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RECENT MOVEMENTS IN COLLEGE AND
UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION

BY

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, November 25, 1916.

SIR: Recent movements in college and university administration have made advisable a longer and more comprehensive treatment of this subject than could well be included in the brief interpretive survey of higher education prepared for the first volume of the Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education. I have therefore asked S. P. Capen, the bureau's specialist in higher education, to prepare the account which is transmitted herewith for publication as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education. The phases of the subject which it treats are of interest not only to administrative officers but also to college professors and students of education in general and to the taxpayers by whom many of these institutions are supported.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. CLAXTON,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

RECENT MOVEMENTS IN COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION.

INTRODUCTORY.

New literature.—The field of higher education has until very recently seldom been invaded by the educational investigator. Efficiency tests and statistical measurements have been applied with increasing frequency to the work of the lower schools, and a voluminous literature in which the results are recorded has already grown up. The literature of higher education, however, is still preponderatingly of the naïvely philosophical order. The majority of those who write about the college and university are apparently committed to the method in vogue before the "Novum Organum" burst through the thickets of scholasticism. There are many works which tell us what the authors think a college ought to be; many which give the writer's interpretations of the spiritual aspects of college education; not a few which, based on dogmatic postulates, discuss the values of various elements in the college curriculum. The records of the actual facts conditioning collegiate education have thus far been disappointingly rare. Within the past months, however, a number of such intensive studies have appeared.

The review of some of this new literature is essential to a review of current movements in the field of higher education, not only because of the important facts which it reveals, but because of the tendency it represents. A few of the more important documents are therefore discussed in some detail in the following pages.

Entrance requirements.—A double movement appears to be going on with respect to entrance requirements. Although a majority of the institutions of the Northeast seem to be dedicated to the proposition that the chief emphasis in requirements for admission must be placed upon qualitative tests, there appears even in this section a sudden, if not altogether unexpected, reversion to the type of relation with secondary schools that has prevailed in the West. In other parts of the country the movement for increased quantitative requirements for admission goes forward.

Higher education associations.—Perhaps few persons even among those engaged in educational work are aware of the large number of voluntary associations, national or sectional in their membership, which deal wholly or in part with college and university problems. From time to time the establishment of new organizations

has been noted in the annual reports and bulletins of the Commissioner of Education. Although the foundation of but one such body is recorded this year (the Society for the Promotion of Training for Public Service), meetings of the following organizations have been held at which topics of importance to higher education were discussed:

- American Association of Collegiate Registrars
- American Association of University Professors.
- Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations.
- Association of American Colleges.
- Association of American Universities.
- Association of Business Officers of the State Universities and Colleges of the Middle West.
- Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland.
- Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States.
- Association of Urban Universities.
- Land Grant College Engineering Association.
- College Entrance Examination Board.
- National Association of State Universities in the United States of America.
- National Conference Committee on Standards of Colleges and Secondary Schools.
- New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.
- New England College Entrance Certificate Board.
- North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.
- Society for the Promotion of Training for Public Service.
- Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education.

Possibly of the greatest significance were various discussions, which in some cases led to action, relating to questions of classification and standardization. These questions were taken up especially by the National Conference Committee on Standards, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, the Association of Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and the Association of American Colleges. At the meeting of the last-named association a very remarkable report entitled "The Efficient College" was presented. The report describes (1) a hypothetical institution called "The Minimum College"; (2) another imaginary organization which is theoretically efficient, and, for purposes of comparison, (3) the actual status of five existing institutions.

Academic freedom.—The question of academic freedom remains one of the vital issues in university and college education. Its remoter implications involve the whole question of institutional control and touch upon the obscure relationships of institutions and large accumulations of property. The final adjustment of the issues does not appear to be in sight. As has already been reported, the question has been the subject of several investigations by the American Association of University Professors. Four new reports by committees of this body during the past academic year constitute

valuable additions to the discussion of the subject. They are summarized on pages 52-60 of this bulletin.

UNIVERSITY SURVEYS.

University surveys have undoubtedly occupied the forefront of attention in the field of higher education during the past few months. Viewed in its relation to the evolution of American higher education as a whole, the university survey is chiefly noteworthy as symptomatic of a definite stage of development. Reference has already several times been made in the annual report of the Commissioner of Education to the fact that the era of mushroomlike expansion is past. The passion for mere bigness has cooled. "Justification by numbers" is no longer the corner stone of the faith of institutional officials. Even vast investments in buildings and appliances have ceased to assure presidents and governing boards of the unimpeachable educational success of a collegiate enterprise. In other words, in this field, as elsewhere, the Nation is coming to adopt qualitative rather than quantitative criteria of excellence. The direction of higher education is passing from the hands of the promoter into those of the administrator. The survey, which at its best is a critical, non-partisan, expert examination of financial facts and records, educational policies, and the social and economic setting of an institution, signalizes this transfer of leadership.

It may be worth while to call attention to the way in which the modern university administrator views his task. This has been quite strikingly revealed by the several surveys already made. The new type of university executive sees that institutional policies can be ultimately successful only in so far as they square with such unyielding contingencies as the population and wealth of the district which the university serves and the social demand for various types of training. The president and his associates are therefore under obligation to know the facts—the facts about their own institution, the facts about its bailiwick, the facts about other institutions having similar purposes and comparable support. Policies and administrative procedure must rise from this foundation. University administration thus takes on something of the nature of a scientific problem. It appears to be most successfully practiced by men of scientific training and habit of mind. The main purpose of a university survey is to make sure that, as far as possible, no contributory factor in the administrative problem has been overlooked or misinterpreted.

It should be noted that a large number of present-day university administrators, inspired by the example of the business world and spurred by the penetrating inquiries of trustees and legislators, have for some time been assembling and codifying all available statistical

data bearing on institutional management. Many institutions have, indeed, subjected themselves to a process that has been characterized by the offensive and hybrid term "auto survey." In principle, therefore, the university surveys of the past two or three years do not represent a new phenomenon. The novel feature is the substitution of outside experts for the officials of the university itself. It is believed that by this means a degree of objectivity comporting more closely with the scientific purpose and method has thus far been secured. Naturally, also, as the result of the earnest study of many individuals, some new lines of inquiry have been discovered.

What the final effect of any particular survey will be on the growth and standing of the institution or institutions examined it is still too early to determine. University surveyors, whether domestic or imported, are dealing with areas as yet unsubjected to scientific measurement. They are unprovided with approved instruments of precision. They may quite naturally fail for a time to define with accuracy the peculiarities and limits of the field of university administration. A period of experimentation is, indeed, to be expected. Nevertheless, certain standard tests and processes of investigation seem to be emerging from the numerous studies of institutional management which promise to be permanently helpful to university administrators. Some of these are noted in the following paragraphs.

University surveys have thus far, for the most part, dealt with State institutions. It is worth while in this connection to emphasize again one other aspect of the survey movement which was noted in the report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1915. State legislatures are responsible for two of the comprehensive surveys of higher institutions undertaken during the past year. Several others projected for the near future have likewise been ordered by State lawmaking bodies. In each case the supposition is that legislation (or board action) relating to the support, the functions, and the control of the institutions concerned is to be based on the findings of survey commissions. The fact that legislatures are becoming convinced that careful, impartial investigation should precede legislative action affecting higher education constitutes an auspicious omen for State-supported institutions. It signifies the gratifying, if tardy, recognition of the sphere of the educational expert in the determination of university policies and in the appraisal of the technical phases of university management. It points to the final release of State institutions from the ancient danger of undue political interference.

The most important educational surveys undertaken during the past academic year are those which have been made under the direction of the Bureau of Education or in which the bureau has participated. These have involved the State higher institutions of Iowa,

the State higher institutions of North Dakota, the University of Oregon, and the State higher institutions of Washington. A brief account of the survey of the University of Oregon was included in the commissioner's report for 1915.

SURVEY OF STATE-SUPPORTED HIGHER INSTITUTIONS OF IOWA.

In May, 1915, the Iowa State Board of Education requested the Commissioner of Education to undertake the direction of a survey of the higher institutions of the State¹ and to employ such assistants as he deemed necessary. The board's main purpose was to secure from the survey assistance in the preparation of the next budget for the three collegiate institutions under its control. It specifically stated that it had no desire to reopen the coordination question (referred to in the reports of the Commissioner of Education for 1912, Vol. I, p. 90, and 1915, Vol. I, p. 145), which had aroused such intense feelings among the partisans of the institutions. Nevertheless, it wished advice as to whether or not extensive duplications of courses, schools, and equipment might be reduced without complete reorganization. It presented to the commissioner a bill of particulars asking that inquiry be made into a number of matters, of which the following were perhaps the most important:

Duplication in courses in education and psychology between the State university and the college of agriculture and mechanic arts.

The extent to which liberal arts courses are offered at the college of agriculture and mechanic arts.

The status of graduate work at each of the three institutions.

The feasibility of consolidating extension work.

The adequacy of the educational plants and the economy exercised in their use.

The Commissioner of Education appointed, to conduct the survey, a commission composed of the following persons:

Dr. James R. Angell, dean of the faculties of arts, literature, and science of the University of Chicago.

Dr. Kendrick C. Babcock, dean of the college of arts and sciences of the University of Illinois.

Dr. Liberty H. Bailey, formerly director of the New York State College of Agriculture.

Mrs. Henrietta W. Calvin, specialist in home economics, Bureau of Education.

Dr. Hollis Godfrey, president of Drexel Institute, Philadelphia (consulting member).

Dr. Raymond M. Hughes, president of Miami University.

Dr. Samuel P. Capen, specialist in higher education, Bureau of Education (chairman).

After the commission had completed its investigations on the ground and was ready to prepare its report, it met with the State

¹Exception being made of the School for the Blind at Vinton.

board of education and urged that it be allowed to exceed the limits laid down for it. It declared that other issues fundamental to the situation had constantly obtruded themselves upon its attention and must be taken into account if its report were to have any value. The board finally agreed that the commission should be free to treat any parts of the educational situation in Iowa that might in its judgment be necessary.

The completed report was placed in the hands of the board of education on February 15, 1916, and has since been published as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education. It contains an introduction, 17 chapters, and an appendix. The following are the chapter headings:

1. Higher education in Iowa.
2. A study of the expenditures of the Iowa State institutions.
3. Duplication and the principle of major lines.
4. Graduate work.
5. Liberal arts at the State college.
6. Extension work.
7. Duplication of work in education and psychology.
8. Home economics.
9. Subcollegiate work.
10. Courses in journalism.
11. Courses in commerce.
12. Work and remuneration of the teaching staffs.
13. Utilization of buildings.
14. Building costs.
15. Physical education of women.
16. Observations on State and institutional administration.
17. A summary of recommendations.

Certain general discussions and some of the devices employed in recording significant facts are important enough to be briefly summarized here.

The report declares in the introduction that, in accordance with its understanding with the board, the commission feels authorized to venture upon a general consideration of the question of duplication. It believes it could not consistently make recommendations regarding the prevention of duplication in certain specified lines without taking into account, at the same time, the whole extensive area of duplication. It tries to show that almost all cases of duplication are symptoms of the same organic defect and that these symptoms can not be permanently remedied by a series of small palliative measures, but only by action designed to remedy the defect itself. It proposes a general principle which it believes, if applied, will achieve the desired result.

The principle referred to is defined and illustrated in the third chapter of the bulletin, and gives rise to the first of the 52 recommendations presented in the course of the report. This recommendation and a portion of the argument used in its support are

THE ADOPTION OF THE PRINCIPLE OF MAJOR AND SERVICE LINES OF WORK AT
THE THREE STATE INSTITUTIONS.

The primary difficulty, so far as the three higher institutions are concerned, lies in the lack of clear definitions of scope, particularly as between two of them. * * * At one time it was thought to be the wisest policy in many States to separate the land-grant college and the university, because their fields of work were supposed to be incompatible. At present, when all institutions of higher learning are so rapidly expanding, there is widespread feeling that the land-grant college is best united with the university or incorporated into it. When we have learned how to develop a harmonious State procedure, however, we may find certain very marked advantages in the separation. At all events, it is the responsibility of the State in such cases to make a coherent plan to prevent conflict. This is now the major problem in educational administration in the United States, but it ought not to be difficult of solution if the adherents of the different institutions once accept certain fundamental principles. The conflicts between the different kinds of institutions result, in large part, from an attitude of mind. More duplication of courses of study may not be any more disadvantageous or more to be deplored between two institutions than between the parts of one institution which is the size of the two. * * *

In dealing with the problems of duplication as manifested in the practice of the Iowa State institutions, the Commission has been guided by what may be described as the principle of "major and service lines" of work. In accordance with this principle, each State institution should have assigned to it certain major fields which it may be expected to develop to their fullest extent. Agriculture at the State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts is such a major line. Latin, German, French, political science, psychology at the Iowa State University are such major lines. Service lines are such subordinate subjects as are essential to the proper cultivation of a major line. The amount required is generally not large. English is such a service line for engineering and agriculture at the State College. Institutions may well overlap as regards the relation of their service lines to one another, and more particularly as regards the relation of their major to their service lines. English is a major line at the State University and a service line at the State College, but there should be no material overlapping of major lines.

