiest way—by taking orders. There are precincts in many of our large cities where the mass of the voters are so helpless that they can not even protect their registration or secure the counting of their ballots. Then there is the large and increasing public pay roll. In many cities nearly 10 per cent of the actual voters are on some governmental pay roll. Economic necessity controls most of these votes, and the votes of men in their families.

There are also in our cities many men of narrow circumstances to whom politics afford an excitement, a recreation. It is to them the greatest national sport, after baseball. They love the fight. They are open to appeals of factional loyalty. Many of them aspire to city employment as a signal honor to be achieved. They are a great force in the recurring contests for the control of the city, and as a rule have no conception of what these contests are really about.

Now, out of these conditions there grows the actual thing which we call American city government. The powerful economic groups, vitally interested from a personal and business point of view in the conduct of city government, by a more or less conscious organization, and by the expenditure of large sums of money, when necessary, are back of most successful tickets in city elections. Their funds and their economic power are used to direct the vote of the helpless group. The great middle class, more or less indifferent and uninformed, confused by long ballots and the multiplicity of campaign cries, are generally divided and ineffective.

It is not the purpose of this paper to pillory the controlling group here described. Many of them are men of high character and real patriotism, but they are absorbed in business, they have never studied the problems of government, they have grown up under the system, they know no other way, and very often they are largely themselves ignorant of what they are really doing.

Suppose they have secured, for instance, as mayor a business man of high standing and character, who really desires to install business methods in the city administration. Almost inevitably he finds himself unable to do it to any extent. In the first place, he is himself without any technical knowledge or any clear views of what the city government is for. The conception of community activity for community ends is vague and faint in his mind. He is subjected to great pressure; his army of supporters is demanding recognition and employment. He is told that he must preserve the political organization which put him in. He is bombarded every day, and often from high and influential sources, to give certain persons employment; while the great mass of voters lies silent, dormant, inarticulate, there is pressure from the other side. Almost inevitably he yields, perhaps to his own discontent and disgust.

Furthermore, the maintenance of the controlling political organization is expensive. The natural impulse of those who support it financially is to pay as little of that expense as possible themselves, and to distribute as much as possible among the general body of the taxpayers. It is, from their point of view, profitable to have an inefficient and overloaded pay roll, because in this way the tax of supporting the organization is not all paid by themselves, but is partly paid by the taxpayers generally, and the advantages which they reap in their own private business more than compensate for the increased taxation which they have to pay.

We have, therefore, an actual government in cities which is of necessity inimical to a permanent, efficient, expert body of public servants. If a university in a city so governed, with whatever diplomacy and tact, offers itself for the training of public servants, and endeavors to insist upon their employment, it will meet three difficulties.

In the first place, if it becomes too insistent, it will be looked upon as meddling with affairs which do not concern it, and the plausible greetings with which its first efforts may be met will soon change into opposition more or less expressed.

In the second place, it will be very difficult to get intelligent young men to enter the city's services under these conditions, because it does not offer them a career. The exigencies of politics may throw them out at any time. They can not count upon rising step by step through a lifetime, as a reward of merit.

In the third place, most universities are in constant need of funds. These funds can be secured only from men of large means, and a university which presses this matter to a point where it becomes troublesome will be very apt to receive intimations that it is going outside of its proper sphere of influence, should stay out of politics, and confine itself to education.

There is another barrier in the way. The organization of cities under the charters in force in most of them makes expert public service difficult, if not impossible. We have been cursed in this country by the adoption of the political theories of the eighteenth century French philosophers. We owe a great debt to Montesquieu, Rousseau, and others for preaching the gospel of freedom, but their views of governmental organization have proven to be hopelessly wrong, and yet they are the basis underlying most city charters. We elect all manner of men for short terms, and in particular we elect the chief administrator, the mayor. Almost inevitably he is either a politician, bred in the old school, or a business man, unskilled in city government. In the former, he has no sympathy with efficiency. If the latter, he finds himself thrown into an occupation which is strange and new to him. He is necessarily cautious, timid, and uncertain. He is surrounded by great pressures. If he has the right stuff in him, after struggling for several years he does acquire some degree of knowledge and skill, and then his term has expired and the charter generally provides that he can not be a candidate for reelection. With an inefficient, confused, and constantly changing head, no administrative organization can rise very high. We must learn a lesson from the splendid city governments of Germany and other European countries. We must elect a council which shall serve as a board of directors, and let that council select the mayor or the bürgermeister on a basis of expert knowledge and ability, maintaining him in power so long as he renders good service. With a permanent and efficient head, there is a possibility of obtaining efficiency throughout the organization.

I do not paint this picture for the purpose of encouraging pessimism or discouraging the urban universities from attempting a great service to their cities. Conditions are rapidly improving, have improved enormously during the last 20 years. In many cities a foothold has been obtained for expert service. Some very gratifying results have been obtained in Pittsburgh, but after all, they are more or less sporadic and exigent. At present, the main fight should be waged in another place, where the universities can perform a great public service, greatly advance the day of real efficiency, and eventually put themselves in the place where they will be called upon by the cities to train men for city service.

Every year thousands of our most promising young men go through our urban universities. They go from them into the thick of city life. The work must begin with them. They must be given such instruction that they will be centers for the development of that intelligent public sentiment which is a necessary precursor of the thing we desire. Let no university undertake to serve its community unless it has that infinite patience which is willing to dig

to the bottom of things and build slowly and solidly upon the rock foundation.

Now, what are these boys to be taught? The merely altruistic and emotional appeal is not enough. Our people mean well enough. What they need to learn is the tremendous, vital stake which they have as individuals and as communities in the conduct of their city government. The controlling facts must first be thoroughly learned by the universities themselves, and then taught to their students.

Why is it that we are so far behind European cities in this respect? Primarily because we have only recently become a city-dwelling people. We know little about cities. They are largely foreign to our processes of thought. At the time of the Revolutionary War there were only 12 or 15 chartered cities in the United States. The largest of them, Philadelphia, was not as big as many city wards to-day. In fact, the great growth of our cities has come since the close of the Civil War. Into them have been poured men from all sections of the country who have come into them indifferent and unconcerned, having no knowledge or conception of large community life, and the vast distinction between the country dweller and the city dweller.

It is a fact that in the small community the local government is not of much importance. The farmer or the villager does everything for himself. If he wants water, he digs a well or a cistern, and he has his water. The city dweller can not do this. The city provides him with water; and this is so whether the city owns the waterworks or makes a contract with some private organization for that purpose. The city likewise provides light and transportation. The man in the small community has little need of police protection, but lawless men accumulate and operate in the cities, and protection must be furnished by the city itself.

The rural man can protect his own health. The city man can not. The infected water, the poisonous sweatshop, the filthy slum may strike down his nearest and dearest, and he is helpless unless the city itself protects him. The city dweller has no protection for his children against moral infection. The plague spots will exist and contaminate unless the city government stamps them out. The business development of the city dweller is largely dependent upon the city government. The merchants may compete with each other for all the business there is in the community, but they can not enlarge the city. The city with high taxes, bad housing conditions, poor water, poor schools, poor traction service, poor opportunities for recreation is undesirable to live in, undesirable to establish plants in, while the city in the reverse condition is constantly drawing new populations, new consumers, and new capital, and so enlarging the opportunity of every dweller in the city for either employment or

business. In every respect the city, and the larger the city the more true this is, is the factor most largely controlling the social and economic environment of the citizen.

Let the universities give sound, fundamental instruction to the constant stream of young men passing through them, so that they shall come out with some conception of what community activity is, of how important it is, with a breadth of view and a grasp of the larger relations of things, and a situation will soon be produced which will enable the universities to render a service greatly needed and increasingly desired in the training of men to the honorable career of efficient and expert service to the city.

A SEARCH FOR THE MAXIMUM CAPACITY FOR SERVICE.

By Dr. Hollis Godfrey,
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THREE PRIMARY PURPOSES OF A TEACHING INSTITUTION.

The cooperation of any college with its community provides a problem with most complex factors and with an amazing number of variants. Because of that very complexity, effective cooperation demands the determination of a clear-cut general policy which can be clearly expressed to the community. Such a policy can only be effective when based on decisions which result from carefully made studies. Such studies can be accepted as guides only when they are made with a full understanding of the purposes of a teaching institution.

The primary purpose of a teaching institution to-day, as in the days of Plato's academy, is to transfer a vital thought from the mind of the teacher to the mind of the scholar. Any study has lost the essential touchstone of inherent truth which does not bear in mind continually as a fundamental concept the thought that any change made as a result of study which retards or blocks the transference of the vital thought is a loss, while every change so made which aids in that transference is a gain. No one can recognize more clearly than the trained and experienced engineer that efficiency is but one factor in economy, and that any economy which does not include spiritual and human factors is not true economy.

The administrators of any educational trust have, however, second and third purposes to carry out which are as basic as the first. Like any other trustees, they are given certain funds to administer. It must be their ideal to see that no dollar of the funds is wasted. Every student who comes to the institution gives to the keeping of

the trustees many hours of his life. Consequently the third ideal of the trustees must be to see that no hour of the student's time is wasted through their fault. The term "trustees" in this connection includes not only those technically so named, but also every member of the teaching and administrative staff.

THE METHOD OF ATTACK UPON THE PROBLEM.

Three fundamental purposes of college investigations having been defined; the method of attack comes next. Fortunately, we have for this certain clear lines of procedure, based on analogies from the industrial world. If a thoroughly modern bank desires to have a complete report on a given business project, it requests reports not only from men trained in the special trade, craft, or art which it is proposed to establish, but it also seeks the advice of consulting engineers and lawyers. Only after the reports of all three groups are in can a complete picture, sufficient to warrant the investment of funds, be secured.

When that is true where funds and their investment are alone to be considered, how much more is it true where the investment includes the precious hours of thousands of men and women.

THE DREXEL INSTITUTE'S SPECIFIC PROBLEM.

With the three primary purposes and the known method of attack on industrial problems as starting points, we have been endeavoring to answer this question: How could the Drexel Institute, a small college type of technical school, giving day and evening instruction in three schools—engineering, domestic science, and arts and secretarial—give by means of its courses the best cooperation with the community factors of Philadelphia and at the same time carry out certain expressed desires of its founders?

In the attempt to answer this question, up to the present time 39 specific researches have been begun and continued for at least one year. Some 16 others have been begun during the last year and are now in various stages of development. Of this group there have been selected for the purposes of this paper brief statements of certain factors concerned in the studies made of the following subjects: Admission requirements; the institute catalogue; the distribution of scholarship funds; curricula; graduate work of the staff; teaching services of undergraduates; the employment of graduates and undergraduates.

ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS.

That upon the rock of entrance requirements the good ship "Cooperation" may be in dire peril of shipwreck goes without saying. We considered this question of what should be done about entrance

requirements, therefore, with the utmost care, and finally answered it by means of the following methods and in the following ways:

First, the admission requirements of every institution of collegiate grade in and around Philadelphia were obtained and analyzed.

Second, the entrance requirements of 230 colleges in the United States were analyzed.

Third, there are 119 four-year high and preparatory schools from whose districts students may take trolley or train to Philadelphia daily. Sixty of these were visited personally, and in each the principal of the school was asked to give us his or her best thought on the relation of admission requirements to the problem of cooperation between the high schools of greater Philadelphia and the Drexel Institute.

Fourth, a group of the men who have had the most experience with admission requirements were chosen and brought to the institute to aid us with their advice. We also took the data obtained to other experts who could not come to the institute.

Fifth, the results of all these studies were briefed and charted and submitted to the admission committee and then to the major faculty of the institute, who passed upon them.

The result of the studies outlined above showed, first, that the tendency of all the colleges in our field to require specific subjects for admission generally forced the student to decide the course he was to take at least by the end of the first year in the high school, or else to take more than the usual four years.

Second, that a considerable number of colleges of the first rank in the United States were giving admission on the basis of high-school graduation requiring work of high quality, but not specifying any given subjects.

Third, that the principals of the high schools in greater Philadelphia felt almost unanimously that there was great need for some collegiate institution to grant admission to high-school graduates of high quality who had not planned to go to college until the second or third year of their course and who would be debarred from entrance at the end of the four-year course because of that delay in decision.

Fourth, that every man consulted who had had to do with entrance requirements believed our wisest course would be to insist on quality, rather than on specific subjects, provided high-school graduation was secured and provided the proper safeguards be put around the admission of the entering student.