As between the State University and the State College this division would reserve, at present, to the institution at Ames agriculture, home economics, veterinary medicine, and certain departments of engineering to be later determined. It would make all other subjects at Ames service subjects, in no case to be developed beyond the point at which the needs of the major subjects are supplied. Consequently, a moderate amount of elementary collegiate work might be given at the State College in the languages, the humanities, and certain of the sciences; but they would, presumably, never go beyond these rudimentary stages. At the State University agriculture and certain fields of engineering, if cultivated at all, would, in the same way, have a place only as service subjects, contributory to the major lines allotted to that institution. Certain subjects do not fall readily into line on such a principle of division; but these cases of overlapping, the commission believes, may be amicably settled by a conference of representatives of the faculties and a committee of the State board. * * *

Once this principle of major and service lines is adopted, the whole situation clears up, not only as regards intramural work, but also as regards extension work. An institution would be permitted to do extension work only in a major line.

The drastic application of the principle leads into that most dangerous of all disputed areas in State-supported higher education—the adjustment and redistribution of the work in engineering at the State university and the land-grant college. The report attacks this question in the third recommendation. The recommendation and a portion of the supporting argument are as follows:

THE READJUSTMENT OF WORK IN ENGINEERING AT THE STATE UNIVERSITY AND THE STATE COLLEGE ACCORDING TO ONE OF THREE METHODS.

We are not able to convince ourselves that there can be any justification for sweeping duplication in the range of advanced professional work. It would certainly strike every unbiased observer as absurd to urge that there should be two medical schools conducted by the State at different points. It would seem equally absurd to conduct two law schools. * * * The commission is also of the opinion that the continuance of two schools of engineering as at present organized is uneconomical and indefensible, especially in so far as it concerns the development of upper-class and graduate work. At least three methods of readjustment are possible:

1. The horizontal, by which one school would become a strictly graduate institution and the other school an undergraduate institution. * * * In the judgment of the commission this method is not at present applicable to the Iowa situation. Unless the principle were applied drastically, so as to require a bachelor's degree for entrance to the more advanced classes, the difficulties of the present academic situation would not be materially lessened; and the possible overlapping in the field of extension work would require altogether separate consideration and treatment.

2. The union of the two schools in one place, under highly expert direction. The commission is unaniously convinced that this is the method by which engineering work under State support in Iowa could best be maintained and developed. No other method will so certainly insure the permanent elimination of the causes of friction, irritation, unwholesome competition, and wasteful duplication of high-class men and equipment for advanced work. It is scarcely conceivable that the State, if it did not now have two schools of engineering, would consider the establishment of more than one. * * *

3. If this second method is judged impracticable of application, considering the present condition of institutional and popular sentiment in Iowa, the commission recommends that a definite vertical (or topical) division of engineering should be carefully worked out by the board of education in conference with a small group of expert engineers, who should be wholly unconnected with either institution, and each of whom should be a member of one or another of the four American societies of civil, electrical, mechanical, and mining engineering.

Still another recommendation affecting the distribution of the functions of the State institutions is that the last two years of the liberal arts courses at the Iowa State Teachers' College be discontinued. On this point the commission says:

The commission is disposed to urge the wisdom of this proposal on several grounds. In the first place, it seems reasonably clear that the institutions at Ames and Iowa City are at present abundantly able to care for all students who may be expected to seek the bachelor's degree in a State institution in Iowa. * * * In the second place, the commission feels certain that at present the

atmosphere of the institution at Cedar Falls is not unequivocally collegiate, and that the students who now receive training there for the bachelor's degree are likely to miss certain valuable elements in such training. * * * In the third place, the amount of work now offered as of third and fourth year college grade is relatively small and may be regarded as only barely sufficient to round out the senior college curriculum. * * * Under these circumstances, the commission feels that the expenditure of money and energy represented in keeping up the last two years of collegiate work at Cedar Falls is probably not to be justified on its merits.

In place of this, however, it suggests that the regular normal courses for the training of elementary teachers be extended from two to three years above high-school graduation, but that no degrees be awarded for completion of these courses. The commission indorses such a procedure on the ground that teachers in elementary schools need a broader culture and more thoroughgoing scholarship than can be secured in the two years ordinarily devoted to professional preparation. The report also calls attention to the fact that the Iowa State Teachers' College, in view of the physical limitations of its facilities for practice teaching, can not train all the teachers needed in the elementary schools of the State. It recommends, therefore, the establishment of additional normal schools.

It will be observed that the report of the commission recommends reorganizations which are strikingly similar to those contemplated in the order of the State board of education issued in 1912, but afterwards rescinded in response to legislative action and public protest. The report makes clear that the commission approached the study of the situation without preconceptions and with no intention of proposing radical changes in the functions of the institutions. It was led to its conclusions by the force of the facts.

At the end of the report the commission takes up certain matters relating to the general administration of higher and secondary education in the State which are probably of more than local interest. It will be remembered that the Iowa Legislature, in 1909, abolished the separate governing boards of the State higher institutions and created in their place a single board of education, composed of nine members. This board is assisted and advised by a paid finance committee, which devotes its whole time to the work assigned it. The finance committee is elected by the board from outside the membership of the board. The board also maintains a high-school inspector, charged with the duty of examining and accrediting high schools for the higher institutions. By a later enactment the legislature reorganized the State education department. The State superintendent of public instruction, appointed by the governor, is given general control of the public elementary and high schools of the State. His office is also authorized to appoint high-school inspectors to assist in enforcing such standards as he may establish.

While admitting that discussion of matters relating to this office are entirely outside of its legitimate province, the commission nevertheless recommends the readjustment of the official relationships between the office of superintendent of public instruction and the State board of education. The following comments and proposals present the substance of the discussion:

The legislation that has made the office of the State superintendent independent of the State board of education, together with the legislative action granting subsidies to certain high schools which comply with requirements administered through the office of the State superintendent of public instruction has made possible a disparity between the criteria of standardization as represented in the recommendations and requirements of the superintendent of public instruction, on the one hand, and the requirements of the institutions of higher learning on the other, especially as the latter are administered through the State board's high-school inspector and his assistants. The commission is of the opinion that * * * It is unwise to have perpetuated a situation which contains a constant menace of friction, tending to stimulate controversial relations among the educational institutions of the State or among the official representatives of the different divisions of its educational system. Several remedies suggest themselves.

In a number of States, the State superintendent of public instruction is ex officio a member of the governing board of the State University. * * * It appears evident to us that the association of the office of the superintendent with the board in the direct management and control of the higher institutions would at once bring about an understanding by each agency of the plans and purposes of the other, and would do away with any further possibility of conflict in the determination of high-school standards, a matter in which both are vitally concerned.

A still more radical alteration of the State's administrative machinery, but one which seems to the commission much more likely to result in the smooth operation of all its parts, would be the extension of the jurisdiction of the board of education to include the public elementary and high schools, and the provision for the appointment of the superintendent of public instruction by the board.

A final recommendation involving a question of general policy is that the presidents of the State higher institutions be included ex officio in the membership of the State board of education without power to vote. Commenting on this recommendation, the report says:

The commission finds it difficult to believe that the exclusion from the sittings of the board of education of the presidents of the State institutions of higher education (save on receipt of special invitation) can commend itself permanently as a wise policy. We are unanimously of the opinion that the present procedure subjects the presidents of these institutions to conditions which are incompatible with the dignity of their office and likely to prove provocative of serious misconceptions in the State. * * * We question most seriously both the propriety and the ultimate efficiency of a system which gives them no official representation before the board, but leaves it entirely to the initiative of the board to call them in when it sees fit. Such a procedure inevitably puts the administrative head of an institution in the position of a

suppliant for favors instead of in the position of an authorized expert presenting to the responsible authorities the interests of the institution immediately in his charge.

Moreover, under present conditions it is difficult for the executives to view their problems as concerned solely with the best service of the State rather than with the upbuilding of a particular institution. If they were regular members of your body, even though enjoying no vote, their outlook on the situation as a whole would necessarily be at once enlarged and altered and you would unquestionably enjoy their loyal cooperation in meeting your problems.

The portions of the report thus far summarized, involving general administrative matters and broader question of State policy, will no doubt be more widely read and discussed by students of education than any others. University administrators, however, are likely to be quite as much interested in several devices for presenting educational and financial data bearing upon efficiency of management of the institution.

The report presents the expenditures of the three institutions arranged in accordance with the following diagram, a form originally used by the administration of Miami University:

		Construction and land \$00,000		
	Educational expenditures, \$000,000		Educational equipment, and supplies, \$00,000	
		Operating expenditures, \$000,000		Instruction, college year, \$000,000
			Instruction, \$000,000	
				Instruction, summer term, \$00,000
			General operating expenses, \$00,000	
		Special and rotating funds, \$00,000		
	Extension and service, \$00,000			
Total expenditures, \$0,000,000				

Three of these categories need explanation. *Special and rotating funds* include expenditures from prize funds, boarding and rooming departments, and special funds available only for indicated purposes apart from instruction. The category *operating expenditures* includes all expenses for the annual maintenance of the institution aside from dormitories and boarding departments. The subdivision *general operating expenses* comprises what might be classed as the overhead expenses of the institution, the salaries of administrative officers, janitors, etc., and the general expenses of administration.

In calculating the average annual cost per student the report makes use not of the catalogue enrollment, but of the average attendance. The catalogue enrollment generally includes every person who has attended the institution for any part of the year of 12 months. The average attendance is the average of the largest attendance in each of the two semesters. This figure, which is as a rule about a third smaller than the catalogue enrollment, really represents the maximum pressure on the plant and the teaching staff at any one time. To obtain the average annual cost per student, the expenses included under the head of *operating expenditures* (minus the cost of instruction for the summer session) are divided by the average attendance. The commission found that the average annual cost per student for the last two academic years at the State University was \$274.75, at the State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts \$270.50, and at the State Teachers' College \$169.

Another interesting and novel arrangement of institutional expenditures and their proper apportionment among the students in attendance appears in the chapter on building costs. The following table gives the gist of this study:

Items of comparison.	Cost of buildings.	Square feet of floor surface.	Cost per square foot of floor.	Cost per student.	Square feet of floor per student.	Average enrollment of students.
STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA.						
Buildings used in common.....	\$380,125	121,028	\$3.07	\$156	47.7	
Buildings used for classes and laboratories.....	1,512,859	494,351	3.06	582	190.0	
Total.....	1,892,984	615,379	3.06	728	237.7	
Students in 1915-16.....						2,600
IOWA STATE COLLEGE.						
Buildings used in common.....	435,962	131,323	3.32	167	50.5	
Buildings used for classes and laboratories.....	1,518,085	513,157	3.02	595	197.5	
Total.....	1,954,047	644,480		762	248.0	
Students in 1915-16.....						2,600
IOWA STATE TEACHERS' COLLEGE.						
Buildings used in common.....	388,000	150,712	2.58	222	86.0	
Buildings used for classes and laboratories.....	498,000	272,714	1.82	284	150.0	
Total.....	886,000	423,426	2.10	506	242.0	
Students in 1915-16.....						1,750

This table shows that an average of 243 square feet of floor space per student is provided. The average cost per square foot of floor space of six buildings recently erected was \$2.96. This amounts to \$720 per student. Including furniture and equipment, the cost per student is probably \$750 to \$800. When the plant is full to saturation, therefore, every increase of 100 in the average attendance entails the provision of from \$75,000 to \$80,000 worth of new buildings. Adding the cost of instruction and maintenance per student (exhibited above), it appears that an increase of 100 in the average attendance necessitates an initial expense to the State of about \$100,000.

Bearing on the question of the utilization of the plant for teaching purposes, the report contributes a technical chapter containing the results of a careful engineering study of a group of typical buildings at each institution. The method of this study should prove valuable, not only for Iowa institutions, but for universities and colleges in general. The available building space is first divided into instructional space (defined as space used for the primary function of the institution—teaching—and distinguished by the presence of a student or a group of students for the purpose of instruction), and accessory space (defined as space not used specifically for teaching purposes but to a large degree essential to the plant because of the physical features of building construction and the needs of the administrative functions). Although waste or efficient use may equally well occur in instructional or in accessory space, attempt is made to study merely instructional space and its relation to the whole plant. Instructional space is further divided into scheduled and unscheduled space. Scheduled space is that for which the commission received a statement of definite student capacities and definite hours of actual use for teaching purposes. For unscheduled space such information was not furnished. It appears that at the State University 39.75 per cent of the total building space is instructional space, and at the State College 44.15 per cent is instructional space, and at the State Teachers' College 44.87 per cent is instructional space. The scheduled space is then analyzed to show the occupancy and time ratios, i. e., the proportion of time out of a working week of 44 hours that each room available for teaching is occupied to its full capacity. These ratios are first determined for each scheduled classroom or laboratory, then for the scheduled instructional space of each building, and finally in the same manner for the whole plant. The per cent of plant utilization results when the combined occupancy and time ratios are multiplied by the per cent of scheduled instructional space. According to this calculation, the State University showed

an average plant use for teaching purposes of 19.8 per cent, the State Teachers' College of 23.9 per cent, and the State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts of 26.4 per cent. The report takes pains to caution the reader against an interpretation of these figures too unfavorable to the efficiency of the management of the institutions. The percentages seem low, but it is pointed out that 100 per cent utilization is absolutely impossible. Moreover, there is as yet no norm of possible use. No similar studies have been made, except of one city institution (Drexel Institute), where conditions favor an extremely high per cent of utilization. That study and the present one, however, indicate that 40 per cent of utilization would be very high indeed, and that 35 per cent would represent rarely successful utilization for a State university. The conclusion drawn from the results shown by the three institutions here studied is that some economies in the use of buildings can be secured without noticeable hardship either to the students or professors, by careful rostering of available classrooms and by preventing department heads from preempting valuable space for fancied departmental needs or for exhibition purposes. The relatively high per cent of utilization at the State College is chiefly due to the care there exercised in these matters.

The chapter devoted to the work and remuneration of the instructional staffs of the three institutions proposes certain standards and makes use of at least one new unit of measurement. Three standards relate to the size of classes. They are:

- (a) In lecture work a professor may meet effectively as many as can comfortably see and hear him.
- (b) In recitation or quiz, 30 in a section is probably the largest number that can be effectively handled, but the desirable maximum would be from 20 to 25.
- (c) In laboratory work it is commonly agreed that one instructor should be provided for every 15 or 16 students.

The new unit is the "student clock hour," which is defined thus: "One student under instruction in lecture, quiz, or laboratory for at least 50 minutes net, represents one student clock hour." This unit, it will be observed, differs from the "student hour" used in some other studies (see Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1914, Ch. VII, Vol. I, p. 171) in that laboratory hours are not discounted. For example, a student in chemistry, one hour in lecture, one hour in quiz, and four hours in laboratory in a week would be counted as receiving six student clock hours of instruction.

Using this unit the report then proceeds to set up standard teaching loads for the instructors in different types of institutions. While admitting that a definite number of student clock hours can not be fixed for the individual instructor, it is declared that reasonable de-

partmental averages may justly be established. Departments in universities where re-search work is encouraged and expected may fairly carry 250 student clock hours per instructor per week. In distinctly undergraduate colleges a departmental average of 300 student clock hours per instructor per week may be regarded as a reasonable norm. The commission believes that the number of student clock hours carried furnishes a more equitable measure of the teaching burden than does the number of "credit hours" or "semester hours," which are the units commonly used in estimating the amount of an instructor's work.

The report also proposes one other standard, namely, the minimum average salary for a department in institutions of collegiate grade. This, it is affirmed, should be at least \$2,000 a year. That there is a close correlation between the careful and even distribution of teaching loads among members of the staff and the salaries paid is pointed out in the following paragraph:

If the curriculum demands that each student shall be under instruction on the average for 20 hours a week in lecture, laboratory, and recitation, then for every 1,000 students 20,000 student clock hours of instruction must be provided by the administration. If instructors carry an average of 300 student clock hours each, 67 instructors will be required. It is also clear that, with a fixed sum for institutional maintenance, the best salaries can not be paid unless the average load of student clock hours closely approaches the desirable maximum. For instance, if an institution providing 20,000 student clock hours of instruction has \$134,000 to spend on teachers' salaries and employs 80 instructors instead of 67, the average load of student clock hours will be reduced, but so will the average salary.

Tabular views of the departmental loads of student clock hours at the three institutions during the last academic year show institutional averages at the State University of 252, at the State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts of 312½, and at the State Teachers' College of 316. At the State University the distribution of the load among the different departments is fairly even; at the other two institutions there are large inequalities.

The commission was requested by the State board of education to recommend possible avenues of expansion for the State institutions. As the report is silent on this point, however, the implication is that the commission judged the higher educational needs of the State to have been already largely met by existing provisions. With regard to the possible establishment of a school of commerce at the university, concerning which question was raised in the board's instructions, the report recommends, in view of the economic and social conditions of the State, the moderate expansion and better correlation of the courses at present offered in various departments of the university rather than the creation of a separate school.

SURVEY OF THE STATE HIGHER INSTITUTIONS OF WASHINGTON.

Mention was made in the last annual report of the creation by the Washington Legislature, in 1915, of a commission composed of six members of the legislature, charged with the duty of making a comprehensive survey of the State university, the State college, and the three State normal schools, and such general survey of the public-school system as might be necessary. The commission was given authority to employ experts. It requested the assistance of the Commissioner of Education, who appointed the following persons as a committee to investigate the institutions and to report their findings to the commission: Samuel P. Capen, specialist in higher education, Bureau of Education (chairman); Alexander Inglis, assistant professor of education, Harvard University; and Harold W. Foght, specialist in rural school practice, Bureau of Education. In the latter stages of its work in the State this committee was assisted by the Commissioner of Education in person. The committee presented its report to the Washington Commission of Educational Survey on April 15, 1916. On April 30 the commission reported to the governor of the State, recommending that certain legislation bearing on the control, the support, and the functions of public educational institutions be passed by the next legislature, and submitting by way of evidence the report of the bureau's committee. Bulletin No. 26, 1916, Bureau of Education, contains both documents. The report of the commission followed, in the main, the bureau's recommendations. In a few instances it recorded a different opinion. Limitations of space prevent the detailed discussion of these reports. In the following paragraphs an outline of the contents of the report of the bureau's committee is given. A few of the more important recommendations are noted, and mention is made of the principal divergencies between the two reports.

The bureau's report consists of three sections. Section I deals with higher education in Washington viewed as a whole, then discusses the financial and educational management and interrelations of the State University and the State College, and finally presents recommendations bearing on the proper functions of each and the measure of support required by each. Section II deals with the public schools in general, with special reference to their support, the system of administration, the supply and preparation of teachers, and the certification of teachers. Section III treats of the State normal schools, taking up particularly the primary function of the normal school, the contribution of the Washington State normal schools to the teaching body of the State, the equipment of each normal school, and recommending certain steps which normal schools should take to raise the standards of the teaching profession. The report contains 41 recommendations.

The question of the legal authority of the State University and the State College to offer certain duplicating courses has often been raised. The bureau's committee finds that neither institution has exceeded the limits prescribed for it or allowed it by the legislature of the State. Wherever either has offered courses already given by the other, there has been sanction for such duplication in the laws and statutes under which the institutions operate; but the committee emphasizes the fact that above mere legal justification lie the interests of the State.

Any proposals looking toward redefinitions of the spheres of the two collegiate institutions in Washington must be made in the light of several unusual factors, to wit: (1) The vast natural resources of the State, the development of which will demand unusually large numbers of persons scientifically trained in agriculture and engineering and will depend upon the continued progress of scientific knowledge in these fields; (2) the great size of the State; (3) the separation of its population by a barrier of mountains and arid territory into two relatively compact groups and the consequent development of strong sectional consciousness; (4) the germination of what promises to be a phenomenally varied and dynamic industrial and commercial activity in one of these groups.

Re-enunciating the principle of major and service lines laid down in the Iowa report, the committee recommends the partial redistribution of the functions of these institutions. Both now maintain departments of architecture, education, engineering (chemical, civil, electrical, mechanical, mining), forestry, liberal arts, and pharmacy. The report urges the abandonment by the State College of architecture, chemical engineering, forestry, and pharmacy as major lines. It declares that only one school of mining engineering should be maintained, but suggests that its appropriate location be determined on consultation with mining experts. It recommends the sharp differentiation of the departments of education at the two institutions. In view of local factors, which are discussed at some length, it councils the continuance of undergraduate work in civil, electrical, and mechanical engineering, and in liberal arts at both institutions. It proposes that the university abandon extension work in home economics. Graduate work, except in the departments maintained by the State College alone, should be developed exclusively at the university.

Elaborate analyses of costs, of the geographical distribution of the student bodies in the different departments at the two institutions and of the work and remuneration of the teaching staffs, are used in support of the recommendations. The average cost per student at the State University was found to be \$192.77, and at the State College \$289.79. A calculation showing the cost of a student clock hour

of instruction in each of the principal departments at both institutions is the chief contribution to financial statistics made by this report. Commenting on the support of the State University and the State College, the report says:

(1) Washington has not been spending as much money on its State collegiate institutions in proportion to their needs and the State's wealth as many other progressive States. Both should be more liberally supported.

(2) The State College is for the most part well housed, and the pressure on its plant is not extreme. On the other hand, the salaries paid its teachers are considerably below what should be paid to competent men in institutions of this character. In the last two years the amount spent per student has been somewhat higher than the per capita outlay in other institutions, which the Bureau of Education has studied. However, the committee especially calls attention to the fact that, in order to meet the needs of the State in the direction of agricultural instruction, extension, and experimentation alone, this institution will require largely increased appropriations.

(3) The State University has for many years been starved. It is housed, in part, in buildings which are unworthy of a great university in a great and wealthy State. Its expense per student during the last two years is much lower than the similar expense in any institution of university rank which the Bureau of Education has studied. The legitimate expansion of the institution, especially the development of a school of commerce, demands large increases in its support.

Probably the most important recommendations of the section of the report dealing with public schools are—first, those calling for the raising of the professional requirements for holding the county superintendency and for the increase of the salary of this office (a salary scale ranging from \$1,200 to \$3,000 is proposed); second, those looking toward the establishment of definite professional and academic qualifications for all persons occupying teaching positions, and the consequent reorganization of the State system of certifying teachers; and third, those advising a fundamental revision of the common-school course of study with particular reference to the varying needs of urban and rural children.

The section on normal schools proposes certain standards for a satisfactory system of teacher preparation. They are, in brief:

1. The entrance requirements to normal schools should be raised to graduation from a four-year accredited high-school course.

2. The lowest grade of certificate to be issued by the normal schools should be two years above high-school graduation.

3. The ultimate standard of attainment for all persons teaching in the State should be graduation from an accredited high school and at least two years of professional preparation. (The committee recommends specific steps by which this standard may be enforced.) However, the process of elimination should be gradual to permit teachers in service to meet the new requirements without causing too great hardships.

4. The normal schools should offer differentiated courses of study two and three years in length based on high-school graduation. The certificates should eventually be given at the end of the two-year courses and the normal diploma at the end of the three-year courses.

5. The normal schools should organize a thoroughgoing extension service similar to the Iowa system for the teachers in service.

6. No license to teach should be made permanent until the candidate has given evidence of progressive scholarship. The State board of education should prepare courses of study including both professional and cultural subjects for the further training of teachers in service, and within five years of the time of the receipt of a provisional certificate every candidate should be required to pass examinations in the subjects included in these courses.

The legislative steps necessary to secure these ends are then presented in some detail. This is probably the most constructive portion of the whole report. If the provisions suggested are put into operation, Washington will have taken steps to put the training of its public-school teachers upon an advanced professional basis.

It has been said that the survey commission accepted the major part of the recommendations of the bureau's committee. The principal divergencies occur in the proposal made by the two bodies regarding the differentiation of the functions of the State University and the State College. The commission does not indorse the bureau's recommendation that pharmacy be abandoned as a major line at the State College, nor does it agree that there should be but one school of mines in the State.

The law providing for the support of the five higher institutions by a millage tax and specifying the portion of the tax to be assigned to each institution was enacted in 1911 and was to remain operative for six years. One of the commission's tasks was to examine the present rate and distribution of the millage tax and to report to the legislature of 1917 whatever modifications might appear desirable. Indeed, this was doubtless the most important of the commission's functions. The present tax is distributed as follows:

State University.....	.475
State College.....	.325
Bellingham State Normal School.....	.00
Cheney State Normal School.....	.00
Ellensburg State Normal School.....	.07
Total.....	1.05

Convinced by the detailed financial statements made in the bureau's report the commission, after long deliberation, unanimously recommended that the total tax appropriations for higher institutions should be for the immediate future 1.90 mills on every dollar of taxable property, this amount to be distributed among the institutions as follows:

State University.....	.90
State College.....	.55
Bellingham State Normal School.....	.18
Cheney State Normal School.....	.1425
Ellensburg State Normal School.....	.1275
Total.....	1.90

THE SURVEY OF THE STATE HIGHER INSTITUTIONS OF NORTH DAKOTA.