The result of this policy, so far as the quality and preparation of the students entering the institute is concerned, has been admirable. Of the freshman class last year, 95 per cent were high-

school graduates. This year 94 per cent were high-school graduates, and no conditional student is admitted unless we can see a specific reason in his or her case for such admission.

So far as our relations with other institutions are concerned, the result has been most satisfactory.

THE COLLEGE CATALOGUE.

No single factor more advances cooperative action between the college and the community than clear expression of the opportunities that the college offers. Every college should place before its community those instructional opportunities which a part of the community desires or should desire. From the educational standpoint, however, it seems eminently wise to throw the emphasis on the fact that the college offers an apportunity to the student, rather than that the student grants an opportunity to the college when he enters it. For that reason the Drexel Institute limits its public statements to its own publications. Its belief that simple, honest statements of the work done, coupled with the best possible printing, were the most effective publicity program that could be secured, provided the basis for the next research mentioned here. This research was undertaken to determine the best expression of the facts about the institute. One part of it took this form: What is the most effective form for the college catalogue? To determine the answer to this question, the following methods were employed:

First, 420 college catalogues were examined and their main points noted and analyzed.

Second, the best catalogue work of certain industrial lines, such as the automobile line, which have come to recognize the value of good printing, were examined and analyzed.

Third, a group of experts in the printing art, including some of the best-known printers in America, were asked to the institute to go through it and to assist in writing specifications for the make-up of a catalogue which should properly express the institute to the community.

Fourth, as a result of the suggestion of those experts, 18 type pages were set up, one after another, and submitted to the printing experts, to oculists, and to illuminating engineers. The eighteenth page set was the one finally accepted. The catalogue as last issued is the result of this research.

The writing of the catalogue has been quite as carefully considered as its format. Each year it has been written by one man, but this man's work has been criticized by three trained writers and editorially amended and checked. The catalogue is now in its third form.

Style, however, is less important than directness and simple honesty. In order to obtain these things, all the essential facts in the

catalogue are placed for inspection in the hands, first, of the major faculty; second, of the minor faculty; third, of the upper classes of the institute. All of these groups meet in conference to go over the facts in the catalogue, with the request that they criticize freely any word or phrase which is in any way untrue or in any way misrepresents the facts about the institute.

We can scarcely emphasize too strongly the value of this research as shown in the educational results to students and faculty and as regards the cooperative results with the community. There is no single factor which has caused more vagueness in the efforts for cooperation than ineffective and confused expression of educational aims and opportunities.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOLARSHIP FUNDS.

In the two preceding researches the work was accomplished by the cooperation of outside expert assistants and inside experienced effort. In the next research, to determine the best use of scholarship funds, the third of the three factors mentioned earlier, the legal factor, appears. This research passed through the following stages:

First, examination and classification of all applications for financial help from students received during a given period of time.

Second, personal interviews with older students and their parents to find where, if anywhere, financial pressure was most evident.

Third, the designing of a policy as regards scholarship funds which should be equitable to all and do the greatest good to the greatest number.

Fourth, consultation with the corporation counsel to obtain an opinion as to whether or not the policy proposed carried out our legal and moral obligations.

As a result of investigations one and two, it was found, first, that a large percentage of the students who had held scholarships preferred to give work in exchange for financial aid, provided this were possible, and second, that one of the most serious handicaps to the planning of individual student finances was the uncertainty of the one who paid the bills concerning the cost of books and supplies.

The plan finally proposed solved these difficulties. Exact studies showed that by using the existing scholarship funds to purchase the more expensive technical works required, it would be possible to guarantee every entering regular student that his or her maximum cost of books and supplies not representing permanent investment would not exceed $25. An amount of work commanding a wage equal to the scholarship funds then granted was at the same time opened to student assistance.

The plan outlined was submitted to the corporation counsel, who decided that it legally and morally carried out the purposes for

which the funds were given. This has meant a marked step forward in the clarification of our relations with the community.

CURRICULA.

Our use of the usual principles of the perpetual audit and of the perpetual inventory, with daily reports of the financial and educational state of the institute, has had the unusual effect of initiating studies which have resulted in three of the most fundamentally cooperative policies we have undertaken.

The first of these policies is the complete differentiation of our curricula from the curricula of any other institution in our territory.

Second, the development of the group of the night school, in which 1,500 men and women are now entered for continuous balanced courses of from two to seven years.

Third, the development of our plan of offering to any 16 persons any course given in the institute at any time when a teacher is unoccupied and a classroom or a laboratory is vacant.

As a result of these policies, we are rapidly reaching a point where some classes are working in the institute every hour of the day from 9 in the morning to 9.30 at night.

OTHER STUDIES.

In order to encourage graduate work, the institute pays the first fee of any member of its staff who desires to take courses at the University of Pennsylvania or Columbia. Last year 23 availed themselves of this opportunity, and 29 are doing graduate work this year.

As a result of an extensive study, we determined upon the policy of using the teaching powers of the upper classes for community service. The school of domestic science and arts furnishes teachers, free of charge, from among the ranks of the older students to charitable institutions in Philadelphia. The control of this outside work is vested in three members of the instructional staff, who are given specific hours to care for the effectiveness of the service.

The study concerning the employment of graduates and undergraduates has found effective form through the activities of the bureau of recommendations. Up to the present time these studies have been concerned chiefly with work open to graduates, vacation work open to undergraduates, and employment for undergraduates which can be carried on together with their academic work.

We have postponed, up to the present time, two vital studies which are now beginning: That of bettering the employment of the older graduates, and that of the employment of students in the night course.

Studies were made of the specific employment needs of the members of the national engineering societies in Philadelphia, certain branches of the iron and steel industry, the public service corporation, and the engineering branches of the city. On the women's side studies were made of the employment needs of hospitals, institutions, and schools, and especially of the executive who employs the women graduates of our secretarial school.

Our efforts have been very successful. Of 154 graduates of last year, all but one who desired positions are well placed. Over 30 per cent more good positions were available than we had graduates to place. Between 80 per cent and 90 per cent of our upper classmen worked last summer at employments closely related to their professional training. Their average for the summer was approximately $145.

In concluding this brief report of some phases of the continuous and arduous work of two years, certain facts should be noted. First, we are fully convinced that any problem will yield to this treatment, given the right conditions. Second, we have to-day more research work and we see our problem as a whole and the relation of each part to the whole more clearly than at any previous period. Third, we are more open-minded than ever before and more anxious for every possible type of assistance which may aid us in the definition and solution of our problems. Fourth, we really believe we can see marked gains in our cultivation of that rare flower—common sense.

But, beside all this, our statement would be incomplete did it not bear witness to the spiritual values which have come from the combined effort of a devoted group, each member eager to bear his or her full part in our research to determine the maximum capacity for service of the institute. Nothing is clearer to those of us who have taken part in this work than that it has affected us all in such a way as to give us greater pride in our great art of teaching, greater pride in our institution, greater pride in the community of which we are a part.

COOPERATION WITH BUSINESS ORGANIZATIONS.

By Mr. John W. Fahey,

President of the National Chamber of Commerce.

Organizations of business men have been undergoing a rather thorough reform. The old-time commercial organizations, chambers of commerce, boards of trade, and commercial clubs we have had with us from the first days of the Republic; but until recent years these organizations lacked the breadth of view which should characterize the work of modern business men—men realizing that

there are problems of great importance affecting business and the common prosperity which have to do with the welfare of the city and its social progress and which do not come directly across the desk of the business man in his daily work.

But now, in nearly every one of these organizations, greater emphasis has been laid upon civic activity than ever before. In one city after another the business men have finally overcome the old-time suspicion of the professor as a theorist. And on the other side colleges and universities have come to see that the business man was not quite so intensely practical and ultraselfish as he was assumed to be, but that he had something of idealism and even altruism about him; that he was anxious to be of real service, realizing that the broad path to public confidence for the business man lies through service, and through service alone.

In training for public service an important point is that while we train young men as efficient public servants, as experts in municipal affairs, we must understand that they are going to have difficulty in holding their places and going on in their useful careers, unless they have the backing of intelligent citizenship—a citizenship that is based on leadership. So far as this leadership is concerned, there is a large amount of useful material among business men as a group.

Another part of the problem will depend for solution upon the upbuilding of schools of commerce. To support municipal efficiency, the business organization of a city must itself be efficient and prosperous. We need better training for business, better commercial training. We may say that there is nothing like practical experience in making the best type of business man, but business men are beginning to understand to-day that they can not have too much training in intelligence that can be utilized and adapted in daily practice.

THE NEED FOR FURTHER INVESTIGATION OF THE PROBLEMS OF TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE.

By LEON C. MARSHALL,

Dean of the College of Commerce and Administration, University of Chicago.

We are in a very puzzled and mixed frame of mind concerning the whole question of public service and the training for public service. Good intentions we have by the wagonload; ideals we have in even greater abundance; but clean-cut policies, cool decision, these we sadly lack at the present stage of our undertaking.

A few months ago the former president of De Pauw University illustrated what different people do at times of mental indecision. He told of a group who were making their way through an uncharted wilderness. Just when they were in what seemed to them

the hardest part of their journey, all at once a fog settled down and blotted out all of the landmarks with which they had become familiar. Thereupon one collection of that group of travelers said: "The only thing that we can do now is to retrace our steps and get back to high ground from which we can take another look and see if we can discover the old landmarks back there, set our stakes, and make this journey over again, and perhaps the next time we can go on a little farther." Whereupon they retraced their steps. Another group felt not at all that way. They said: "There is no use going back over the territory that we have covered. This fog will soon lift; it will be dispelled by the sun, and we will be able to go on. Let us sit down and patiently wait, and meanwhile we will regain some of our strength; and when the fog lifts we will have recovered from our fatigue due to the journey that we have already made, and then we can go on with confidence." The third group would have none of that. They said: "No; let us plunge ahead. We will not know where we are going—that is true—but we will be on the way." So this third group plunged ahead through the fog; they tore their clothes on the briars and brambles, bumped themselves against logs and stumps that lay in their way, encountered various difficulties, and very likely some of them did push through; but the group became separated, and few, if any, of them ever reached their journey's end. But there was a fourth group that said: "It is no use for us to go back over the ground we have already traversed; we could not find the landmarks there if we did go back. Let us calmly consider and take stock of the situation as it is. We will reflect from what direction we were coming when we were stopped by this fog; where the sun was the last time we saw it; what the general lay of the land is, to the best of our knowledge; and on the basis of all the investigating and thinking over the matter that we can do we will proceed cautiously, moving slowly ahead all the time, meanwhile keeping close connection with each other, and see if we can not arrive at the promised land in that way."

This seems to depict fairly accurately the situation with reference to the training for public service. We must proceed slowly anyway, and we shall certainly be more comfortable if we are a little patient in the situation in which we find ourselves. The development of institutions should be lessons for us.

Take, for example, the modern college of commerce. The college of commerce originated in this country in the eighties. One educator generations ago outlined a program of training for commercial purposes, but there were no colleges of commerce established as the result of his outline. The time was not yet ripe. Many things had to occur before the time was ripe. The same thing was true of institutes of technology. They had to be preceded by a period of prepa-

ration which was upon the whole quiet preparation. The same thing was certainly true of the "industrial revolution" as a whole. We say it occurred after 1750; but if there is any one thing that is certain in human history, it is that the "industrial revolution" began before the year 1300 and was in process of preparation for five hundred years before a few inventors struck the match to the powder and gave us the explosion that has been called the "industrial revolution."

No human institution is perfect. If Frederick W. Taylor could, as he did when he was alive, step into the best shops in the United States—not the poorest shops, but the best shops—and with the same equipment increase their output anywhere from 100 to 1,100 per cent; if the steam engine to-day makes available but a small percentage of the energy that is in coal; if it is true that even according to present knowledge the human race is sometimes like one-quarter of 1 per cent efficient; if there is even a modicum of truth in these general propositions, we may well judge this movement of training for public service not by some absolute standards but by what may reasonably be expected of human beings in matters of this sort. We shall need to keep a calm and sane perspective and accumulate our powder until later or somebody shall be able to set the match to it. It may be that we shall not have to wait long. But only when we have arrived at the full consciousness of our needs in this country may we expect rapid progress to occur in training for public service; consequently patience seems to be one of the virtues that we may well cultivate for the next few years.