The last annual report gave an account of the legislation creating the State Board of Regents of North Dakota and providing, as a

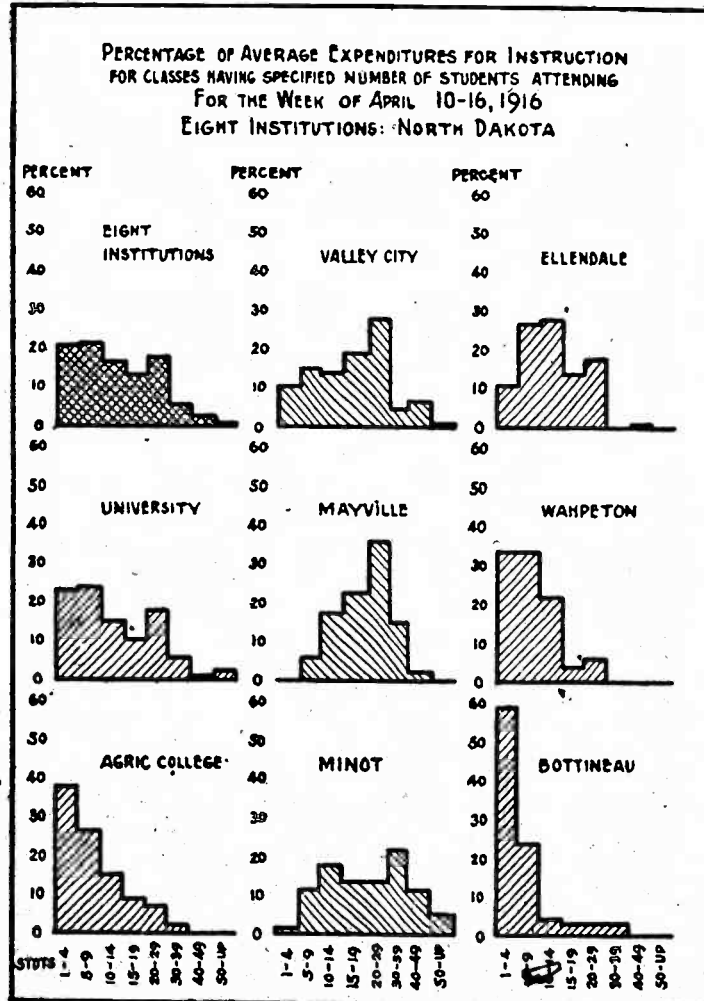


FIG. 1.—Percentage of average expenditures for instruction for the eight institutions of the North Dakota Survey. (Bulletin of the Bureau of Education, 1916, No. 27.)

preliminary to the appointment of the commissioner of education, the new board's executive officer, for an educational survey by a competent expert or experts of the nine institutions under the board's control. In the spring of 1915 the board invited Dr. E. B. Craig-

head, former president of the University of Montana, to take part in this survey. It also requested the assistance of the United States Commissioner of Education. The commissioner consented to lend the aid of the Bureau of Education in this enterprise if the survey might be made under his general direction. To this the State board of regents consented. The commissioner accordingly appointed the following committee to take charge of the survey: Dr. William T. Bawden, specialist in industrial education, Bureau of Education (chairman); Dr. Edwin B. Craighead, former president of the University of Montana; Dr. Lotus D. Coffman, professor of education, University of Minnesota. The Commissioner of Education was intimately associated with the work of the survey through its course and assisted in the preparation of the report. The report was filed with the State board of regents in July, 1916. It covered the following topics:

1. General statement.
2. Bill creating State board of regents.
3. Laws touching public education in North Dakota.
4. The State of North Dakota.
5. Maps and statistical tables.
6. An efficient State system of education.
7. Preliminary survey.
8. The University of North Dakota.
9. The agricultural college.
10. The normal schools of North Dakota and their relation to the rural schools.
11. The industrial schools:
 - (1) The State School of Forestry, at Bottineau.
 - (2) The North Dakota Academy of Science, at Wahpeton.
 - (3) Normal and Industrial School, at Ellendale.
12. The State Library Commission.
13. Rural population and the rural schools.
14. The high schools of North Dakota.
15. The classification and standardization of educational institutions.
16. Summary of recommendations.
17. Conclusions.

The document, somewhat revised, has since been published as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education (1916, No. 27).

In addition to the statistical material similar in content though not always in form to that presented in the other reports just discussed, the survey contains a novel analysis of the size of sections at the institutions studied and the proportion of the total expenditure for teaching devoted to the instruction of classes of various sizes. Each institution was asked to prepare a detailed report on the number of students in attendance during a single week, the week of April 10, 1916. The results are summarized thus:

During the week in question there were 143 meetings of classes at which only one student was in attendance, 195 classes at which two students were

present, 116 classes at which three students were present, 208 classes at which four students were present; a total of 662 classes in the eight institutions having less than five students in attendance. These 662 classes constitute slightly more than one-fifth—20.6 per cent—of the entire number of classes meeting during the week, 3,213.

That is, assuming an average cost per meeting of a class, 20.6 per cent of the cost of instruction for the week was incurred for the maintenance of classes having less than five students each. Or, to put it another way, of every dollar expended for instruction, 20.6 cents was expended for classes of one to four students each.

The table accompanying this discussion shows for each institution the number of meetings of classes having specified numbers of students and reveals the wide institutional variations, not indicated in the summary just quoted. The facts with relation to the cost of each of these groups of classes are graphically represented in the figure on the opposite page.

Among the recommendations in the report which will probably be of greatest interest to students of State education the following may be noted:

The commission recommends substantially the same differentiation of the school of education at the university and the department of education at the agricultural college as was recommended by the bureau's committee in Washington.

It counsels the assignment as major lines to the university of music, all branches of engineering to be given, except agricultural and industrial engineering, of advanced training in the liberal arts and pure sciences, and of professional work in law and medicine.

It recommends that agriculture, professional and technical training in home economics, and pharmacy be considered major lines at the agricultural college.

It declares that the work of the normal schools should for the present be confined to the preparation of elementary teachers. Recommendations for the elevation of the standards of academic and professional training of teachers similar to those proposed in the Washington report are made. The establishment of a normal school in the southwest quarter of the State is also urged.

The commission expresses the opinion that the school of science at Wahpeton should for the present be a school of science, agriculture, and mechanic arts of secondary grade. The school of forestry at Bottineau should be maintained as a special secondary school of agriculture, and the work in forestry should be transferred to the agricultural college.

On August 1, 1916, the State board of regents appointed Dr. Craighead commissioner of education.

EDUCATIONAL AND FINANCIAL STATISTICS IN PRESIDENTS'
REPORTS AND REPORTS OF SPECIAL COMMITTEES.

Allusion has been made to the growing tendency among progressive colleges and universities to survey themselves, to gather as careful a statistical record of their vital operations as possible, and

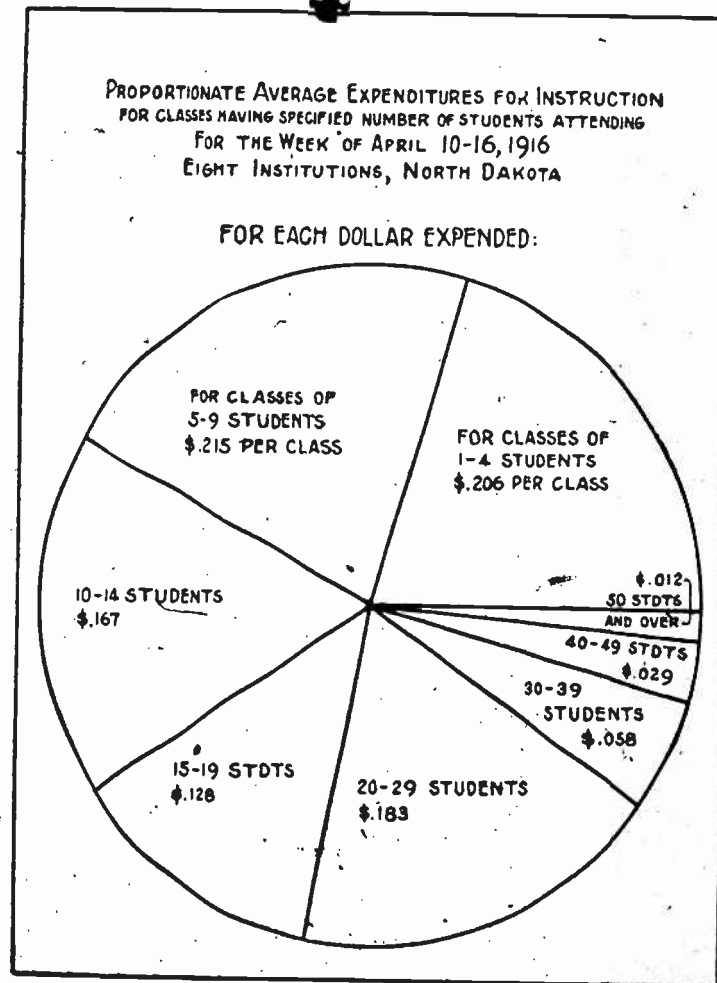


FIG. 2.—Proportionate average expenditure for various groups of classes of North Dakota institutions, as shown in the North Dakota survey report. (Bulletin of the Bureau of Education, 1916, No. 27.)

to make use of these facts in deciding upon new policies. There has also been a gratifying disposition to make such facts public. It might be well in passing to note that nothing a college can do serves better to strengthen the public confidence in the integrity and efficiency of its management.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON COSTS OF THE COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

One of the most exhaustive and valuable studies of the type just referred to is the report of the committee on costs of the College of the City of New York. This committee was appointed from the faculty of the institution in October, 1914, in response to a resolution of the board of trustees requesting a report showing comparisons of the cost per student, the salaries per grade, and the hours of instruction of the teaching staff in the College of the City of New York and in similar institutions of standing in the country. The committee, reporting in the spring of 1915, calls attention to several facts and situations worth recapitulating here.

In the first place it points out the difficulty of ascertaining the cost per student. It says:

A comparison of costs requires detailed information concerning all of the factors which enter into the calculation of the figures compared. This information is available in only a very few exceptional instances. Colleges and universities in general have not adopted any system of cost accounting which enables them to state the cost per student. Even in the few cases in which any effort has been made to determine the cost the meaning of the result has not been clearly defined. For cost is the result of interest charges and of teaching, of operating, and of administrative expenses. Moreover, one must know the kind of work for which the cost is given. College curricula differ within wide limits, both as to courses pursued and as to the weekly attendance required for their completion. Until there is a standardized college degree the cost at one place may not be compared with the cost elsewhere, unless both the quantity and quality of the work accomplished are known.

A very complete analysis of the cost at the College of the City of New York follows, showing the expense in each of the principal divisions of the college for teaching, for operation, and for administration, and the variations in these factors in the cases of students taking different kinds of courses. These data are still further refined to show the expense per student hour in various subjects and in prescribed or elective work. Coming to a comparison of costs of the College of the City of New York and other institutions, the committee finds itself almost wholly without trustworthy information and unable through correspondence to secure any. (It, perhaps, is worth emphasizing again in this connection what has already several times been noted by university officials, namely, that among the most needed investigations in the whole field of higher educational administration is the exploration of this *terra incognita* of cost accounting.)

It is forced in the end to compile from a bulletin, published by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in 1908, on "The financial status of the professor in America and in Ger-

many," an admittedly unsatisfactory table, showing for a group of institutions similar in organization to the City College, the appropriations for salaries, the number of students, and the quotient obtained by dividing the former by the latter. This it labels "Salary teaching expense per student." As salaries increased on the average $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent between 1908 and 1913, the committee includes another column in its table which estimates the salary expense per student in the same institutions in 1913 by increasing the salary expense figures of 1908 $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. While this table lays no claim to strict accuracy, the figures are probably sufficiently indicative of actual costs in these institutions to be illuminating. It is interesting to observe that the salary teaching expense per student in the 42 institutions considered ranged in 1908 from \$63.60 paid by the North Dakota Agricultural College to \$440.25 paid by Clark University. These figures can not, of course, be compared at all with the figures of the cost-per student published in the reports of the Iowa and Washington surveys. Nevertheless the committee's investigation of the College of the City of New York makes possible a comparison of costs per student at that institution and at the institutions recently studied by the Bureau of Education.

The total cost per college student at the College of the City of New York, including expense for teaching, for operation, and for administration, was, depending on the course in which the student was registered, \$248.18, \$325.65, or \$265.80. (The average salary teaching expense per student at the City College was \$185.05.)

Of the many interesting tables in this report, but two more can be mentioned here. The first of these shows the weekly periods of instruction given in 1908 by college teachers in typical subjects at the institutions accepted by the Carnegie Foundation, at State universities, and at the College of the City of New York. The average number of periods of instruction or "teaching hours" weekly in all "accepted" institutions was 11.7; in State universities, 13.8; and at the College of the City of New York, 15.7. Later scattering returns indicate a tendency on the part of the stronger institutions to reduce still further the number of periods of instruction carried by the faculty. The other table (table 1 of the report) presents the summary of the institutional budget for the year 1915. In view of its simplicity and its admirable arrangement (also for the purpose of comparison with the scheme for recording expenses used in the Washington and Iowa surveys), the table is printed below.

32 RECENT MOVEMENTS IN UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION.

College of City of New York—Summary of budget for 1915.

Teaching, \$509,317 (75.1 per cent).	Salaries, instructional, day (for teaching).....	\$401,970.00
	Salaries, instructional, evening, and extension.....	14,904.00
	Salaries, regular employees (assistants).....	8,726.00
	Educational equipment.....	13,512.00
	Educational supplies.....	5,205.00
	Educational repairs (to apparatus).....	3,000.00
		509,317.00
Operation and maintenance, \$94,278 (13.9 per cent).	Janitorial service.....	18,905.00
	Operation of plant and equipment.....	26,899.00
	Repairs to plant and equipment.....	23,582.00
	Supplies for plant and equipment.....	23,376.00
	Equipment (new).....	1,113.00
	Fire alarm and general plant service.....	393.00
		94,278.00
Administration, \$71,491 (11 per cent).	Salary, acting president.....	7,500.00
	Salaries, instructional, day (for administration).....	28,980.00
	Salaries, instructional, evening, and extension (stated).....	1,088.00
	Salaries, regular employees (T. H. H. and Lib.).....	7,150.00
	Salaries, regular employees, president's office.....	8,507.00
	Salaries, regular employees, curator's office.....	11,300.00
	Equipment, supplies, service, contingencies.....	9,906.00
		71,491.00
Total		678,086.00
Budget for 1914.....		680,963.62

THE REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT OF SMITH COLLEGE.

The annual report of the president of Smith College for the year 1914-15 contains careful statistical analyses of the conditions of work of both students and teachers, of the sources, from which the student body comes, of the previous preparation of students; of the rate and causes of mortality, and of several other matters of less general concern. Three tables in particular will prove of special interest to students of college administration. The first of these summarizes the work of the 22 departments of the college. It shows by classes (freshman, sophomore, etc.) the number of students engaged in the study of each subject during both semesters and the number of student hours¹ given by each department. For example, the department of art (the first on the list) registered in the first semester 162 freshmen, who received 207 student hours of instruction. It registered 62 sophomores, giving them 96 student hours of instruction. Its total registration for the first semester from all classes was 557, and the total number of student hours it offered was 1,076. As to the amount of instruction given, measured by student hours, the department ranked ninth among the 22 departments. This table is rendered

¹ The fact should not be overlooked that the "student hour" used in President Burton's report and mentioned in the account just given of the report of the committee of the College of the City of New York is a different unit from the "student clock hour." The latter is defined on p. 20. The "student hour" count would be the same for courses made up wholly of recitations or lectures, but different for laboratory courses. For example, such a course in chemistry as is mentioned above (p. 20) would count but four "student hours" at most.

still more valuable by the addition of another, which shows the size and number of class sections and the number of hours a week that each section is given. The totals in this table will doubtless prove especially illuminating to college executives. It appears, for instance, that there were in nonlaboratory courses 57 classes, or 19 per cent of the total number of classes, enrolling less than 10 students each; 79, or 26.6 per cent of the total number, enrolling from 10 to 20 students each; 70, or 23.6 per cent of the total number, enrolling from 20 to 30 students each. Four per cent of the total number of classes enrolled from 50 to 75 students. As a distress signal, to call the attention of administrative officers both to financial leaks caused by unduly expensive organization and to possible pedagogical weaknesses, this item of statistical study can not be too highly commended. It may be of interest to record in passing that the bureau's investigations showed 39 per cent of the total number of classes (laboratory and nonlaboratory combined) at the State University of Iowa, 27.5 per cent at the Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts to have enrolled less than 10 students each.

Studies of college enrollment made by the General Education Board¹ have established certain truths with regard to the size of what might be called the "magnetic field" of the college. Briefly stated, they are that a college commonly draws the major portion of its students from within a radius of 50 miles, very few from outside a radius of 100 miles, and few from outside the State in which it is located. The percentages fluctuate, of course, as the result of peculiar local influences. The area from which several of the older institutions in the East and a few of the women's colleges draw their student bodies is vastly more extended. The importance of knowing the actual extent and the boundaries of an institution's field is apparent without argument, especially in these days of diverse secondary curricula.

A third valuable table of the Smith College report is one showing the geographical distribution of the student body by States and by foreign countries. It appears from this table that but 40 per cent of the present student body are from the New England States, 38.5 per cent come from the Central States, and 21 per cent from the Western States. Moreover, these percentages have remained substantially constant for the last five years. Few institutions exhibit such a far-flung battle line. The observer whose sources of information concerning the administration of this college are confined to its printed documents is prompted to discover a causal relationship between these facts and certain recent changes in the institution's educational policies (see especially p. 37).

¹ See General Education Board Report, 1902-1914, p. 119 et seq.

REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT, DEANS, AND OTHER OFFICERS OF
MIAMI UNIVERSITY.

A previous report (see Report of Commissioner of Education, 1914, pp. 174 and 175) called attention to several intensive studies of important aspects of educational and financial administration made at Miami University. The report of the president, deans, and other officers of this institution for the year 1915-16 is replete with graphical and tabular records of various phases of institutional activity which thus far have been seldom analyzed. In fact, the statistical portion of this report presents what is practically a survey of the scholastic and fiscal operations of the university conducted by its own officers. A description of several of the recording devices forms an appropriate part of this discussion.

The scope of instruction in the college of liberal arts is set forth in a table which shows for each department the following facts: The number of full-time instructors, the credit hours given by the department per semester, the average number of hours (i. e., hours of teaching weekly) per instructor, the average number of students in the department, the average number of students per instructor, the number of credit hours in each department taught in classes of more than 20, the number of credit hours taught in classes of less than 10, the per cent of hours taught in classes of more than 20, and the per cent of hours taught in classes of less than 10. A portion of the table is reprinted here.

Miami University—Instructors and hours of instruction.

Departments.	Number full-time instructors.	Credit hours per semester.	Average hours per instructor.	Average number students in department.	Average number students per instructor.	Number credit hours taught in classes of more than 20.	Number credit hours taught in classes of less than 10.	Per cent of hours taught in classes of more than 20.	Per cent of hours taught in classes of less than 10.
Language and literature:									
English	3.75	47.5	12.66	369	98	36	3.5	75	
Public speaking	1.15	14	12.17	105	91	2	7.5	11	
Latin	1.25	18	14.40	44	35		7.0		
Greek	1.00	17	17.00	48	68	7	7.0	41	
Roman language	2.60	38	14.60	207	80	35		92	
German	2.00	28	14.00	142	71	15	2.5	54	8
Total	11.90	162.6	13.80	935	78	95	27.5	58	17

It will be apparent that this table reveals at a glance several matters concerning which it is of the utmost importance that the administrative officers of the institution be fully informed. For instance, it shows the gross burden borne by the teaching force of each department (the department is here the unit of administration) and the average distribution of it, whether any department is under or

overmanned, and the extent of departmental contacts with the student body. The officers of Miami University have set 20 as the ideal size of the college class. This table shows also, therefore, the degree to which class enrollments approximate this ideal. Comment on the table brings out certain other interesting facts. It appears that in one year the growth in enrollment has resulted in nearly doubling the percentage of the hours of instruction given in classes numbering more than 20. Last year but 33 per cent of the total hours of instruction was given in classes of more than 20. This year the percentage is 62. On the other hand the administration has succeeded in reducing in the same period the proportion of instruction given in classes numbering less than 10. Last year 25 per cent of the total hours of instruction was given in classes of this size; this year but 15 per cent.

This table is reinforced by several others in other parts of the report. Chief among these is one entitled "Burden of teaching," which shows the "student hours" carried by each member of the staff for the academic years 1913-14 and 1914-15, and the "student clock hours" carried by each in 1915-16. (The change in the unit of measurement was made this year in the belief that the student clock hour is a more accurate index of the pressure on each instructor. (See pp. 20-21.)

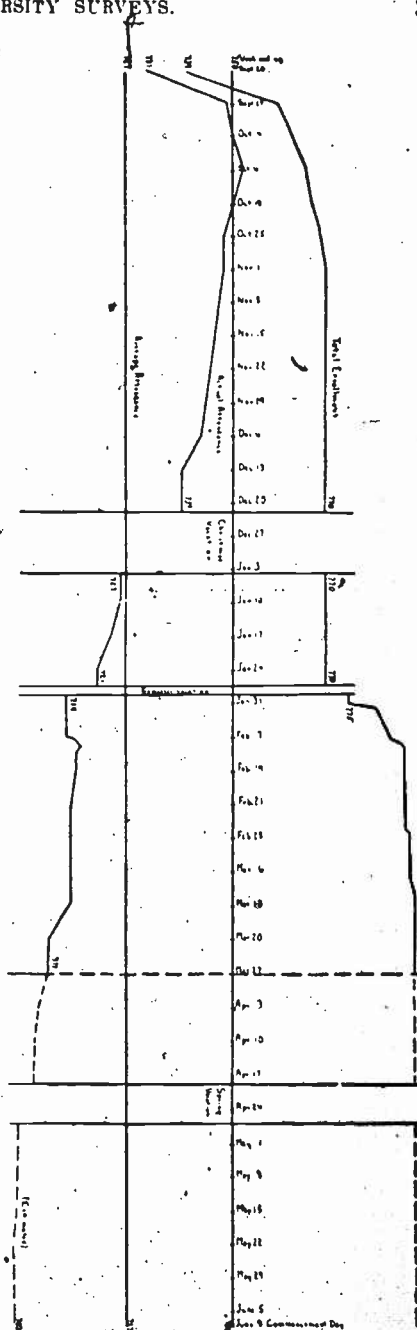


FIG. 3.—Chart of enrollment and attendance, Miami University, 1915-16.

The heading to the table posits 300 student clock hours per week as the ideal load (compare review of Iowa survey report, p. 21), and states that the load at Drexel Institute, the only other institution known to have used the same unit in estimating the burden carried by the faculty, was found to be 320 student clock hours. Some of the Miami institutional averages appear in the following summary:

Total load, first semester, 1913-14, 5364 student credit hours; average, 214.

Total load, first semester, 1914-15, 6236 student credit hours; average, 234.

Total load, first semester, 1915-16, 7323 student clock hours; average, 251.

The use of the "average attendance" instead of the catalogue enrollment as the divisor in the determination of per capita cost was described in connection with the discussion of the report of the Iowa survey (see p. 18). An illuminating graphical representation of the discrepancy between total enrollment and actual attendance, indicating the justice of taking the "average attendance" as the true measure in estimating institutional needs, is furnished in a graphic chart (see p. 35).

COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS.

For many reasons the current status of college entrance requirements is of very great significance. The college of arts and sciences, the original germ from which American higher education sprung, is still the nucleus of the whole system. The growth of professional schools and the development of new technical and semitechnical curricula have not displaced it in the popular interest or diverted official attention from its peculiar problems. There continue to radiate from the college more impulses affecting higher education in general than from any other department. Hence changes in entrance requirements inaugurated by any large institution or adopted over any considerable geographical area are likely to be important. They may indicate the development of new purposes and new standards which eventually will have influence on all that is included in the university. Moreover, entrance requirements affect the point of contact between the college and the public-school system. A change of procedure at this point may register an alteration of the barometric pressure of the whole scheme of secondary and higher education.

No radical new tendencies have manifested themselves in the year under review. There has, however, been an interesting extension of certain movements already described in previous reports.

COMPREHENSIVE EXAMINATIONS.

Undoubtedly the method of admission represented by the Harvard new plan and the Yale new or alternative plan (see commissioner's report for 1915, p. 148), including as the determining feature the

"comprehensive examination," is the most original and important contribution to educational practice as affecting the relations of secondary schools and colleges since the adoption by middle western institutions of the policy of admission by certificate.¹ The method has evidently commended itself to a large number of colleges of the North Atlantic section. The action of the College Entrance Examination Board² in voting to prepare comprehensive examination papers for the use of such colleges in its membership as admit on that basis constituted an unreserved indorsement of the plan by the organization which is probably at once the most influential and the most conservative of all those that deal with the problem of the articulation of college and secondary school. In view of this indorsement it is not surprising that several of the strongest institutions of the Northeast have adopted or propose to adopt the new method, with unessential modifications.

Prophecy is generally dangerous, but the prediction may in this case be ventured that this plan of determining fitness for college work is likely to have a still wider vogue in the immediate future. Strong dissatisfaction both with the old-fashioned examination system and with the certificate method of admission prevails among conscientious college officers throughout the country. The former is believed to offer no true test of power. On the other hand it puts a premium on memorizing facility and the ability to absorb information for temporary use under the cramming process. The latter is hard to administer effectively. By making the equipment and standards of the school from which the candidate comes the criterion for judging his eligibility for admission, it often fails to discriminate between good and bad preparation of the individual. It encourages also the purely quantitative measurement of scholastic attainments. The new plan is thought to combine the excellencies and to avoid the defects of both the current methods of admission. It preserves the flexibility of the certificate system while imposing the individual test for which the entrance examination was primarily designed. Furthermore it emphasizes especially the quality of the candidate's preparation.

Haverford College has reported to the bureau the adoption within the past year of a plan of admission under which the candidate submits a certified school record and passes comprehensive examinations in a few subjects.

¹ The essential feature of the plan is that it combines the certificate and examination methods of admission. The candidate presents a certificate from the secondary school testifying to the quantity of the work covered. The college takes a sample of the quality by examining him in four subjects. The examination is designed to test the candidate's general knowledge of a given subject and his intellectual power, not to ascertain whether he has mastered a prescribed book or course.

² Referred to in the last report of the commissioner, p. 140.