Another thing it seems to me would be highly important, namely, that we do not overlook the necessity of laying a good, firm foundation. The public servant is like a physician—indeed, he is a physician to society. In sending out these physicians to society we must recognize that the social organism is quite as complex as the human organism. Would it not be well, therefore, for us to make certain that our physicians go forth knowing first the physiology of the social organism; knowing, second, the pathology of the social organism, and possessing, finally, all the administrative qualities and all of the technique that we can crowd in behind? It is through technique, as has been very properly said, that much of the physiology can be taught, but let us make certain that we are giving these people a knowledge of the physiology of American society.

We have gone so far in our development of specialized studies since the great Civil War in this country that we have never had time to take stock of our situation. A man who is willing to take stock may by radicals be called "academic." That name does not frighten me, because that sort of work must be performed if we are to have well-rounded preparation. Our undergraduates do not need

more courses in money, more courses in banking, more courses in trusts, more courses in railroading, more courses in municipal government; what they need is correlation. If we provide this correlation and then turn out students who have an appreciation of the structure and function of organized society, we shall be prepared to train a technical body of public servants properly.

III. METHODS OF TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE.

METHODS OF TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE.

By CHARLES A. BEARD,

Director of the New York Training School for Public Service.

An industrial democracy can not long endure without a sound and efficient public service. In older and simpler days when this was a nation of farmers, and the functions of government were largely limited to national defense, the repression of crime, and the collection of taxes, it mattered little if waste and folly and jobbery accompanied every public enterprise. The great economic processes of the Nation, even if somewhat hampered by the muddling methods of the State, could go on in the general tenor of their way in spite of the spoils system, rotation in office, and ignorance in public service. The slogan that "any man can fill any office that he can get, whether trained for it or not," although foolish enough in those days, was at least not criminal.

Signs are not wanting, however, that our generation is becoming keenly alive to the problems of public service presented by the new order. It is no mere coincidence that it was largely due to the inspiration of the great organizing genius of his time, Mr. E. H. Harriman, that the training school for public service, initiated by Mrs. Harriman in 1911, owes its origin.

From that hour the idea has taken firmer and firmer root in the American public mind. In 1912, the American Political Science Association appointed a committee to study the relation of the universities to public service, and its reports resulted in the stimulation of widespread interest inside and outside of academic circles. In 1914 the association's committee, on the invitation of Mayor Mitchel, held an important conference in New York, which was attended by representatives of the leading colleges and universities in the country. Since that time, Michigan, Texas, Indiana, Harvard, and Minnesota Universities, and the College of the City of New York have taken steps toward the assumption of strict responsibility in the matter of training for public service.

We may rest secure in the faith that our colleges and universities will respond to every real call for help—so secure in fact that we may now turn from the work of exhortation to that of adjusting our actual program of instruction to such opportunities as the public service at present offers. This adjustment involves two things: First, a regrouping of courses and the addition of new courses which will afford the requisite general foundation and the proper special discipline; and, secondly, the granting of academic credit for field or observation work in government and administration.

The granting of academic credit is undoubtedly a serious matter and must be closely controlled, but it is fundamental to any real advance in training for public service. That it can be done without impairment of academic standards seems certain. We shall have no difficulty in securing academic recognition for field work if we can show that the control over it is such as to guarantee its solid character.

While gaining at the hands of institutions of learning a proper grouping of courses of instruction and due credit for laboratory or field work, we must also devote ourselves assiduously to another more formidable task—that of educating the American public to appreciate trained service, to demand more of it, and to insist upon an adjustment of our civil-service organization and methods to our magnificent educational system. Every year thousands of young men and women are coming out of our schools filled with enthusiasm and high hopes. Plenty of them are ready to serve the state with the loyalty and zeal of the soldier if the state will open the door to them and make the way clear, even though narrow and rough.

The essential part of the program of those who are seeking to improve the public service by securing trained servants is as follows:

1. It is the function of politics to determine what should be done; it is the function of the trained expert to carry out the public will with all the instruments and methods which modern science, natural and social, can command.

2. A larger number of the exempt positions in civil service must be put upon a merit basis. In other words, in every division of government there should be permanent under secretaries whose experience and training will secure continuity in the particular field. Under such a system, the young man or woman entering public service could thus look forward to securing, by the display of genuine talents, positions of dignity, power, and responsibility.

3. There must be created some system of junior offices in the several great branches of administration, which offices will be open to properly qualified young men and women, and which will give them further practical training and open a gateway through promotion for loyal and efficient labor to the higher posts. At the present

time practically nothing has been done to link up the public service directly with our splendid system of education.

4. The residence qualification as a requirement for admission to public service must be abolished or seriously modified, thus widening the opportunities for careers in the public service by making it possible for able and devoted civil servants to move from city to city, or even State to State.

5. The term "examination" must be extended to include more laboratory or field experience, in addition to academic training, thus facilitating promotion and transfers in the public service, and recognizing practical work, such as is given in the training school for public service, and may be provided in connection with most colleges and universities. It is gratifying to note that our most enlightened civil-service commissioners are giving an increasing weight to experience.

Here we might inquire whether schools undertaking this training can hope to place their graduates in positions to which their abilities and labors may entitle them. They probably can. On surveying the public service to-day, we find it falls into what may be called two broad divisions: 1. Official public service. 2. Unofficial public service.

The first of these divisions—the official public service—may be subdivided according to method of appointment into exempt and classified positions. With reference to the exempt group, there is an inveterate suspicion that trained men and women can not look forward to permanent careers in that branch of the public service. To a considerable extent the suspicion is justified.

That branch of the civil service which is open through competitive examination is not only more extensive, but includes most of the positions for which technical training is actually required. The existence of a large number of "cramming" schools for Federal, State, and municipal service is an indication that some kind of special preparation is a gateway to that service. Since this is so, it is evident that high schools, colleges, and universities might, if they would put their minds to the problem, develop courses of instruction which would better equip their students for specified lines of the classified positions, thus encouraging them to enter the service of the State and cooperate in raising the standards of that service.

From the point of view of the nature of the positions, the official public service may be divided into two divisions—technical and professional, and nontechnical.

The first division includes those positions for which technical or professional training is required—engineers, physicians, chemists, foresters, accountants, geologists. For these positions the schools are giving reasonably satisfactory technical and professional instruction, but it would be an immense gain to the public service if they

would add to their curricula courses in public administration involving the several specialties, taxation and finance, government and economics, institutional management, and other subjects calculated to broaden the horizon of the technical or professional student, and make it easier for him to fit into the complex scheme of public administration.

The nontechnical branch of the public service, whether exempt or under the merit system, includes a number of positions which are attractive to those who have had advanced university work in economics and political science, and particularly to those who supplement technical or professional education by such training. Among the positions of this type may be included the following: City managers and administrative officers; civil service examiners; directors of social centers; investigators for special staff bureaus, such as the Federal Trade Commission at Washington, or the Bureau of Standards in New York City; investigators for commissions, such as tax, public utility, insurance, industrial, and other commissions; reference librarians, municipal and State; secretaries and research agents for legislative committees or members; deputies and secretaries to executive officers.

The unofficial public service to which I referred above offers at the present time more available and attractive positions to trained men and women than the official service. One of the striking features of modern democracy is the constant cooperation of the citizens with the Government through civic organization. As the functions of government increase, the matters of these associations will increase and the work of those already in existence will extend. Indeed, our civic organizations are becoming, in fact, gateways to official public service in its higher ranges.

There is one branch of service which is so often treated apart from Government that it is frequently overlooked, namely, education. In the field of education there is a call for trained men and women capable of handling large administrative problems, as well as those of pedagogy. Our normal schools and teachers' colleges are, of course, giving a great deal of attention to this matter, and the time has now come to increase materially the amount of field work and observation. This is done in Massachusetts, where practical administration is counted toward the degree in education.

There is also a problem of educational policy which is vitally connected with the subject of the hour—that is, the training of teachers of government, civic and administrative. The neglect of these subjects, particularly in the high schools, is nothing short of a disgrace to the Republic.

There is another query, namely, is it possible to train men and women for the public service by what may be termed the laboratory

method, which adds practical experience to book learning? This question will be answered by reference to the program and methods of instruction of the training school for public service.

The school insists that its students must have a broad foundation in general government, municipal science, administration, economics, and finance. The school does not at present offer formalized instruction in these subjects, and if an applicant has not already had these fundamental subjects in some college or university, he is required to secure this discipline before he is regarded as prepared for public service.

The school confines its attention largely to training the students in investigation of concrete civic problems, with New York City as the laboratory. The whole field is divided into several divisions, such as: Public finance and accounting; public works; public safety—police and fire administration; social service—the administration of health functions, charities, and correction, etc.; civil service and standardization of salaries and grades; central management and control, including executive, board, and staff organization and procedure.

In the course of his two years' residence the regular student passes through several, if not all, of these divisions. All contact with public officers and all reports of conferences with them are made under the direction of officers or staff members of the bureau of municipal research, who are responsible for statements of fact and conclusion reached. No member of the school is permitted to deal independently with public officers or to render independent reports. We control and check the students' work in many ways, in order to be able to form an accurate judgment as to quantity and quality.

Since the foundation of the school we have sent into the official and unofficial service more than 75 students—lawyers, doctors, accountants, engineers, teachers, and experts in public administration. While we have not escaped all the frailties of the flesh, we believe that the institution has justified the faith of the founders and has found a permanent place among the new professional schools of America. Having no cause to serve except that of wise and efficient administration, charging no tuition fees, seeking no private profit whatsoever, and asking no favors except a just recognition of the merits of its graduates, the training school hopes to command by good works the confidence and esteem of civic organization and authorities of State and to build the new profession of public service on a lasting foundation.

SOME PHASES OF FIELD WORK.

By PARKE R. KOLBE,

President of Municipal University of Akron, Ohio.

By field work is meant the activities of students sent out by a university department to get experience in the actual *doing* of some piece of extramural work. Visits of inspection or observation are not included under this term; they bear much the same relation to real field work as does the reading of a textbook to laboratory practice.

The traditions of education recognize three main factors in the formal training of the student—the recitation, the lecture, and the laboratory. The quiz, the conference, the demonstration, the examination, are only variants or tests of these three basic methods. The science of teaching has reduced them to an exact status. We may refer at any time to a multitude of books on pedagogy which will inform us as to the value or worthlessness of the many theories which have grown up about them. But neither books, professors nor schools have yet recognized the value of the newest factor in education, namely, field work. Few measures have been taken to insure its standardization in method or its efficiency in execution.

Certain standards of comparison may be laid down as basic and applicable to all forms of field work. Such are methods of supervision, means for testing results, and plan of accrediting. Other important factors are the assignment of work, coordination of theory and practice, remuneration for field workers, and practical usefulness of the work.

[Here President Kolbe enumerated forms of field work in various colleges. Then he proceeded to give typical plans of organization, as follows:]

One of the most broadly developed plans of sociological field work is found at Harvard under the department of social ethics. The following is quoted from a recent letter from Prof. James Ford:

> Field work in this course has been undertaken in various forms. For example, in my class of last year six members made a thorough housing survey of several blocks in the city of Boston. Each man visited all the apartments within the blocks in his assigned section and filled out cards for each house and apartment. The investigations were made in the company of the regular municipal sanitary inspector of the district. Each student in the course of the term was assigned to several districts and thus to several inspectors. The students were made to summarize the findings of their investigations in different quarters of the city, together with comparative statistical tables and maps of their district. The findings were placed at the disposal of the municipal health department and were also put into the hands of the municipal city-planning commission to accompany a scheme privately projected for replanning of one of the areas inspected.
>
> Two other students studied tenement-house fires, making their inspections in company with municipal and metropolitan fire inspectors.

Other students made maps showing the distribution of new buildings in the city of Cambridge, or distribution of three-deckers and the like, which have subsequently been utilized by the Cambridge city-planning commission.

The amount of supervision required necessarily depends upon the subject at which the student works. I permit no housing surveys to be made except where there is a reasonable assurance that the findings of the investigation will be utilized for the advantage of the municipality. Often there is some private body interested in the investigation made which provides a certain amount of supervision. Municipal supervision is, of course, provided. In addition, I require students to report to me at frequent intervals.