The four large certifying colleges for women in the Northeast, Mount Holyoke, Smith, Vassar, and Wellesley, have announced that they will together adopt a similar plan to replace the certificate system in September, 1919. Any candidate may enter under this plan prior to 1919 by passing the comprehensive examinations now offered by the College Entrance Examination Board and furnishing the required evidence from the secondary school attended. In minor details the plan proposed by these four institutions differs from that already enforced at Harvard, Yale, and Princeton. The evidence submitted by the secondary school must include an estimate of the candidate's scholarly interests, special ability, and character. Considerable latitude of choice is allowed the candidate in the selection of the comprehensive examinations to be taken. One examination may be in either English or history, one in a foreign language to be selected by the applicant, one in mathematics or chemistry or physics, and the fourth in some other subject offered for admission, the committee on admission concurring, however, in the candidate's choice. It is proposed that the persons who judge these examinations shall not resort to numerical or alphabetical grading, but shall indicate by verbal comments the extent to which the papers reveal the candidate's fitness to undertake college work. The new plan is not, at the outset at least, to affect the content of the entrance requirements imposed by each of the four colleges. The special prescriptions of each are to remain in full force and only those candidates will be admitted to the comprehensive examinations who satisfy the committee on admission of the college to which entrance is sought that these prescriptions have been met.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN NEW HAMPSHIRE.

In the commissioner's report for 1914, page 163 and following, an account was given of the objections raised by certain of the New England State departments of education to the alleged domination of high-school education in New England by the New England College Entrance Certificate Board. It was there pointed out that the entrance requirements of the constituent colleges of the board were regarded by several of the chief State school officers as too conservative, and that through the immense influence and prestige of the board this conservatism was carried over to the secondary schools oftentimes, these officers believed, to the disadvantage of their respective communities.¹

¹ It is interesting to note in this connection that at a conference held during the Christmas recess of 1915 of representatives of the certifying boards of the country—the New England board, the North Central Association, the associations of the Middle States and of the South—the conclusion was reached that in New England only is there any certificate board that has done really effective work in making a certificate practically equal to an examination. In other parts of the country the list of approved schools is merely an honor list, which the colleges follow or not, as they please. No special certificate grade is required of pupils, but a mere passing grade entitles them to a certificate.

In order that the high schools of New Hampshire at least might be free to adapt their curricula to practical local needs without fear of being outlawed, the State superintendent advocated the establishment of a State university, which should adapt itself to the work done by the high schools and should raise no "artificial and arbitrary obstacles in the pathway of education."

An announcement of changes in the basis of admission to New Hampshire College appears to indicate that this institution is preparing to establish a cooperative relationship with the State department of public instruction similar to that which exists between the State universities and the State education departments of certain other States. The college has voted to admit any graduate from a high school or academy approved by the State department of public instruction on the basis of his graduation, without a special certificate formerly required, provided the division entrance requirements of the college have been met. In the agricultural and arts and science divisions these division requirements comprise seven prescribed and eight elective units; in the engineering division eight units are prescribed and seven elective. The latitude thus granted to the schools in the determination of the content of the secondary curriculum for those who plan to attend the State college is considerable. A bulletin recently issued by the college states that the institution wishes to stand in much the same relation to the high schools and academies which the latter occupy with reference to the grammar schools. The bulletin also quotes a letter from State Superintendent Morrison, which comments to this effect on another aspect of the new plan:

It means that the high school can no longer have, as it has had in some cases in the past, one standard for graduation and another standard for certification to college. It means that the high school * * * must do sincere and frank work with all who are within its doors and graduate nobody about whose education it is at all in doubt.

New Hampshire possesses but two institutions recognized as of college grade by the Bureau of Education. Recent modifications of the basis for admission to Dartmouth College are therefore of special interest. Dartmouth, which was one of the original members of the New England College Entrance Certificate Board, has now retired from that body and has inaugurated a new method of selecting the schools whose pupils shall have the privilege of admission by certificate. The college announces that it desires to promote more personal and less perfunctory relations with the schools which prepare candidates for admission. These it proposes to establish by means of a personal visitation by the executive secretary of the committee on admissions or some other member of the faculty. In granting the

certificate privilege hereafter the committee on admission will consider—

- (1) The report of the faculty visitor.
- (2) The record of graduates of the school who have entered Dartmouth, if any.
- (3) The standing of the school in the rating of the State department of education and other certifying bodies.
- (4) The information contained in the application blank submitted by the principal of the school.

In deciding upon any application attention will be paid to—

- (1) The quality of instruction as influenced by training of teachers, pupils per teacher, and classes per teacher.
- (2) The equipment of the school, including library and laboratory facilities.
- (3) The course of study indicated by length of school year, length of actual teaching period, number of recitations a week in each subject, provision for concentration on certain subjects, and opportunity for the study of electives.

The college holds a different opinion from that expressed by the officers of New Hampshire College, however, with respect to the parity of high-school graduation and the certifying standard. It urges principals signing certificates to make sure of the ability of the pupil to gain profit from a college course such as Dartmouth offers. The college sets no definite mark which must be gained before a pupil shall be certified; it views with apprehension, however, the assurance of a certificate to a pupil whose standing was below 85; in uncertain cases entrance examinations may be taken, and the responsibility for the pupil's fitness placed upon the college.

INCREASES IN THE AMOUNT OF ENTRANCE CREDITS DEMANDED.

The reaction against merely quantitative estimates of college preparation, which is represented by the spread of the new plan of admission in the Northeast, is by no means universal. In other sections emphasis continues to be placed chiefly on the amount of ground covered. Especially is this the case in those parts of the country where lax standards of admission have prevailed in the past. In these quarters it is undoubtedly wise for institutions to make sure first that candidates have undergone at least a reasonable minimum of secondary training. Closer discriminations as to the quality of the training may be set up by later enactments.

The development of public (and to some extent even of private) secondary schools has been seriously hampered in certain States by an oversupply of colleges, the majority of which depend in large measure on students' fees for support. These States have witnessed an annual scramble for recruits which has ignored the interest of the public in the establishment of sound secondary schools and has too often made a mockery of college standards. More than one

State school officer has complained that it is impossible to maintain a four-year high school within 20 miles of some of the more aggressive of these needy colleges. High-school students of the third and even of the second years are lured away by the promise of collegiate rating. The resulting burden of conditions has also been found to vanish during the college course without undue effort on the part of the students thus ostensibly handicapped. So a vicious circle has been established which has prevented both the development of the public-school system and the realization of true collegiate standards.

South Carolina has been one of the States which has suffered from these conditions. The State Education Department lists 20 colleges for whites, 14 of which are recognized by the Bureau of Education (the total white population of the State is less than three-quarters of a million). In 1914-15 the department recorded a total high-school enrollment of 10,481 and a total of but 673 pupils above the third high-school year. The difficulty of building up four-year high schools (but 41 schools are listed by the department as having fourth-year students) has been greatly increased by the readiness of some of the colleges to accept pupils with but two or three years of high-school training. Concerted steps toward improving the situation were taken in April, 1915, when the South Carolina Association of Colleges passed the following resolutions designed to serve as a minimum standard for entrance:

1. That for the session of 1915-16 the colleges shall admit by certificate only those students who have completed not less than a three-year high-school course, or its equivalent.
2. That examinations for entrance shall be based in 1915-16 on not less than a three-year high-school course.
3. That for the session of 1916-17 no student shall be accepted on certificate who offers less than 12 units as defined by the high-school inspector.
4. That no advanced standing be given to a high-school graduate, except on examination.
5. The committee recommends that it shall be the established policy of the association to discourage students from coming from any community that maintains a four-year high-school course until they shall have completed the fourth year.

A number of other institutions in various parts of the country have reported to the Bureau of Education increases in the quantitative requirements for admission. Thus, for example, H. Sophie Newcomb Memorial College, Maryland Agricultural College, Oregon Agricultural College, and Washington and Lee University have raised their entrance requirements to 15 units. Baldwin-Wallace College has increased its requirements for conditioned entrance from 12 to 13 units, and the requirements for full standing from 14 to 15 units. The University of Oklahoma, which required 15 units for full standing, has raised its requirements for conditioned en-

trance from 12 to 14 units. The College of Industrial Arts at Denton, Tex., has raised its regular requirements to 14 units.

A STUDY OF PENSIONS AND INSURANCE FOR COLLEGE TEACHERS.

Special reports of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching generally command the thoughtful attention of those who have to do with higher education in the United States. Bulletin No. 9, 1916, of the foundation, "A comprehensive plan of insurance and annuities for college teachers," by Henry S. Pritchett, president of the Carnegie Foundation, will probably be viewed as a noteworthy contribution to the literature of a subject in which as yet few scientific studies have been made. The conclusions reached on a matter of vital interest to all college teachers are likely to be regarded both by boards of trustees and by college faculties as of the highest importance. The preliminary statement points out that the report describes a plan of relief which it is believed will protect the teacher against the life hazards incident to his calling, which is secure and permanent, which is within the reach of the teacher and of his college, and which takes into account not only the interest of the teacher but those of his employer and also those of the general public.

The paragraphs quoted below from the preliminary statement indicate the general scope of the report.

Two main risks confront the man entering the career of a teacher, affecting the welfare of himself and those dependent on him—first, the risk of premature death during his productive life; second, the risk of dependence when his income-earning power declines. The first can be met only by some form of insurance, the second, by some form of annuity. The solution here presented consists of a combination of insurance at cost with an annuity available at a definite age. The scheme is based upon the conception that the man who is assured of a pension at a definite age, let us say 65, is in a different position with respect to insurance from the man who has no such pension secured to him. He desires to be protected in a definite risk over a given period just as he might insure a house against the risk of fire for a given term. His need is therefore met by term insurance, which affords the requisite protection to his family during the productive period of life—during which, also, insurance is cheapest. The report points out in detail the saving which would be effected as compared with insurance furnished in any other way, and shows that a teacher of modest salary can afford to carry insurance of this sort, of adequate amount, without financial burden. For example, a man at 30 can carry term insurance of \$5,000 to end at 65, at a cost of about \$5 a month. Teachers who now carry insurance generally spend far more than this on small and expensive policies.

The report gives in detail similar information regarding the kinds of annuities which can be purchased by a reasonable sum paid in year by year and accumulating over a term of years. It emphasizes the fact that when an ideal system is to be considered, the problem must be approached from the point of

view of the teacher entering the service rather than from the point of view of the teacher grown old and ready to leave it. Nearly half the teachers who enter at 30 will die before the pensionable age.

Assuming such a system of insurance and old-age pensions as meeting the wants of the teacher, the next question is, Who is to pay for it?

With this matter the report deals in detail. It seeks to make clear that the financial responsibility for the protection of a man's family and for his own security in old age rests upon himself. To lift this responsibility wholly from the shoulders of the teaching profession is neither wise nor is it desired by college teachers. They prefer to pay their fair proportion of such an obligation. The replies already made to this plan make this clear.

The teacher, in an economic sense, is an employee of a corporation; and all corporations, whether they be governments, business firms, or universities, have a direct pecuniary interest in maintaining a pension system which makes it possible for men to retire in decent comfort as their productive powers diminish through age. This economic reason is strengthened by the responsibility which the social conscience of mankind lays upon all employers to take some part in advancing the well-being and happiness of those whom they employ.

Although concerned primarily with the establishment of a pension system for college teachers, the report discusses the pensioning of public employees in general and records the experience of several countries with various forms of old-age relief. Two plans have been followed, the reserve plan and the cash-disbursement plan. Under the former, "the necessary reserve for each beneficiary is set aside year by year. This, with accumulated interest, will provide the pension when it may become due." Under the second, "Pensions are paid out of current funds, such as are provided by Government appropriations or from an endowment or from the general income of an institution." Attractive as the free pension system has appeared to various groups of workers who have sought it, it has, the report declares, proved itself insecure and expensive. "Pension systems based upon the cash-disbursement plan and offering a free pension have in the great majority of cases broken down through their great cost unless upheld by the resources of a government. Even in the case of governmental pensions, the cost has mounted to such proportions as to endanger the permanency of the system." Examples of the enormous ultimate cost of such a system are numerous. In Berlin, in 1914, the pension roll of the civil service, excluding the police, amounted to 36.92 per cent of the pay of the active list. In 1915 the percentage ratio of the pension roll to the pay roll of the London Metropolitan police was 29.3 (in 1854 it was but 8.5). In Austria, in spite of the fact that civil-service employees contribute to the maintenance of the pension system, the pension load has become a serious burden. In 1912 the pension cost of the civil list was 33 per cent of the cost of the pay of the active list.

Moreover, the report states that in addition to its insecurity the non-contributory pension paid on the cash-disbursement plan is in the end the dearest to the beneficiary. It concludes that:

A pension system on the reserve plan, sustained by the joint contributions of the employer and employee, is not only the fairest and the most equitable form of pension system, but it is the only one in which the cost can be ascertained in advance, in which the question of pension is separated from the question of pay, and it is the only form of pension which can be permanently secure.

These conclusions have been reached by the officers of the Carnegie Foundation after 10 years of experience with a different system and after constant study of an exceedingly complicated subject. The foundation has a large fund to administer for the payment of pensions to college teachers. The fund is to be used for no other purpose. The directors of the foundation decided in the beginning to spend the income of the fund for the payment of noncontributory pensions in a limited number of colleges and universities,¹ reserving the privilege of modifying the system from time to time as experience might dictate. The rapidly increasing load upon the foundation's income (due in part to the fact that the mortality experience of the foundation during the 10 years of its existence has been far below the most conservative tables and the cost correspondingly greater) points to the likelihood of the still further limitation of the field of its contributions in the future, unless some other plan of administration is adopted. President Pritchett believes, moreover, that the foundation will have fallen short of its original purpose if pensions are provided only in a relatively small group of institutions. The bulletin, therefore, not only outlines what the author conceives to be a desirable pension system for the colleges of the United States and Canada, but shows how the foundation may help to make possible the general adoption of such a system.