The grade is given for this work precisely as for other thesis work within the department. The student, in filling out housing investigation cards, is acquiring material which must be summarized and submitted in the form of a thesis which is graded in the usual manner. Some allowance is made in grading the cards for neatness and for accuracy of the results obtained. The latter is checked up by reinvestigation of selected portions of the districts examined by students. But the grade of the student for his research is determined primarily by the report submitted. In addition, of course, there are tests upon prescribed reading and lectures of the course which are large factors in determining the grade of the course.

Several interesting points occur in this account. Supervision of field work is here exercised entirely by the city authorities through municipal sanitary or fire inspectors. The findings of the students are primarily for practical usefulness, and serve as information for various city departments and commissions. Frequent reports to the professor in charge are required. Actual credit is given for the work done, the grade being based on the character of the report submitted. The accuracy of results is checked by reinvestigation. In addition lectures are held and reading is required, upon which tests are given. The system thus outlined may well serve as a model, since it meets all the requirements of strict supervision, careful coordination, and useful cooperation with civic interests.

A somewhat different kind of field work is illustrated by the activities of students in the settlement house maintained by the department of sociology of Syracuse University. The second annual report of this organization brings out the following facts:

The university settlement is located in the center of the fifteenth ward of Syracuse, in the heart of the most densely populated section of the city. This neighborhood presents, on a modified scale, practically all of the elements of the slums of a greater city. The social work is under the direction and management of the department of sociology of Syracuse University. The greater part of the work is being done by students who are doing major work in sociology at the university. Under the supervision of these a large number of other students assist with the work.

In connection with this settlement, a training class for social workers is carried on at the university in which students receive two hours per week credit for the year, four hours' actual work per week in addition to readings being required. No remuneration is given student workers.

In the Syracuse plan as above outlined the university not only has full supervision of student workers, but even controls the facilities under which the work is done, thus differing materially from the Harvard system. In both, however, the students are rewarded by college credit.

Different again is the plan of field work carried out by students of the Cleveland school of education under the direction of Dr. Jean Dawson in the antifly campaign waged in that city last summer. These girls were selected by Dr. Dawson for their peculiar fitness for the work, after preparation in courses specifically designed for this purpose. While not legally appointed sanitary inspectors, they were granted a definite badge by the city department of public welfare and were backed in every way by the various departments of the city. Their work was to make a thorough investigation of the city, and so far as possible to eliminate all places where flies could breed, reporting to the proper authorities those persons who failed to comply with their directions. For this work each girl received a remuneration of $7 per week, but no credit was given in the normal school nor was any effort apparently made to coordinate this field work with any concurrent course of study. This plan furnishes a still further variant from those in use at Harvard and Syracuse.

The brief survey just given shows a variety of methods now in actual use in the conduct of field work in colleges and universities in one department only—that of sociology. While fairly representative of methods in general, those just detailed are capable of considerable variation to meet the demands of subject and surrounding conditions. Without going into a broader field, it is interesting to summarize the variations on the basis of the standards of comparison as already indicated:

1. Method of supervision:
   - *a.* By outside agencies (Pittsburgh, Harvard).
   - *b.* By the college department (Pennsylvania, Syracuse).
2. Means of testing results:
   - *a.* By personal conference (Pennsylvania).
   - *b.* By direct personal supervision (Syracuse, Cleveland).
   - *c.* By reinvestigation (Harvard).
   - *d.* By reports, tests, classwork (Harvard, Pittsburgh).
3. Plan of accrediting:
   - *a.* By giving college credit for field work alone (Pennsylvania).
   - *b.* By giving college credit for field work with classwork (Harvard).
   - *c.* By money remuneration with no college credit (Cleveland).

This all goes to show the utter lack of standardization in the realm of field work. It is quite possible that such standardization will never come; that it is not even desirable that it do come. Yet a conference of those under whose supervision such work is carried on would serve to eliminate much of the wide divergency in practice and to secure the universal adoption of certain desirable elements

and the elimination of undesirable ones. I should not, however, like to leave you to-day with the inference that all those attending such a meeting would be professors of sociology. The scope of field work, while not universal, is much broader than the limits of any one department. The following enumeration, which is far from complete, is at least typical of the various kinds of efforts now made:

Practice teaching in city high schools.
Work of cooperative engineering students in industries and city departments.
Church work and preaching (Brown University).
In New York business firms (New York University).
Municipal sanitary inspection (College of the City of New York and School for Public Health Officers conducted by Harvard and Massachusetts Institute of Technology).
School nursing in New York public schools and settlements (Teachers College of Columbia University).
Home economics in New York public-school lunchrooms (Teachers College).
Cooperative law courses with practical law-office work (Georgetown University).
Assistants to city chemist (Akron).
In city offices under bureau of municipal research (Akron).
In addition also a large number of miscellaneous investigative efforts in the departments of political science, economics, and sociology.

It would be unjust to leave this subject without a brief mention of appreciation of the constructive suggestions in regard to supervision of field work by the American Political Science Association as outlined in the preliminary report of its committee on practical training for public service, pages 339–352. Equally enlightening are the remarks of Prof. Jenks, of New York University, before the First National Conference on Universities and Public Service, as reported in the proceedings of that meeting. The following statements quoted from this speech seem to define the essential points of cooperative field work:

It is probable that there has been too great readiness heretofore for teachers in all universities to emphasize the plan of inspection too much and actual work too little. Moreover, this looking things over does not give real training to students. Also, care must be taken to get always a scientific background for all the practical work done. Especially is this true if we are giving training to our graduate students with the idea that they are to occupy later high places in the city administration. There is much danger of the helter-skelter practice and not enough thorough training and supervision.

The keynote of the paragraph just quoted is a warning against lower standards in field work than in laboratory, lecture, or recitation. The problem of increasing the efficiency of field work is one of the most vital questions with which this movement will have to deal.[1]

[1] At the business meeting the association framed a resolution to appoint a committee to make a full report on field work. President Kolbe is chairman of that committee. President Kolbe took occasion to convert a misstatement which he had made concerning Hunter College, of the City of New York, and which appeared in the bulletin reporting the proceedings of the first meeting. He had referred to this institution as "Normal College," and as a normal school. He acknowledged his mistake and characterized the institution as a college.

IV. RESULTS OF COOPERATIVE TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE.

RESULTS OF COOPERATION BY THE MUNICIPALITY AND THE UNIVERSITY IN TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE.

By Lemuel Herbert Murlin,

President of Boston University.

Hitherto the consciousness of obligation to public service in education has been confined wholly to the State institutions, but even here it has been neither well-defined nor compelling. The normal school has, in a measure, felt its obligations to public service in training efficient teachers and competent administrators of public-school education. The agricultural colleges, also, diligently applied themselves to all aspects of rural welfare. The State university, at first content to be much like most other educational institutions, its only difference being that it drew its support from the State treasury, now enters into every activity of the life of the State.

Only within very recent years have institutions in or near cities begun to sense the fact that they owe a particular duty to serve the city in all its various forms of life, and that, at the same time, the city provides a unique opportunity for educational equipment, method, training, and service.

Hitherto our American colleges and universities have been located for the most part in the country, meeting the conditions of a social age whose population was largely rural. The rapid growth of cities has changed economic conditions so completely and rapidly that adjustments have not been able to keep pace. Democracy is now put to its supreme tests. We are far from demonstrating that a people can be free, intelligent, social, disinterested, and patriotic enough to govern themselves; and the stressing problem of a democratic civilization is the city. If the university of the twentieth century is to have that place of leadership in our age held by our institutions of learning in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, it must, as did these, be located among the people, seeking to clear their vision, to gird them for new tasks, and to enrich and nourish their lives. The municipal university is, therefore, natural and inevitable; its rise marks an era in the development of American education second only to the founding of the public school in the eighteenth century and opening of the State university in the nineteenth century.

Reference has already been made to the great equipment which a city offers a university located within or near its borders. Indeed, the city in itself is a library and a laboratory of manifold learning,

literature, arts, and sciences; its libraries, factories, shops, offices, its vast commercial enterprises; its religious, moral, educational, social, philanthropic, and charitable undertakings; these the student may study at first hand in the very process of their making and onward movement; and he may have, in some small but important measure, a share in their actual development and conduct, thus uniting his thinking and doing, his learning and living, so important in efficient education.

It is rather early to enumerate results of such cooperation, much more so to evaluate. Many universities have been rendering a vast amount of public service without distinctly recognizing it as such. A few months ago the mayor of a certain city called together the heads of the various educational institutions in and about the city; he had just made the discovery that "The Municipality and the University," constituted a rather startling, interesting, and suggestive phrase which might have in it, if not political value, at least good publicity value. There was a cordial response to his invitation; he read an interesting essay which made good material for the newspapers, and they published it in full. The responses of the presidents indicated that almost all, and in some aspects even more than the mayor had pointed out as possible, was being done; and every educator present was alive to the possibilities suggested, and ready to cooperate to any practicable degree desired by the city. Nor is this an exceptional case. In all communities institutions have quietly gone on, doing their work, responding to special calls for expert advice and service, giving them freely and gladly, as a natural expression of their ordinary activity, without taking any special accounting and without giving such service any name.

But far more important than the immediately and obviously practical service of the urban university to the problems of the daily ongoing life of the city has been the general service which the university has rendered in the kind of men and women it has given to the community. It should be distinctly understood that though we give to the city efficient practical workers and efficient practical service, nevertheless our largest opportunity still is, and ever will be, that we give to the city a sturdy, strong, conscientious manhood and womanhood. We must ever keep before us the vision of an ideal manhood and womanhood as our most worthy and most distinct contribution to the welfare of the city and Nation.

Granting all this, even holding it as a fundamental principle, at the same time we can not fail to see that for a large number of students the city and its institutions afford the need and the material and the opportunity for special aims and methods in education. It is, then, the duty of the urban university to undertake a distinct type of educational service, with new kinds of equipment, new methods of instruction, and new forms of administration.

It is, however, altogether too soon to enumerate the results of direct cooperation between the university and the city. We have as yet but the faintest gleams of the possibilities opening before us here; moreover, what cooperation we now have is so recent that we can not measure results. We must wait at least a generation before we begin to tabulate and evaluate the significance of what we are only beginning to see, and of what we have only very slightly begun to use. But we may reasonably suggest a few probable results.

First of all, there is the influence which such cooperation will have upon the colleges and universities. Their instruction will be vivified by immediate pragmatic tests. The reality thus given to the work of the classroom or seminar will arouse professor and student to best endeavor. They understand they are not merely pretending; they are in the midst of the veritable storm and stress of life itself. Now, it is thinking through the problem and doing the definite thing, tested out, tried, and found to be true, that is necessary to make the truly educated man; and a pragmatic test, applied to the student by the foreman in the shop, by the consumer of his product, by the editor of the magazine, or by anyone dealing directly with the ongoing of the practical affairs of life, lends reality, definiteness, vividness, accuracy, and richness to the work done in the university. "My business organization is as much an educational institution as your university," said a successful manager of several large corporations to a college president. There is so much of truth in his statement that educators can no longer overlook the value that will come to both the college and the business organization by hearty cooperation between them in the educational program.

Cooperation in education by the university and the municipality should mean, in the second place, that we shall have scholastic results superior to those which we now have. It is notorious that, save for a very few, there is little of the scholastic habit among college students. The president of a college in good standing, writing the other day, gave two lines to matters scholastic, while all the rest of the full-paged letter was devoted to an account of athletic achievements and outlook, closing with the assurance that the prospects of his institution were very bright! Better, if we must choose, is that statement of a western State university president, who, in responding to a questionnaire on athletics, said:

> I fear I can not give you any helpful information from our institution; college athletics we do have, but not in the sense that your questionnaire implies; our boys are too busy solving the problems of the desert to have any time for the prevalent type of college athletics.

"Solving the problems of the desert!" Their institution was located in the heart of that region which once appeared on the maps of American school geographies as "The Great American Desert." Ah! how numerous are the problems of civilization in the city, in the

village, in the country, in the Nation! Look at our economic, social, educational, religious situation. It is a desert, challenging the best of heart and intellect for the solution of its problems.