Two principal difficulties attend the establishment of a combined annuity and insurance scheme maintained on the reserve plan by the joint contributions of the teachers and the employing colleges, which is the kind of pension system the report advocates. The first of these obstacles is known under the term "accrued liabilities." There are many men past middle life, too old to participate in any relief plan, who must shortly be pensioned if a pension system is put into effect. The load of pensions already accumulated upon the lives of these men constitutes the "accrued liabilities" of the college. It has been a burden heavy enough to prevent many colleges from establishing a pension system and it can not be avoided. In effect, the foundation has been carrying the accrued liabilities of the colleges on its accepted list. "It seems to many who have given thought to these questions

¹ Seventy-three colleges and universities in the United States and Canada are now associated with the foundation.

that the time has now come to determine in what way the foundation may not only carry out its obligations to the colleges associated with it, but also seek to put into operation a permanent system for the protection of teachers and their dependents, applicable to all of the higher institutions of learning throughout the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland."

The other obstacle to the establishment of such a system is the impossibility of securing cheap insurance during the productive life of the worker through the ordinary commercial companies. The foundation might undertake this service, through the medium of a subagency. An arrangement might then be made whereby the Carnegie Foundation would furnish to the teacher insurance at cost, and "the college and teacher cooperate in the support of a system of annuities available at the minimum age of 65, when insurance ceases." What is believed to be the great advantage to the teacher and to the college of such an arrangement is illustrated in the following paragraphs:

Let us follow a case typical of the experience of the average teacher and of the average college. Starting a teacher as instructor at age 30, let us assume that a minimum insurance of \$5,000 and a minimum annuity of \$1,000 a year is decided upon. The annual cost of the two would amount to \$188.16, or about \$15.68 a month. Five years later the teacher finds himself in the possession of a salary \$500 larger than he had formerly, and he decides to devote \$100 a year to an increase in his protection. In view of the rapidity with which the cost of the annuity grows with years, he decides to put this into the form of an annuity, and thus obtains an increase of some \$600 in the annuity, which is thus brought up to \$1,600. Five years later, at the age of 40, finding himself again in possession of a still larger salary, he decides to take out \$5,000 more of insurance to end at age 65, which would cost him about \$75.

Should this teacher live to 65, he would have available for his use a retiring allowance of \$1,600. Should he continue in service three years longer but make no more payments, his retiring allowance would amount to \$1,987. His wife, in case she survived him, would share in this retiring allowance. Should this teacher die between the ages of 40 and 65, he would leave to his family an insurance of \$10,000 and his accumulated savings, which would amount in cash to the following sums at the respective ages:

Age at death:	Cash value of accumulated savings.
40	\$2,176.85
45	3,990.52
50	6,270.87
55	9,101.39
60	12,628.75
65	17,024.32

In comparison with the protection which this teacher and his family would enjoy, for a maximum cost of a dollar a day, the average college teacher and his family are practically unprotected. Yet his annual payments are only one and a half times those now made by teachers for life insurance alone. With the participation of his college this cost would be but little more than that now spent for inadequate insurance.

The report was originally presented as a confidential report to the trustees of the foundation. The board has not yet acted upon the proposals except to pass resolutions ordering the circulation of the report among the associated colleges and announcing "that whatever plan is finally adopted will be devised with scrupulous regard to the privileges and expectations which have been created under existing rules."

TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE.

The efforts of university administrators during the past two decades have been directed as never before toward the establishment of contacts between the university and the community which it serves. The movement, which received its first impetus from the early enterprises in the field of university extension, has ramified and spread until it includes cooperative activities almost too numerous to record. Coincidentally, the intramural work of the university itself has undergone a "sea-change." The division and subdivision of courses, the addition of specialized curricula designed to train persons for new technical and professional pursuits, all bear witness to the ready response of the modern university to the vocational demands of its constituency. To the observer who views American higher education as a whole, this endeavor to make the university in the broadest sense an instrument for public service will doubtless appear the most conspicuous present tendency.

A manifestation of this tendency, pregnant with possibilities for the development of greater governmental efficiency, is reported in the recent projects for the establishment of courses for the training of public servants which have been inaugurated by institutions in a number of the larger cities and by several State universities in the Middle West and Southwest. These projects have been promoted and fostered: First, by the committee on practical training for public service of the American Political Science Association; then by a national conference on universities and public service held in New York in May, 1914, and latterly by the Society for the Promotion of Training for Public Service, an organization created to cooperate with universities and governmental agencies in the formulation of plans and the circulation of propaganda looking to this end. The relation of this movement to certain of the purposes of the Association of Urban Universities (mentioned in the report of the commissioner for the year 1915, p. 154) will be apparent.

The character and scope of the training contemplated are indicated by excerpts from the recommendations of two institutional committees reporting during the academic year just ended. It will be noted that cooperation not only with governmental agencies in the actual work of administration, but with other educational organiza-

tions, is included in both plans. A special committee on training for public service, appointed by President Butler, of Columbia University, recommended in part as follows:

1. Two or three years of regular college training, including elementary government, economics, etc.

2. One year of special training embracing the following subjects: (a) Municipal government (specialized course); (b) administrative law; (c) public and municipal accounting; (d) office and works management; (e) public finance and budget making; (f) institutions of public welfare; (g) city planning and social surveys; (h) technique of investigation and inquiry; (i) statistics and reporting, including instruction in English and graphic methods of presentation.

3. One year of contact or field work and observation. This work should be done (under the direction of the standing committee on training for public service hereinafter described) in New York City departments or in cooperation with the Bureau of Municipal Research and Training School for Public Service in such a manner that each student may secure practical experience in—(a) budget making; (b) the investigation of several branches of public administration; (c) the preparation of reports and recommendation on the basis of ascertained results; (d) the practice of presenting oral statements of results in short form.

Among the recommendations for immediate action were:

6. That upon recommendation of the standing committee the extension division of the university, in cooperation with the several technical and professional schools of the university, shall offer special courses of instruction for persons already in the civil service of New York City who desire to increase their knowledge and efficiency and to prepare for promotions, and that these courses be offered at such times and places as may be convenient to civil servants.

7. That provision be made for cooperating with the Training School for Public Service in New York City on the following basis:

(a) Exchange of students. That Columbia University shall admit without charge to courses of instruction in the university students from the training school to such a number as the university committee on training for public service may deem an adequate return for the facilities offered to the students of Columbia University by the training school.

(b) Exchange of instructors. That professors in Columbia University may, by arrangement with the Training School for Public Service, offer courses of instruction at the training school and that such courses may, on approval by the appropriate authority, be counted as equivalent to courses offered at the university. That members of the staff of the training school may, on the recommendation of the faculty concerned and the trustees of the university, be authorized to offer courses of instruction in the university.

(c) Credit for field work. That the graduate faculties of Columbia University, or any one of them adopting this provision, shall, on recommendation of the dean and the above university committee on public service, grant credit for work done in the Training School for Public Service, provided that in no case shall the credit granted exceed the value of one minor and such additional credit toward the major as the professor in charge shall allow. Provided further that in every case such work in the training school shall be done under the general supervision of the professor of Columbia University in charge of the students' major subject and with the approval of the dean.

A committee on municipal-service survey, appointed by President Mezes, of the College of the City of New York, recommended:

- (1) That there be appointed at the college a director of public-service training. It shall be the duty of this officer to keep a record of all municipal positions which are open to college students, and the subjects and dates of approaching examinations. He shall also establish at the college in cooperation with the municipal civil-service commission an intelligence office or clearing house for civil-service positions, and he shall be prepared to advise students as to the courses and methods to be pursued in preparation for such positions. He shall confer with the civil-service commissioners and chief examiners as to the relation between college instruction and civil service as to examinations, standards, credit for field work, and eligibility. The director of public-service training shall also confer with the heads of city departments and bureaus with regard to their needs and the ability of the college to supply them.
- (2) That a college standing committee on public-service training be appointed to cooperate and advise with the director. Such a committee should have among its membership representatives of the departments most concerned in the technical training of those who will enter public service.
- (3) That the announcements of the several divisions of the college contain a statement of the scope and work of the committee on public-service training.
- (4) That provision be made for cooperation of the college with such unofficial public agencies as the training school for public service and the Bureau of Municipal Research, especially with a view to the possibility of exchange of students, exchange of instructors, and exchange of credit.
- (5) That the special courses to be recommended and their formal organization be immediately taken up by the director of public-service training with his committee and all other departments and agencies involved.

THE PROPOSAL FOR A STATE UNIVERSITY IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The administration of American education is less systematized than that of any other important country. In theory the provision and the control of education is the function of each of the State governments. While these Governments have, without exception, provided—either through the direct action of the State or by mandatory laws affecting smaller civil divisions—facilities for a certain amount of schooling, the forms of control and the powers reserved to the State's officers vary widely, as do also the concepts of the extent of the educational opportunities which the State is under obligation to furnish. It is a well-known fact that the older Commonwealths of the East have less generally provided higher education at State expense (except in agriculture and mechanic arts, for the partial maintenance of which Federal appropriations are also made) than the Western and Southern States.

The reasons for this divergence in the practice of the different sections of the country are as well known as the fact. Chief among them is the existence in the East of numerous strongly endowed colleges and universities founded by private philanthropy long before

the emergence of the social ideal which demands that the State maintain agencies for every type of intellectual training required by any considerable group of citizens. The majority of these privately supported institutions have, however, adapted themselves to the changed conditions both of public education and of social philosophy. They have constantly sought, on the one hand, to establish closer adjustments with the public-school systems. On the other, they have come increasingly to regard themselves as to all intents and purposes public instruments, subject—within the limits of their respective charters—to such modifications of policy and aim as might be necessary to keep them in harmony with the current trend of public education. Nevertheless, they are of course organically cut off from the public schools; their governing boards are not directly and legally responsible to the general public; through the force of long-established traditions, which are peculiarly potent in academic communities, they are inclined toward conservatism.

These facts and tendencies have led certain persons in several of the Eastern States to urge the creation of State universities as the logical culmination of the State's educational enterprise, and as the only sure means of providing equal educational opportunities for all citizens. One of these proposals has already been alluded to. (See p. 39.) A second, perhaps of even greater interest, concerns the foundation of a State university in Massachusetts.

Without reference to the rank and reputation of the privately endowed institutions of Massachusetts, a mere statistical summary of their number, enrollments, and financial resources indicates that this State is singularly well equipped with facilities for higher training. In spite of this fact, however, the State board of education was instructed to prepare for submission to the legislature of 1915 a plan for the establishment of a State university. Under these instructions the board was allowed no discretion. It consequently submitted forms for two acts which might be made the basis of legislation. The first provided for an initial appropriation of \$500,000 for the purpose of acquiring grounds and buildings and organizing a teaching institution. The second provided for the annual appropriation of a scholarship fund of \$100,000 to be administered by the board and to be used in paying the tuition of worthy young people at existing institutions.

The board also suggested:

that as an alternative to a State university established as an institution offering regular courses of instruction, the Commonwealth might create and maintain a university of Massachusetts as a nonteaching organization, which should consist of a board of trustees authorized to conduct university extension courses and correspondence courses, to administer a system of State scholarships, to

promote the training of secondary school teachers and of school administrators and supervisors, to provide for organized cooperation between higher institutions of learning in Massachusetts on the one hand and the State and municipal departments on the other, and to secure proper articulation of high school and college by organizing and putting into effect plans whereby the above results may be secured through cooperation with existing colleges and universities.

Such a university should, at least at the outset, maintain no faculty. It should be provided with buildings and equipment necessary for the proper conduct of its administrative work. If circumstances warranted, it might in time be authorized to organize and maintain a permanent staff of lecturers for subjects or courses not otherwise available. It is believed that the institutions of higher education in Massachusetts would cooperate with such a university, and it has been stated that there would be readiness to support, without expense to the State, a certain number of extension courses.

The committee of the legislature to which the matter was referred reported that no legislation was necessary. The legislature, however, passed a very important measure which looks in the general direction of the board's proposals. This provided for the establishment of a department of university extension under the direction and control of the board of education and appropriated \$25,000 for its maintenance during the year 1915.

The main provisions of the act are as follows:

SECTION 1. There is hereby established a department of university extension to be under the direction and control of the board of education. The head of said department shall be appointed by the board of education, with the approval of the governor and council, and his salary shall be fixed by the board with the approval of the governor and council. He may be removed at any time by the said board of education.