We must be on guard, however, against the serious danger of the present tendency in education to meet the demand for so-called practical efficiency. Too often it means only industrial, material, mechanical efficiency. The following note of warning from the St. Louis Post-Dispatch finds much in our present tendency in education to justify itself:

"Efficiency is 90 per cent" says a solemn bore who presides over a boiler factory full of men. Inside a boiler factory; yes, efficiency ought to be 90 per cent, and if possible 100 per cent of a man. But the inside factory point of view is prevailing too popularly outside. Wouldn't this be a dreary world if men were 100 per cent efficient and mere substitutes for machinery? Shall we have donkey engines conversing in the parlor and steam cranes in the pulpit? The whole human works would consist of interchangeable parts; we should have a standard type of man, and life would be literally a grind. The galley slave chained to the oar was a fair sample of 100 per cent efficiency. The man in the treadmill was likewise going some from the efficiency standpoint.

The ancient Greeks had standards of personal excellence and social worth which deserve meditation when our modern poise is threatened. The composite of these standards has rarely been attained, but he is a beautiful model. Olios represented wealth with grace, opulence, elegance, generosity, philanthropy, altruism—thus wealth the antithesis of plutocratic. Arete stood for what these times worship as efficiency; that is, capability, capacity, executive. Aidos was becoming ideal, a quality the precise opposite of "cheek." Sophrosyne elevated confidence and self-control. Kalokagathie fused into a single concept many notions of economic, esthetic, and moral good; and Eleutheros was the gentleman endowed with all admirable qualities—the noble rara avis whom our single aim of efficiency would slay and forget.

True the Greeks, as a historian has remarked, proved that people could sink very low while talking very high. But there is scarcely enough tall talk in our times to indicate our bare possession of ideals—the talk is mostly low-pitched, lumps men as a commercial asset, and lacks in sheer humanity as it does in grace and rhetoric. The world needs another education in the "humanities" such as it received in the Renaissance.

The question of its ideal man-as-he-should-be is the most vital, most fundamental, which concerns any organized society. It is for us of this day to consider: To what doom points a spirit of brutal crassness to which the nobler feelings and refinements are foreign? Shall we humans develop through survivals of the most efficient to become just units in a boiler factory world?

Happily, however, we do not have to descend to this crass standard of efficiency. We do not have to choose as between cultural education and vocational education. We may have both! It is a question of viewpoint and method during the educational process. A man's business in life ought to be a never-ending educational process in highest values; and he should be so educated as to see himself and his life work as a part of an ever-developing civilization whose chief concern, whose very life, depends upon the training and the use of the finer qualities of manhood and womanhood.

In the third place, cooperation between the university and the city in educational endeavor ought to result in a better citizenship. It will be a more intelligent citizenship, for the student's interest and initiative have been aroused to a purpose for nothing less than definiteness and accuracy in achievement. This practical experience in doing and learning in the city university and in the city's business, its industries and common welfare, will awaken in the student a sense of pride in the city that gave him his opportunity for gaining knowledge, and for the training and preparation which has fitted him for his life work. The experience will also awaken in him a sense of his obligation "to make good" in life by the service which he gives back to the city.

Then will we have citizens with a strong community consciousness; the very air they have breathed throughout their lives from primary school to university graduation has been that of men who see themselves as individuals and as integral parts of the whole community. No one of them can run his private business, not even his own home, as if he were the only one who is concerned; he sees at once that his own highest welfare is bound up in the welfare of his neighbors, and of all others whose industrial lives, as his, go to make the city.

In the best-governed city in the world there are 6,000 private citizens serving in unsalaried positions on committees or commissions, giving four to ten hours per week to the service of their city. They are lawyers, doctors, merchants, manufacturers, ministers, teachers, tradesmen, laboring men, each and all freely contributing their share to the common welfare. In such service they find their highest and best selves; they give to the city those fine qualities of personal character which unselfish service always develops in individuals. The city, after all, in its spirit and ideals, is but the average of the spirit and ideals of its individuals.

Let us hope that, along with engineers, doctors, ministers, educators, financiers, business administrators, and all other expert service required in our modern life, one of the first results—as it is the one most needed—of cooperation between the university and the city will be a still larger number of that type of good citizens who stand up and say "I am a citizen of no mean city," and by the quality and character of their own lives and the efficiency and sincerity of their voluntary service to the city have made it great and strong and beautiful in all the things that make for human betterment.

COOPERATION BETWEEN THE BUSINESS MEN OF NEW ORLEANS AND THE COLLEGE OF COMMERCE AND BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION OF THE TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA.

By Morton A. Aldrich,

Dean of the College of Commerce and Business Administration, Tulane University of Louisiana.

The business men of New Orleans realize the responsibility of their position at the gateway. Quietly and efficiently they are preparing to serve the growing commerce of the Mississippi Valley, and one of the responsibilities which they feel is that of providing adequate training for the young men who are preparing for a business career.

When a few representative New Orleans business men made up their minds that their city should have a college of commerce they found three groups of people to which they could turn for help. First, there was the city's organization of business men, the Association of Commerce; secondly, there was Tulane University; and, thirdly, there were those individual business men who were especially interested in the establishment of mature business education. Their problem was to mobilize and combine these forces. There was nothing unusual or peculiar to New Orleans, you see, either in the problem or the situation.

From the outset it was clearly understood that the college of commerce and business administration is one of the professional schools of Tulane University, and that the university has complete and undivided control of its appointments, of its policy and standards, and of its educational bill of fare.

But it was the ideal of those who took the lead in this movement that a truly substantial and adequate foundation for a college of commerce must include the active interest and support, not only of the university, but of every one of these three groups, and, moreover, that this support should be so organized that in each case the interest would be permanent.

Especially was it desirable that the individual business men who contributed money to the college should be organized in some way so that they would not feel that their responsibility ceased with the signing of a check. In all this cooperation it was not merely money that we were seeking, but solid, active, day-by-day interest, and helpful suggestions and support.

The business men of Germany have come to think of their colleges of commerce as an essential part of their commercial development. And in an American city a college of commerce can accomplish only a very little of what it might otherwise do to help unless the business men come to think of it, as they think of their exchanges and their

railroads and their banks, as a natural and essential part of the city's business equipment and business life. We set out, therefore, to hook up with the college the interest of the business community. The result is that our college of commerce is to-day in the happy situation of having three parents solicitous for its welfare instead of one.

How is this cooperation between the business men and the college of commerce worked? What does the Association of Commerce do? On the material side, it provides ample quarters in its own building for the night courses which the college offers for business men and women (in addition to its four-year day course in the college buildings) and for the public informal Friday night talks. Furthermore, it advertises the college of commerce much as it advertises any other department of its work.

Another valuable result of the close connection between the college and the Association of Commerce is that more of the older members of the association and more of the members of its vigorous young men's department enroll in the business men's night courses of the college. There is no doubt that young business men are more likely to attend the courses of a college of commerce which is associated in their minds with the commercial organization of the older business men and has, therefore, an atmosphere of the right sort.

The public weekly informal Friday night talks of the college of commerce are plain business talks by business men on business subjects. They are short; they are informal; they are always followed by questioning and discussion; and they are largely attended by business men. One welcome result of these informal Friday night talks is that they bring the college to the attention of a large number of business men whom it would be difficult to reach in any other way. These talks are held under the joint auspices of the college and the Association of Commerce, with the result that we are developing in New Orleans, instead of occasional business talks at irregular intervals and at unexpected places, one strong business forum, to the success of which the Association of Commerce and its young men's branch, the college of commerce, and the business community generally unitedly contribute.

So much as to the cooperation of the Association of Commerce; let us turn to the cooperation of the individual citizens and business men. At the outset 104 of them combined to guarantee the expenses of the college. But the college needed from these business men their personal service as well as their money, and the danger was, as I have said, that they would feel that their responsibility, the need of their understanding of the work, and their possibilities of helpfulness to the college all ended with their signing of the guaranty.

One of the wisest and most far-reaching steps in the permanent coordination of all the groups interested in providing training preparing for a business career was the action of the board of administrators of Tulane University in requesting the members of this board of guarantors to elect officers and an executive committee and form a permanent organization, in order to make it possible to confer with them in regard to matters affecting the success of the college.

Not only do the officers and executive committee meet monthly to hear detailed reports of the work of the college and to lay plans for its future growth, but individually they and the other members of this board of guarantors stand ready to contribute their thought and time unselfishly, in all sorts of ways, to extend the usefulness of the college.

The professors of the college of commerce are in close association with the members of this board of guarantors and turn to them constantly for the results of their practical experience and for assistance and advice, and it is a great advantage to the teacher (and to his students) to be able to consult freely with business men who already are interested in helping the college and understand its work.

To cite one other evidence of their spirit, these business men guarantors soon realized that a main reason why more young men already in business were not attending our night classes was because their employers, in many cases, did not show them that they recognized the value of the work. The guarantors understood that if this business training is valuable for the students whom we had, it is equally valuable for ten times as many more. Consequently, they have set to work to talk with these employers, with the result that more and more the heads of our business houses and banks are advising their employees to attend the night classes, and frequently are offering to pay part or all of their tuition fees.

REED COLLEGE AND ITS COMMUNITY.

By WILLIAM T. FOSTER, LL. D.,

President of Reed College, Portland, Oreg.

Reed College is a small college, only four years old. It has started out in new fields. Its work is, therefore, largely tentative; the most it has to present is a suggestion here and there, and large hopes for the future.

For the instruction of college students who are later to take their places as citizens, indifferent or energetic, our methods should be those which, at the same time, will educate the adult population with respect to civic duties. A few such methods have been tried at Reed College.

We take our students in economics, government, education, psychology, and sociology out into the city, after their introductory courses in these fields, to find out what is actually going on in the laboratories of the city, in the health department, in the purchasing agent's office, in the police, fire, and finance departments, in the city employment agency, the tax bureau, the schools, and so on. The students have individual problems of investigation to carry on under the guidance of members of the faculty and at times with the faculty.

Much of the information thus assembled concerning the form and operation of the government of the city of Portland we arranged in a series of lectures, and the class in statistics, as laboratory work, endeavored to find means of graphically presenting the facts so as to make their meaning unmistakable and of interest to large numbers of citizens.

We thus got together about five hundred illustrations for a series of six lectures on "The Voter and His City." We then proceeded to try them on the voters. At the conclusion of each lecture we conducted discussions, partly to find out whether the lecture was understood, what pertinent questions remained unanswered, and how the practical value of the course might be increased. Our endeavor was, you see, to get before as many voters as possible nonpartisan, accurate, up-to-date, interesting, and immediately usable information about every aspect of the city government. Thus, for example, we explained how the new preferential voting system works, to what extent the city purchasing department saves money, the need of a campaign against the smoke nuisance, some of the mysteries of budget making, some of the wastes of the city administration, housing conditions, defects of the housing code, and the need of playground supervision. We treated 40 other topics without gloves, our sole purpose being to get information before the people.

When anybody objected to any statement, we asked, "Is it true?" If he could show that it was not true, we changed it; but, as a rule, the objection was merely that to make known these facts caused trouble. We replied that it is the business of a college to cause this kind of trouble.

It is gratifying to us that some unpleasant things which were true when we started that series of lectures are not true to-day. We had to change the lectures from time to time.

We have given the series in 15 different places, with a total attendance thus far of 3,740. Not only did our undergraduates prepare material for the lectures, but two students presented the course to all the classes in civil government in all the public schools in the city.

One of our faculty helped to organize and presided at the first meeting of a nonpartisan committee of 100 citizens, which recom-

mended to the voters the men who were elected commissioners under the new city charter. That was the beginning of our cooperation with city officers. Our students and our faculty have been prominent in the movement for woman suffrage and for the extension of popular government; and a large number of our students, at least half of them, I think, and at least half of our faculty, were prominent in the campaign for the prohibition of the liquor traffic. Regardless of the merits of the question, this is indicative of what an institution can do if it is free from entangling alliances, independent of votes of city or State officers, and unhampered by traditional ideas of what a college should not do.

The mayor called upon the college to take charge of an investigation of public amusements in Portland. The students and faculty, with the aid of 40 other men and women, investigated the motion-picture and vaudeville houses of the city and published the results. Their recommendations were used in making new laws on the subject in various cities.

The college aided in the organization of the Oregon Civic League. One of our faculty was its first president. The college also works with the new Chamber of Commerce, an organization of 3,500 men. One of the faculty is in charge of the committee on city planning and the committee on city schools. Another professor is aiding the chamber in an industrial survey of Oregon. The college and the chamber of commerce work together with mutual advantage. The same is true of all the libraries. Every one of them is as valuable a part of the Reed College equipment as if it were on our own campus.

In four years the number of individual attendants at extension-course lectures has increased from 3,000 to 15,000.

Our campus itself and our gymnasium and athletic field are put under the direction of the city department of parks and playgrounds as a free municipal playground all summer.

Another illustration of field work for the welfare of citizens and for the training of students who may at some time hold public office is in the field of social hygiene. In cooperation with a large number of citizens, students and faculty members conduct lectures and conferences and carry on a State-wide campaign. One of our faculty is president of the organization in charge of the work; one of our students is the executive secretary. We conducted an extension course for the preparation of workers in this field which was attended by 120 men and women. We published 705,000 circulars on 20 subjects. Besides giving lectures in 70 towns and cities, we prepared an exhibit which we have sent about the States and have shown to 118,000 people. We have maintained an advisory

department, with a physician in charge. He has corresponded with 1,400 people in special need, and at his office 3,600 have called for help. We have obtained the cooperation of 57 business houses in the city which have been sufficiently impressed with the value of this service to give their employees company time in order that they might profit by our instruction.

Another branch of this work was the campaign against fake doctors and medical concerns, whose sole object is to get money from people whether they are diseased or not. Our first object was to cut off their means of circulating false information. This we did through the elimination of all such advertisements from the State of Oregon. It meant a great loss of revenue to the newspapers, yet they gave us their unqualified support.

Field work is necessary for students themselves; it gives them vital contact with the community; it is not purely academic. Second, it is necessary for the faculty, in order that they will not become "typical college professors." The traditional professor is said to be academic, impractical, uninteresting, completely lost when thrown into close contact with human beings outside the classroom or laboratory. He needs to know more of the world in order that his instruction may become vitalized.

Finally, such field work is necessary for the curriculum. There is something flabby, indeed almost immoral, about the teaching of ethics and sociology and government which issues into no grappling with immediate needs. Both teachers and students should appreciate actual conditions and should have immediate opportunity to act in response to emotions which they experience as a result of investigation or instruction.

It is partly because students have not had this vital training in college days that so many of them appear after graduation indifferent to the duties of a citizen. Often you can get better support for a program of municipal betterment from people who have not had a university education. That is a serious fact. The gentleman from Pittsburgh has rightly said that we must begin from the bottom with a new sort of education. We must offer new opportunities and create a new sense of civic responsibility in our schools and colleges if we are to create an effective demand for trained, devoted, and honest public servants in every branch of municipal affairs. Meantime, we must continue to strive for vital and continuous cooperation between the university and the municipality.

RESULTS OF COOPERATIVE TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE AT THE COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

By SIDNEY EDWARD MEZES,
President of the College of the City of New York.

We give cooperative instruction not only in order to train men to enter the service of the city, but also to improve the efficiency of those already in the service; we attempt to carry out investigations of a scientific character which will give dependable results, upon which city officials, and, incidentally, business men, may rely in conducting the enterprises in their charge; and our more experienced men are available as members of boards, commissions, and committees which are deliberating concerning the best method of conducting large undertakings.

Our college of arts and sciences is conducted both by day and by night. The standards of admission and graduation for day session and evening session are the same. We also have teachers' extension courses to give professional and cultural work to those in the city school system. Then there is a division of vocational subjects and civic administration, offering courses primarily for city employees in the college buildings and in the Municipal Building during afternoon and evening hours.

In the regular college course the cooperative work that comes first to mind is that connected with the chemistry department. The central testing laboratory of the city sends officially tested samples of materials which are to be purchased by the city to our instructor in municipal chemistry. He has his class perform the tests and checks their results by the official report. Students in this course are taken on inspection and observation trips to the city's laboratory, and they receive lectures from time to time from the directors of the laboratory and other municipal experts. There is a similar cooperative arrangement for courses in food inspection and analysis and municipal sanitation. Students preparing to enter the city education system as teachers in the grammar or high schools do practice teaching or pupil-teaching service in the system. These examples will show the general way in which undergraduates of the college are benefited by cooperation with city departments.

Now we turn to instruction of those already in the service. The largest single group of city employees improved by the college are the teachers, and in connection with courses provided for them it has been found necessary, in view of the large size and the generous spread of the City of New York, to have instruction not merely at the seat of the institution, but also at other centers in Manhattan and the other four boroughs of the city.

There are in attendance upon these particular courses which train or improve the training of the teachers in the public schools of the

city at present over 5,000 teachers, and we think that is a service well worth rendering. The personnel of this student body changes from year to year, and it is safe to say that at a given time we have enough teachers in the service who have received our instruction to have contact, indirectly, with over 1,000,000 children, and we are to that extent helping those 1,000,000 children.

City employees in all of the other departments and those in the service of the State and Nation have the resources of the college placed at their disposal in a rather novel way. By virtue of their positions they are admitted to any course offered in the college which they are qualified to pursue. The general entrance requirements are waived. While such students are not candidates for degrees, they nevertheless receive much help from the courses. The effect of admitting these mature students with very definite and practical reasons for taking up studies has been most beneficial. In some cases the rather formal academic methods were modified and fresh ability and a new point of view were brought to the courses.

Special extra-curricula courses to meet the vocational needs of men in certain city departments were also established. There is the course in technical electricity, of especial interest to men in the department of water supply, gas, and electricity, and water-supply engineering for those in the same department or the board of water supply. Some of such special courses, as well as sections from the regular courses of study, were established in the Municipal Building, the governmental center of the City of New York. In giving these courses New York University cooperates with us. They are designed to meet the needs of three classes of employees.

First, there are those who are interested or occupied in engineering enterprises. New York City, like every large city, has a great deal of engineering work to do, and courses such as water-supply engineering, construction inspection, reinforced concrete construction, electrical engineering, draftsmanship of all kinds, engineering design, theory of stresses, and any matters of that general kind enable employees in engineering departments of the city government to become more efficient in doing their work and in serving the city. Then there is a large clerical business force engaged in the city, and members of it who wish appropriate instruction may take up English, accounting, economics, government, and allied studies. Those who are engaged in the great social services have courses in philanthropy, sociology, and various aspects of social work. Of course a great many of them have come into the service with a technical and legal rather than a broad social understanding and training for the work which they are to do. The courses tend to broaden them and render them more liberal and sympathetic in their dealings with the people.

There is also a certain number of elementary courses in the languages—Italian, for instance, and Spanish, and German, and Yiddish. The reason for giving these language courses to city employees is that many are inspectors employed to deal with the large foreign population of New York City. These courses make possible a means of communication between recent immigrants and the inspectors. We now instruct 270 city employees in the Municipal Building and over 300 in the main college buildings. This group of 600, together with the 5,000 teachers, makes a very respectable body of municipal students. And the body will grow.

We turn to an activity in another direction—namely, cooperation with business men. The evening session, as would be expected, is largely attended by business men, and these comprise engineers, lawyers, doctors, as well as men working in banks, in business establishments in stores—all sorts and conditions of men who are actually engaged or employed during the daytime. But the course which has just been instituted and which is intended for them specifically, and which is being carried on in the customs house with the cooperation of business men, is one on foreign markets. In a large exporting center like New York, obviously this is a very important thing. Certain business associations are cooperating with that course. They have joined together and have formed an advisory committee to aid the instructor in charge of the course. The course has to deal very practically with the subject of foreign markets.

The college also benefits persons employed by the city in laboratories. A few of them are given instruction so as to improve their technique in the matter of testing the city's supplies. They are as yet but a handful, but the course is prophetic, because it indicates that later on other men who may be engaged in this work for the city will not be asked to come out to the institution itself, but will have competent teachers come to them in their offices and workshops to give them the instruction necessary to increase their value to the city.

Another form of scientific cooperation is found in the psychological laboratory, or educational clinic. There are in all school systems children who do not get on. They are backward, or deficient, or unruly, and it is necessary that they be submitted to a very careful test to determine what is the matter with them. Of these children quite a number have to be dealt with by the courts of the city under certain circumstances, and the first thing to determine is whether they are responsible or irresponsible. For this purpose they are sent to our educational clinic to be examined mentally. If they are irresponsible they are sent to certain custodial institutions. If they are still irresponsible they are sent to truant schools. Obviously the number of examinations is great. For two or three days

in the week there is a steady stream of children going through the clinic and being carefuly tested, and the cases are handled by experts who determine how best each child shall be treated. Incidentally much scientific information is gathered which is helpful to the schools of the city in dealing with their scholars.

There is also a survey which has been undertaken with a view of studying and deciding what kinds of further training are needed by the different groups of city employees. The city departments are cooperating most helpfully with the authorities of the college, and a small sum to finance this investigation has been appropriated. The departments of the city have been visited, with the cooperation of the heads of these departments, in order to find out just how the various employees of the city can be aided to become more efficient and give more to the city in return for the money that the city pays them. It is partly as a result of this that some of the courses I have mentioned have been already decided upon. We have, furthermore, a continuing investigation by men who are employed to keep these courses in touch with the needs as they ascertain these needs progressively of the various groups of city employees, so that courses and types of training will never be much out of touch with real, existing needs.

Finally, our men have served on such commissions, for instance, as that on occupational disease. The board of health is constantly in cooperation with and is receiving advice from our men in chemistry, from our men in biology, and from our men in hygiene.

There was an investigation of mental deficiency and as to the best method of caring for the 1,750 defectives on Randalls Island, whose care has not been carried on, as was generally thought, quite as well as it might have been. One of the professors of the City College was on that commission. As a result of its recommendations some $600,000 was appropriated by the State to insure better attention to these unfortunates and to improve their surroundings.

Another board on which the college is represented is that which has charge of the factory inspection undertaken by the City of New York. All the factories were inspected to discover conditions existing in them, the nature of employment, and various problems of that kind. A report was published, which has been very helpful to us, and which will doubtless be helpful in other places.

Now, this very brief and very dry account will possibly give some notion of the types of cooperation under way. Only a beginning has been made. We do not go, for instance, as far as your local university goes in a number of directions. We do not go as far as we should in the training of many different groups of city employees. The city employee in New York has to come in contact with

very aggravated social conditions, and to try to better the environment of people who live in congested districts, in the way of housing facilities, sanitation, living facilities, food, and various other details of environment, all these men must be trained; they need the social spirit, a larger altruism, and a keener appreciation of neighborliness, and of civic obligation.

Moreover, a city government is only as good as public opinion will allow it to be. If the general mass or run of the citizens are not men with considerable information, with a large public spirit, with a vision of the future, with some notion of the significance of the latter-day municipal spirit, the government of the city can not be expected to rise very high above those people whom it governs.

So there is a large responsibility on the part of urban universities for disseminating information, for giving inspiration, for broadening the views, and lengthening the vision of the whole population, all of which can be done, and will be done more and more, as time goes on, by municipal institutions.

COOPERATIVE TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE IN NEW YORK CITY.

By HENRY MOSKOWITZ,

President of the Civil Service Commission, New York City.

The Municipal Civil Service Commission is deeply interested in recruiting trained public servants for the government of the city. It makes a considerable difference in the type of candidate if he has been trained in a cram school or in an institution with high educational ideals. When one considers such a service as the city of New York, with its 55,570 classified employees under the jurisdiction of the commission, with 21,631 applicants for positions in the competitive service in the past nine months, small wonder that a large number of schools have grown up under private auspices which prepare these candidates and which do a flourishing business. Some of these schools have high standards, but many are animated purely by business considerations and can be characterized as cram-factories. That many thrive is an indictment against our public educational system. If public schools and particularly high schools and colleges were alive to their responsibility they would, without sacrificing their educational ideals, equip public servants by supplying them with the necessary training for positions. These private schools meet a need which the public institutions have until very recently neglected.

But the civil-service problem is not restricted to examination of candidates before they enter the service. A vast and neglected field of civil-service administration relates to the galvanizing of the serv-

ice after an employee has entered it. The civil-service law of the State of New York, which provides for promotion examinations wherever practicable, is typical of nearly every civil-service law in the country. This provision is necessary to insure that dignified and honorable career in the public service of which President Eliot has spoken. It is necessary to offer to those in the service a goal for their ambitions, a step-by-step advancement which means not only increased salaries but increased responsibilities, after an employee has demonstrated both by his record and by his examination that he has qualified for them. It is therefore proper that training for the public service should meet not only the needs of the city for original entrance but for promotion as well.

New York City, recognizing this need, has cooperated with New York University and the College of the City of New York in a scheme of offering courses to city employees at a very nominal fee, which aim to equip them for the higher positions. They consist not only of general theoretical training, but of practical work based upon the duties of the various positions. Many of them are given in the Municipal Building. The government of the city has set apart certain rooms in the building for lecture purposes. Fifty-one such courses have been offered. They cover a very large field, from engineering English to philanthropy, the higher mathematics, such as algebra, plane geometry, solid geometry, trigonometry for engineering, engineering drawing, elementary surveying, advanced surveying, mechanics, nomographic charting, elementary structural detailing, elementary steel design, advanced structural design, masonry design and construction, reinforced concrete design and construction, materials of construction and construction inspection, production and use of engineering materials, water-supply engineering, sewerage and sewage disposal, highway engineering, engineering estimates and costs, engineering features of municipal contracts, technical electricity in laboratory Saturday afternoons, and advanced electricity. These courses are obviously designed to train employees in the engineering service. Some of the courses for those engaged in secretarial duties are as follows: English composition, advanced English composition, secretarial duties, advanced stenography, and stenotype. The accounting service is a very important one in our complex municipal government. Therefore, courses are offered in statistics, bookkeeping practice, principles of accounting, accounting practice, fund accounting, expenditure and revenue accounting, and cost accounting. There is also a course in the government of the city of New York and in the municipal functions of the city. There are courses in public speaking, Italian, French, German, Yiddish, German reports, economics, municipal sociology and philanthropy.

The fees are nominal. The lowest is $5 and the highest is $20. Where the greatest sum is asked, not less than 60 hours and up to 150 are given. The courses were carefully thought out. In the language of the mayor, "The courses were carefully considered not only by the committee in charge but by the advisory committees, consisting of those technically qualified to suggest desirable lines of instruction in engineering and clerical subjects." The mayor requested his department heads to call the attention of employees to these courses and to seek their cooperation. Last year a few courses were given and have proved successful, and this year the elaborate plan outlined by a committee of commissioners and educational experts will be carried out if a sufficient number of employees are interested.

This is a significant scheme for public training. It is significant from the educational point of view because it is a practical application of the pregnant truth that education is a preparation for life. While the foundations for education are laid in the elementary school and the educators may differ as to vocational training even in the high schools, no progressive educators to-day reject the conception that the colleges and the universities must train for a life career. The life-career motive in education is beginning to receive the adequate consideration it deserves. The vocational motive in education has sometimes been interpreted in terms of manual training or of trade education, but if it is expressed in terms of a life work then the vocational conception of education assumes a richer meaning. The life-career motive gives to education a definiteness of end which very materially affects the methods of education.

But there is an added reason for a life-career motive in education to-day, because industrialism, and its child, the modern industrial city, exacts specialization. So great is the need of specialization to-day that many of the vocations have become highly specialized. Specialization makes for efficiency and for that perfection of service in the narrow field which is deemed essential. We need trained specialists in the public service and, assuming a broad educational foundation, these specialists should be trained early enough to prevent waste of energy and to take cognizance of the economic needs of the students. This consideration is especially important for urban universities. A university or a college which is supported by the city attracts students from the middle classes, many of whom come from the homes of artisans and workpeople. The student body of the College of the City of New York, for example, does not consist of scions of the rich, but of young men who are sent there by their parents at great sacrifice. These young men can not afford to indulge in a purely liberal education too long. They must

see some vocational goal in view. The College of the City of New York has trained many teachers who are now serving in the public schools of the city. If the college did not provide this life-career motive for a great many of the students, some of the very best graduates would not have been able to enjoy the privileges of the college. The practical courses which the college is giving will enable more students to prepare themselves for other careers than teachers. The city will be able to recruit many of these highly intelligent and serious-minded students who will be able to start a life career by earning enough as a result of their college education. They can not afford to indulge themselves in the luxury of a social college career; they are compelled to be earnest by their economic necessities. Therefore, it is peculiarly fitting that the urban universities and colleges supported by the people should offer the students an opportunity for sound theoretical and practical training. The urban universities, therefore, have an opportunity for training leaders in democracy; they can attract the serious bodies of students who can not afford to pay even the small tuition of an average private institution. They live near their schools and are thus relieved of the added expense of board and lodging. Many of the more gifted young men from the poor classes are thus enabled to take advantage of a college education.

The urban universities become in the truest sense of that term training colleges for leaders in a democracy, for they offer equal opportunities to the gifted sons of the people to equip themselves for such leadership. There is a growing need for trained public servants in the Government, for the modern industrial city has created a condition of interdependence which makes the individual dependent upon the action of the State for many of the most essential conditions of living. The industrial city is an organic fact which has led to an organic conception of life. Imagine the helplessness of a tenement dweller if a city government did not have a division of food inspection to inspect the milk which he buys, or a tenement department to inspect the sanitary conditions of the houses he must live in. These essential conditions of life can only be socially controlled; therefore, government has become more and more socialized, as a result of which the city government and city departments have expanded their functions and have become a positive instrument for social welfare. The city now provides for many of the social conditions of life which were heretofore the concern of private individuals or private groups. The city, therefore, needs trained social servants.

A progressive government like the city of New York requires social investigators in the charity departments, playground attendants in the park department, probation officers in the courts, attend-

ance officers in the schools, tenements inspectors in the tenement house department, etc. Therefore, with the growing socializing of government new opportunities are offered for trained public servants and the urban universities are equipped both in plant, in their teaching staff, and in the education ideals which animate them to provide such trained public servants. They are the natural cooperators with city departments for apprenticeship during their educational training. The city university becomes the symbol of our modern civilization.

V. SUPPLEMENTARY REPORTS OF TYPICAL URBAN UNIVERSITIES.

Some of the charter members filed reports of their cooperative work last year and these reports were printed in Bulletin, 1915, No. 38. New members and those who were not represented the last time were invited to send accounts of their work for this publication. Opportunity was also given for a modification of the first descriptions, to bring them up to date. The following are the responses received.

MUNICIPAL UNIVERSITY OF AKRON.

By PARKE R. KOLBE, President.

The report of last year may be supplemented with the statement that we are further developing various forms of cooperation with the city departments.

The city's testing work is carried on entirely in the laboratories of the university, under the direction of a department called the bureau of city tests. Here is done the chemical testing of supplies purchased by various departments, bacteriological testing for the board of health and local physicians, and physical testing of paving brick, cement, etc.

The department of political science and sociology is cooperating with the board of health and the charity organization society in using students as workers and investigators in the city; also with the bureau of municipal research in the study of city departments. One of the fields now in prospect is that of training for public service. It is hoped eventually to establish a cooperative course for this purpose in connection with the department of political science, the engineering college, and the bureau of municipal research.

A step in advance has been taken by the establishment of a combination course in cooperation with the board of education, between the university and the city normal school for the training of teachers. Graduates of this course will receive preference in appointment to positions in the city school system.

Akron, being the center of the rubber industry, offers opportunity for specialization in the chemistry of rubber at the municipal university, which possesses the only fully equipped college laboratory for this purpose in the country.

The college of engineering is cooperating with nearly a dozen factories of the city where its students work in alternating two-week periods, also with various contracting firms and railroads. The college has also been active in the investigation of paving conditions in the city and has published a detailed report on the subject at the request of the city council.

Extension work is being carried on by means of a course of lectures offered by the university faculty to a number of clubs and organizations in the city. Late afternoon and evening classes have recently been organized and offer the opportunity for college work to teachers, employed persons, and citizens in general.

BROWN UNIVERSITY, PROVIDENCE, R. I.

By JAMES Q. DEALEY,

Professor of Social and Political Science.

Brown University is a private institution and derives no part of its income from municipal or State appropriations. Aside from the Rhode Island State College, at Kingston, there is no other institution of higher training in Rhode Island. The university, having a history of 150 years, has profoundly affected the State through its many alumni prominent in economic and civic life and through the natural influence exerted during these years by the members of its faculty on the community.

Within the past 25 years the university has to some extent laid stress on the policy of direct community service, and has slowly built up a series of connections between the institution and the city and State. At first this activity took the form of extension lectures given anywhere within the State; at present these are offered at special times on the campus, primarily to teachers, but in fact to all who care to register.

For 20 years a close connection has existed between the education department of the university and the public-school system. Students trained in educational courses are welcomed as visitors to classes

in the public schools, and selected persons are chosen to serve as "pupil teachers" on half-time service with pay while completing courses for the master's degree. A limited number of recommended students who are preparing to become teachers may, by special arrangement, receive at State expense tuition scholarships while they are candidates for advanced degrees. In addition may be mentioned an annual meeting on the campus of a teachers' association made up chiefly of those in the State or vicinity who are interested in the problems arising from the relations of the university to secondary education.

Through the department of social science, students are brought in contact with the various philanthropic agencies of Providence and assist in their work or in making special surveys of social conditions. These surveys regularly have in mind some concrete practical problem, and have been helpful in formulating plans for social betterment. In political science, students have acquired practical knowledge in two ways: (1) Classes have been organized into conventions for the purpose of preparing a city charter or a State constitution, and (2) picked students have cooperated with the State legislative reference bureau in the study of current legislation or with city departments in respect to municipal questions. The economic department in a similar way uses its students in the investigation of local and State civic economic studies. The department of biblical literature cooperates with religious agencies for the better training of Sunday-school teachers, in maintaining lecture courses on biblical topics, and by offering courses a ming to prepare for churches social workers and educational directors.

A great field of cooperation exists between the city and State and the several departments of science. The department of biology studies the conditions of the State shellfish industries and fisheries, so as to conserve and build up these important sources of food supply. Its study in respect to the rearing of young lobsters, for example, has built up the Nation's supply of this important source of food. Through its bacteriological experts, also, it is in close touch with the health and milk departments in the State. The botanical department is in close touch with the botanical work of the public schools. The National Government has a forestry laboratory on the campus, so that an interest is developed in civic demands for information regarding shade trees, tree surgery, and reforestation, and departmental studies of the diseases of trees are done under the direction of the division of forest pathology of the United States Department of Agriculture. The geological department assists in studies of soil and geologic surveys, and its head is chairman of a State commission on the conservation of natural resources. The astronomic department furnishes official time to the entire city and at frequent stated

intervals entertains at the observatory classes from the public schools. The engineering departments, electric, mechanical, and civil, maintain intimate relations of cooperation with kindred activities in city and State, and frequent conferences are held on the campus and addresses given to students in these branches by practical engineers. There are many other forms of cooperation that might be emphasized, such as the cooperation of the art department with the Rhode Island School of Design; the department of chemistry with the State college and with the textile industries of the State, or the many ways in which organizations of students cooperate with similar organizations in the city or State.

As already indicated, most of this activity has developed within the last 25 years. The amount of it is steadily increasing, as mutual needs arise and a cooperative interest develops. This growth in the cooperative spirit has come about almost unconsciously under the spirit of the times, and illustrates the inevitability of mutual relationships between a university with a civic spirit and a growing community in need of expert information and suggestion. Last spring this relationship was recognized by the appointment by the faculty, at the suggestion of President Faunce, of a committee on the relations of Brown University to the community. It is expected that this committee will systematize, unify, and enlarge the extramural work of the university so as to make it more effective.

UNIVERSITY OF DENVER, DENVER, COLO.

By GEORGE A. WARFIELD,

Dean of the School of Commerce.

Because of unusually close relations with the intellectual, social, and business life of the city the University of Denver is referred to as Denver's Municipal University.

The extension college serves especially the teachers of the public schools. Dr. Daniel E. Phillips taught the first class 18 years ago. The next year he had a faculty of three. Now a corps of a dozen or more teachers hold classes on Saturdays and on such afternoons and evenings as suit the largest number of students. This work is not confined to teachers, but business men and women, pastors, and serious-minded people of all occupations, attend in large numbers. More than 1,000 different teachers have attended these classes; 150 are now enrolled. Every school in the city has been strengthened and enriched.

All the professional colleges are closely allied with the professional men of the city. The Colorado College of Dental Surgery is one of the strongest institutions of its kind in the West. Its dental

infirmary is completely equipped and always open for the use of the public. More than 12,000 patients are treated each year.

The school of commerce, accounts, and finance gives college instruction in commercial and financial subjects. Evening classes meet from 5.40 to 7.40, in the heart of the city. There is scarcely a large business office in Denver that is not represented by students. No department of the institution has a more direct influence upon the industrial and business life of Denver. The accountancy dispensary, established in 1914, has done much practical work free of charge for charitable, philanthropic, and religious societies of the city. Members of the faculty of the school of commerce do much extension work for business men and women. Courses are given in English, economics, money and banking, financial history of the United States, and business problems. One class of 200 pupils in the local factory of the Ford Motor Co. is studying the psychology of business under the instruction of a member of the faculty. For several years the classes conducted by the American Institute of Banking have been under the instruction of members of the school of commerce faculty. These courses have included business law, economics, finance, American financial history, foreign and domestic exchange, and the operation of the Federal Reserve Act.

The department of sociology has close relationship with the social and charitable agencies of Denver. Students are encouraged to work in settlements, make surveys and investigations, conduct classes and clubs. A special school for the Americanization of adult foreigners is being conducted under the supervision of the department. In cooperation with other social workers of Colorado, a summer school of civics and philanthropy was organized for the special benefit of charity workers and city employees. At the request of the city federation of charity this work is to be continued during the next school year.

The department of physical education has had notable success in cooperation with the city playground association. The university furnished an unusually choice corps of young men and women, well trained and competent, to supervise the parks and playgrounds of Denver.

THE UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA.

By JEREMIAH S. YOUNG,

Professor of Political Science.

The University of Minnesota is supported and controlled by the State. Most of the colleges are located in Minneapolis, but the college of agriculture is located in a suburb of St. Paul. The two plants are 3 miles apart, with an intercampus trolley connection. There is a population of more than half a million people within 20 miles of

the university. This fact emphasizes the urban location of the institution.

In the college of science, literature, and the arts, the department of sociology has courses of lectures this year by three representatives of charities and social-settlement organizations. The department also sends a number of students for field work in connection with the University Hospital service. Messrs. Crosgrave and James, under the direction of Prof. John H. Gray, head of the department of economics, are conducting surveys in connection with the civic and commerce association along the lines of unemployment.

The school of chemistry reports work in illuminating gas and water analysis. Indeed, the gas department of Minneapolis was organized very largely by men in the school of chemistry. A considerable amount of work along the line of testing paving material is being done. The dean of the school entertains the hope that the chemistry laboratory will be a place where all technical control work can be done and where all disputes along industrial chemical lines between the city and the contractor may be settled.

The activities of the graduate school are numerous. In 1913, when Prof. W. A. Schaper, of the department of political science, was a member of the commission to prepare a draft of a charter for Minneapolis, he made a direct study on the ground of some important experiments in commission form of government, his expenses being paid from the research funds. This enabled him to put at the disposal of the city charter commission the results of his investigation. The past year this same fund has been used to the extent of about $800 to aid in a vocational survey of the city of Minneapolis. This survey was undertaken primarily by Prof. Prosser, head of the Dunwoody Institute. This was a genuine piece of cooperative work, the university representative investigating commercial education in Minneapolis. Mr. Gesell's monograph on Minnesota public utility rates was published from the research funds. Certain studies are of municipal interest, such as Mr. Lampson's "The Spread of Tuberculosis in Families," William Anderson's "The Work of Public Service Commissions," and Prof. Weld's "Studies in Marketing and Farm Products." This last study deals with such subjects as city markets, live-stock markets of South St. Paul, milk distribution in Minneapolis and St. Paul, and food-supply prices in the iron-range cities. In this connection should be mentioned the publications of Messrs. McMillan and Shoop on "Concrete as a Structural Material."

The college of education carries on extension and correspondence courses, and enjoys the privilege of practice work in the city schools, together with cooperative research with the city teachers. In this connection it should be noted that something like 115 courses of

special interest to city teachers are offered at convenient hours, afternoons and Saturdays, with the local teachers especially in mind.

Many of the professors in the college of engineering render service for the city. Dean Shenehon is a member of the civic and commerce association committee on river development. Mr. Edward P. Burch is chairman of the committee on the high dam. Prof. Bass has been on the committee of public health. Prof. Cutler has been a member of the committee on abatement of railway noises, while many members of the faculty serve the city in technical civil-service examinations for city appointments. The college of engineering is raising the standard of the subordinates in many offices of architects, of workers in numerous industrial establishments, and in the offices of many practicing engineers.

The law school is engaged in a most interesting example of cooperation between the university law faculty and the associated charities of Minneapolis. This cooperation is concerned with the legal-aid bureau. The work is directed by a committee consisting of the president of the associated charities, the city attorney, and the dean of the university law school. This committee appoints a graduate of the law school at a stated annual salary. He acts as the attorney for the bureau and is also an instructor in practice in the law school. Two members of the senior class of the law school are assigned each week the duty of being present in the office of the legal-aid bureau from 1 to 6 p. m. each day. The students thus assigned are required to talk with clients as they come into the office and endeavor to determine in such conference the facts and the rights of the case and then report in writing to the attorney of the bureau, giving him the advice they think necessary in the circumstances. The attorney confirms or modifies the proposed advice. It usually happens that it is possible to settle these cases outside of court, but if no satisfactory settlement can be made, the student reporting the case will prepare, under the guidance of the bureau attorney, to institute such proceedings as may be necessary to secure the rights denied his client. At least once during each week one or more of the members of the law faculty visit the office of the legal-aid bureau and supervise the work. At the end of each week the attorney of the bureau makes a report of the two students to the law faculty. From April 15 to December 31, 1913, this bureau handled 1,039 cases and made collection of petty claims amounting to $4,184.95. From April to November, 1915, 2,554 cases were handled and $5,255.60 collected. This is a distinct piece of cooperation between the university and the city.

The university maintains two extension departments, one at the agricultural college, whose activities are confined to the rural parts

of the State, and the other, the general extension division on the main campus, the bulk of whose work is done in Minneapolis and St. Paul through the evening extension classes. The work of the general extension division falls under three main heads: College courses, business courses, and engineering courses. The registration in 1914–15 was as follows:

Registration in the general extension division, 1914–15.

Courses.	Minneapolis.	St. Paul.
Collegiate courses	861	218
Business courses	1,031	426
Engineering courses	311	16

These classes are conducted not only on the university campus, but also in the City Hall, the Public Library, and some of the schoolhouses. In St. Paul the work is done in cooperation with the St. Paul Institute. In addition to the classes conducted in the Twin Cities, the general extension division conducts classes in Duluth, St. Cloud, Winona, Albert Lea, Austin, and Northfield. The total registration of the towns above mentioned for the year was 3,350, or 2,508 different individuals. So far as possible, the general extension division has avoided duplicating the night-class work of the public schools, the Y. M. C. A., the Dunwoody Institute, and the St. Paul Institute. These institutions give elementary work for the most part, while the extension division gives the more advanced work, the effort being made to confine it to work of college grade. In addition to the class work, the division has been sponsor for courses of lectures in the Twin Cities. One notable series was that dealing with the European war and was given in the Central High School. Other lectures have been furnished for clubs, societies, and even for ward organizations. Another form of activity is through the league of Minnesota municipalities and the municipal reference bureau. During the year ending August 1, 1915, 80 villages and cities sent specific inquiries to the general extension division. In addition to this, there were over 200 letters of inquiry received from outside the State. The municipal reference bureau compiles statistics, makes researches, and furnishes information of all kinds to city officials. Moreover, it draws up model ordinances and makes itself useful in every way possible to officers of these municipalities.

The medical college renders a distinct public service through the hospital and dispensary. It is hoped to develop a closer working relation with the city hospitals.

The college of agriculture carries on many activities that, intended primarily for the rural population, still have a fairly direct bearing

upon urban life. The university aids the civil-service commission of Minneapolis in many ways, not only in planning examinations and improving the methods of rating papers, but in gratuitously placing at the disposal of the commission the use of the gymnasium for examinations for firemen, the blacksmith shop at the university farm for the examinations for blacksmiths, the dairy laboratory for the examination of milk inspectors, and the use of the university equipment for examinations for various architectural and drafting positions.

This brief survey shows that the university conducts many differentiated lines of activity because of its urban location.

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY, SYRACUSE, N. Y.

By Ross JEWELL, Registrar.

In recognition of contributions toward campus improvement amounting to $20,000, the privileges of the 100-acre campus, with its notable rose garden, has been extended to the people of Syracuse. The music department gives free monthly recitals, the painting department two free exhibitions annually, and the medical college has a course in public health. The hospital has 150 beds, and a free dispensary has just been built. The professors of the several colleges speak before many city audiences, and expert services are frequently rendered gratis. The Young Women's Christian Association does city extension work, and 25 of the students have Sunday-school classes in one of the orphan homes. The university settlement is doing good work. We plan to open a night school next September.

WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY.

In his last report to the trustees President Thwing enumerated the following direct services which his institution renders to the community:

In the first place, members of the faculty act as experts for public enterprises. The head of the department of biology identifies mineral and fossil specimens for those who make application, and also reports upon such matters as the rock structures underlying those portions of the city which now yield natural gas. He also assists the State biologist in investigating the Cleveland gas fields, thus saving the Government thousands of dollars which might otherwise be spent in unnecessary drilling. The head of the political science department served the city and State in like ways.

He was largely responsible for the framing and passage of the home-rule amendment of the Ohio constitution. He assisted materially in framing and getting passed a model municipal charter law in this State. Also, he advised several cities in the framing of their charter under the home-rule amendment. He was a member of the charter commission of Cleveland. He is president of the council of sociology and a member of the board of directors of the city club.

Other members of the department of political science are giving similar expert advice to various leagues and legislative bodies. The head of the department of sociology serves as vice chairman of the housing committee of the chamber of commerce. He and other members of his department act on numerous committees which are rendering effective help along sociological and philanthropic lines. The head of the department of chemistry of the college of women is serving on the filtration committee, and the head of the history department of the same college is on the executive committee of the civic league and Goodrich Social Settlement.

The department of romance languages is lending its efforts to cooperate with the Alliance Francaise in the extension of a knowledge of French outside the student body. Members of the various departments in the school of medicine are actively associated with the recent movement in the community for the study of eugenics. They also give expert advice to the authorities of the city in charge of the zoological collection concerning the care of animals. A member of the department of hygiene is city bacteriologist and also a member of the filtration commission.

The following communication, addressed to the trustees and quoted in the president's report, may be prophetic of some future development in direct service of a cooperative character:

Representing the will and wishes of 18 philanthropic organizations of Cleveland, we respectfully present the following for your consideration:

For at least 10 years there has been a growing conviction among the various public-welfare workers that there is in Cleveland a need and an opportunity for a school to teach sociological sciences. From time to time, as your president can relate to you, this need has been discussed by those interested in all kinds of welfare work, and plans for such a school have been considered. The recent increased demand for public and social service workers and the scarcity of tutored or practically trained candidates for these positions have compelled philanthropic organizations to give temporary courses of instruction that their workers might be at least partially trained; however, such courses have uniformly proven entirely inadequate, and no other result was ever expected. This condition and the constant stream of applications from high-grade, educated, and suitable, but entirely untrained persons for positions to do any and all kinds of social work have made these pleas for such a school more numerous and more emphatic.

Cleveland, with its great and varied business activities, its cosmopolitan population, and its rapid growth, is a fitting place to teach the sociologic sciences and to train in social work. No informed Clevelander will admit that any city has on the whole more advanced, varied, or active philanthropic

institutions, municipal or private, or a more efficient fabric of social organizations working for the common welfare; and it is justly so. Therefore, no city offers greater opportunity for desirable practical experience, for popular extension courses, for properly supervised survey or original research work; no city has better material to study or from which to teach. Reserve has the necessary standing and prestige to attract properly prepared students to sociologic courses carrying university credits and leading to degrees. Reserve also has the confidence and the friendship of every social institution of Cleveland; so that practical extension courses could be given in cooperation with each and all of such institutions, and opportunity given to prepare for any special field of work. Such a combination of courses, academic, practical, liberal, we believe, would constitute a school in harmony with, but in advance of, the recent trend of sociologic teaching, and one more popular because more practical and of more value to promote public welfare, than the older established conventional schools of philanthropy.

We do, therefore, respectfully and earnestly ask that you give serious consideration to the needs of and the opportunities for such a school in Cleveland, and to the organization of this school as a part of Western Reserve University.

As a result of deliberations concerning this communication, the school of applied social sciences was organized; work will begin September, 1916.

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