SEC. 2. The said department of university extension is hereby authorized to cooperate with existing institutions of learning in the establishment and conduct of university extension and correspondence courses; to supervise the administration of all extension and correspondence courses which are supported in whole or in part by State revenues; and also, where that is deemed advisable, to establish and conduct university extension and correspondence courses for the benefit of residents of Massachusetts: *Provided*, That nothing in this act shall be construed as giving to the said department or to the board of education the control or direction of extension and correspondence courses in agriculture or in subjects directly related thereto when these are administered under the direction of the Massachusetts Agricultural College. The said department, subject to the approval of the board of education, may employ such agents, lecturers, instructors, assistants and clerks, for whole or part time, as may be necessary for proper compliance with the provisions of this act. With the approval of the governor and council and of the board of education, it may rent suitable offices for the conduct of its work.

SEC. 3. The said department for the purposes of such university extension or correspondence courses, may, with the consent of the proper city or town officials or school committees, use the school buildings or other public buildings and grounds of any city or town within the Commonwealth, and may also use normal school buildings and grounds, and, with the consent of the boards or commission in charge of the same, such other school buildings as are owned or controlled by the Commonwealth. City and town officials and committees are hereby

authorized to allow the use of buildings and grounds under their charge by the department of university extension for the purposes of university extension or correspondence courses, subject to the rules and regulations which such officials or committees may establish: *Provided, however*, That such use shall not interfere or be inconsistent with the use of said buildings and grounds by the public schools of the city or town. The said department may also arrange for the use of such other buildings, grounds, and facilities as may prove to be necessary for the conduct of its work, and may expend in rent therefor such sums as may from time to time be necessary.

Sec. 4. The department of university extension is empowered to appoint a State advisory council and also local advisory councils on university extension and correspondence courses, the functions of which shall be defined by the rules and regulations of the board of education.

Sec. 6. The said department is authorized to grant to students completing courses of instruction provided for under this act suitable certificates as evidence of proficiency, in accordance with rules and regulations to be established by the board of education.

ACADEMIC FREEDOM.

The issues implicit in the question of academic freedom transcend in importance all others. They concern not only the extent of the legitimate powers of boards of trustees; they concern the integrity of universities and the integrity of the scholar's calling. They involve more remotely the right of any established interest, ecclesiastical, economic, or popular, by reason of its prejudices and for the sake of its own advantage, to throttle free inquiry. They involve ultimately, therefore, the whole principle of progress in the social order. Unless that freedom of research, of teaching, and of public utterance which every self-respecting scholar claims as his inalienable privilege is guaranteed, the university suffers paralysis in all its members. Should the disease become general, the seriousness of its effect upon the whole scheme of American education is not easily estimated. Hence much more is at stake in any particular instance of the alleged infringement of academic freedom than (as has been suggested) the "ferocious virtue" of an individual professor or than the collective sensitiveness of a professional caste.

In view of these considerations the recent series of such instances, which has almost the appearance of an epidemic, deserve extended discussion. The beginnings of such a discussion will be found in the chapter on higher education in the Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1915 (p. 157 et seq). Some of the wider implications of the question of academic freedom were then mentioned. The reports of several committees appointed by various associations of scholars to investigate cases of disciplinary action visited by boards of trustees on professors accused of expressing unpopular opinions were summarized. The formation of the American

Association of University Professors and its inevitable preoccupation with this matter were noted

During the past year a series of reports dealing with other cases of alleged breaches of academic freedom have emanated from this association. The findings of each of its committees of inquiry are summed up in the following pages. By far the most significant document published by the association, however, is the report of the general committee of 15 (mentioned in the commissioner's report, 1915, p. 161) on academic freedom and academic tenure, submitted to the association at its second annual meeting, in December, 1915. Both the representative and responsible character of the association which issues it and the eminence of the men whose signatures are attached would bespeak for the report in any event the careful consideration of university boards and executives. Its content, moreover, is worthy of its authors and its sponsor. It constitutes probably the most valuable contribution of the year to the discussion of educational policy. Although the pamphlet has already been widely distributed by the Bureau of Education among those concerned with the direction of higher education, considerable excerpts from it are given here for the benefit of that still more extensive public that is reached by these bulletins.

GENERAL REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ACADEMIC FREEDOM AND ACADEMIC TENURE OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS.

The report is divided into two parts, the first a general declaration of principles which it is hoped will promote a clearer understanding of the issues, and the second a group of practical proposals designed at the same time to safeguard academic freedom and to protect university executives and governing boards from unjust charges of its infringement.

It is pointed out in Part I that academic freedom, in so far as it concerns the teacher, comprises three elements—freedom of research, freedom of teaching within the institution, and freedom of extra-mural utterance and action.

The first of these is almost everywhere so safeguarded that the dangers of its infringement are slight. It may therefore be disregarded in this report. The second and third phases of academic freedom are closely related, and are often not distinguished. The third, however, has an importance of its own, since of late it has perhaps more frequently been the occasion of difficulties and controversies than has the question of freedom of intra-academic teaching.

The committee is of the opinion, however, that the principles which have to do with the freedom of teaching are substantially the same whether intra- or extra-mural activities are considered. It therefore assumes that its declaration with respect to freedom of

teaching within the university is applicable in the main to the freedom of speech of university teachers outside their institutions.

The report distinguishes between two radically different types of institutions, the relatively rare proprietary schools designed for the propagation of specific doctrines, religious or economic, and the ordinary college or university not strictly bound to a propagandist duty. The obligations of the boards of trust of the former are plain, and in such institutions the question of academic freedom can not properly arise. There is, and in the nature of things can be, no genuine freedom in them. Such institutions are comparatively innocuous, because the badge of their servitude is generally not concealed. It stands as a "caveat emptor" to warn away every competent scholar whose scientific conscience still functions. In case this revelation of the institution's true purpose is not made, however, it manifestly should be made.

The nature of the trust reposed in the governing boards of what the report significantly calls "untrammelled institutions of learning" is emphatically declared to be public. Whether the institution be a State institution or a privately endowed institution appealing to the general public for support and patronage, "the trustees are trustees for the public. * * * They can not be permitted to assume the proprietary attitude and privilege * * * they have no moral right to bind the reason or the conscience of any professor." "This elementary distinction between a private and a public trust is not yet so universally accepted as it should be in our American institutions," but it is essential that it be recognized by governing boards.

The preservation of the dignity and independence of the professorate is necessary not only to bring into the profession men of high gifts and character, but also to insure the honest performance of their function of dealing with knowledge at first hand and reporting the results without fear or favor.

The proper discharge of this function requires (among other things) that the university teacher shall be exempt from any pecuniary motive or inducement to hold or to express any conclusion which is not the genuine and uncolored product of his own study or that of fellow specialists. Indeed, the proper fulfillment of the work of the professorate requires that our universities shall be so free that no fair-minded person shall find any excuse for even a suspicion that the utterances of university teachers are shaped or restricted by the judgment, not of professional scholars, but of inexperienced and possibly not wholly disinterested persons outside of their ranks. The lay public is under no compulsion to accept or to act upon the opinions of the scientific experts whom, through the universities, it employs. But it is highly needful, in the interest of society at large, that what purport to be the conclusions of men trained for and dedicated to the quest for truth shall in fact be the conclusions of such men, and not echoes of the opinions of the lay public or of the individuals who endow or manage universities. To the degree that professional scholars, in the formation and promulgation of their opinions, are, or by the character of their tenure

appear to be, subject to any motive other than their own scientific conscience and a desire for the respect of their fellow experts, to that degree the university teaching profession is corrupted; its proper influence upon public opinion is diminished and vitiated; and society at large fails to get from its scholars in an unadulterated form the peculiar and necessary service which it is the office of the professional scholar to furnish.

The committee then takes up the relationship between university trustees and members of university faculties in what is probably the most important pronouncement of the whole report. "The latter are the appointees, but not in any sense the employees, of the former. For, once appointed, the scholar has professional functions to perform in which the appointing authorities have neither competency nor moral right to intervene. * * * So far as the university teacher's independence of thought and utterance is concerned—though not in other regards—the relationship of professor to trustees may be compared to that between judges of the Federal courts and the Executive who appoints them. University teachers should be understood to be, with respect to the conclusions reached and expressed by them, no more subject to the control of the trustees than are judges subject to the control of the President, with respect to their decisions."

It is pointed out that in the earlier days of American universities the chief menace to academic freedom was ecclesiastical and that philosophy and the natural sciences were the subjects chiefly affected, but that now the danger zone has been shifted to the social sciences.

The special dangers to freedom of teaching in the domain of the social sciences are evidently two. The one which is the more likely to affect the privately endowed colleges and universities is the danger of restrictions upon the expression of opinions which point toward extensive social innovations, or call in question the moral legitimacy or social expediency of economic conditions or commercial practices in which large vested interests are involved. In the political, social, and economic field almost every question, no matter how large and general it at first appears, is more or less affected with private or class interests; and, as the governing body of a university is naturally made up of men who through their standing and ability are personally interested in great private enterprises, the points of possible conflict are numberless. When to this is added the consideration that benefactors, as well as most of the parents who send their children to privately endowed institutions, themselves belong to the more prosperous and therefore usually to the more conservative classes, it is apparent that, so long as effectual safeguards for academic freedom are not established, there is a real danger that pressure from vested interests may, sometimes deliberately and sometimes unconsciously, sometimes openly and sometimes subtly and in obscure ways, be brought to bear upon academic authorities.

On the other hand, in our State universities the danger may be the reverse. Where the university is dependent for funds upon legislative favor it has sometimes happened that the conduct of the institution has been affected by political considerations; and where there is a definite governmental policy or a strong public feeling on economic, social, or political questions, the menace to academic freedom may consist in the repression of opinions that in the particular political situation are deemed ultraconservative rather than ultraradical.

Although the fact is not generally recognized, "the existence in a democracy of an overwhelming and concentrated public opinion" may also constitute a serious obstacle to the real liberty of the individual. "An inviolable refuge from such tyranny should be found in the university. It should be an intellectual experiment station, where new ideas may germinate and where their fruit, though still distasteful to the community as a whole, may be allowed to ripen until finally, perchance, it may become a part of the accepted intellectual food of the Nation or of the world."

It is not, however, the purpose of the report to imply that the university teacher is to be subject to no restraints whatever. "The liberty of the scholar within the university to set forth his conclusions, be they what they may, is conditioned by their being conclusions gained by the scholar's method and held in a scholar's spirit; that is to say, they must be the fruits of competent and patient and sincere inquiry, and they should be set forth with dignity, courtesy, and temperateness of language." Departures from the requirements of the scientific spirit and method should be judged by members of the academic profession itself and not by outsiders. The means for providing such judicial action by representatives of the profession are discussed among the practical proposals.

Part II proposes four measures to be adopted by universities with a view to preserving academic freedom; protecting governing boards themselves, and bringing into the academic profession men of ability and strong personality. They are, reduced to lowest terms:

1. Action by faculty committees on reappointments.
2. Definition of tenure of office, in order that there may be at every institution "an unequivocal understanding as to the term of appointment; and the tenure of professorships and associate professorships, and all positions above the grade of instructor after 10 years of service, should be permanent (subject to provisions hereinafter given for removal upon charges)."
3. Formulation of grounds for dismissal.
4. Judicial hearings before dismissal. "Every university or college teacher should be entitled, before dismissal or demotion, to have the charges against him stated in writing in specific terms and to have a fair trial on those charges before a special or permanent judicial committee chosen by the faculty senate or council, or by the faculty at large."

This important report was signed by 13 of the committee of 15 (2 having resigned during the progress of the committee's deliberations), as follows:

Edwin R. A. Sellman, chairman, Columbia University; Charles E. Bennett, Cornell University; James Q. Dealey, Brown University; Richard T. Ely, University of Wisconsin; Henry W. Farnam, Yale University; Frank A. Fetter, Princeton University; Franklin H. Giddings, Columbia University; Charles A. Kofold, University of California; Arthur O. Lovejoy, Johns Hopkins University; Frederick W. Padelford, University of Washington; Roscoe Pound, Harvard University; Howard C. Warren, Princeton University; Ulysses G. Weatherly, University of Indiana.

REPORTS OF SPECIAL COMMITTEES OF INQUIRY OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS.

Special committees to investigate alleged infringements of academic freedom at the University of Utah, the University of Montana, the University of Colorado, and the University of Pennsylvania were appointed during the first year of the association's existence. The report on conditions at the University of Utah was published in July, 1915, and was discussed in the preceding issue of this document (see Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1915, p. 161 et seq.). At a meeting of the association in December, 1915, the reports of the committees on the incidents at the universities of Colorado and Pennsylvania were submitted, together with a summary report of the general committee on academic freedom and academic tenure on the case of Prof. Willard C. Fisher, of Wesleyan University, a case referred to the general committee by an earlier committee of nine from the American Economic Association, the American Political Science Association, and the American Sociological Society. (See Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1915, p. 160 et seq.) All three of these reports have since been published by the association. The capacity of the association to deal with matters affecting the welfare of its own members in a judicial manner, without restraint, and with perfect fairness toward all concerned is conspicuously demonstrated in these documents. Moreover, its findings and suggestions have already helped to bring about at two institutions radical revisions of the regulations relating to professional tenure.

THE COLORADO CASE.

In June, 1915, Prof. James H. Brewster, who had been a teacher of law at the University of Colorado during the year 1914-15, and who failed of reappointment at the end of the year, charged that "this failure to reappoint, in view of the admission of the president of the university that Mr. Brewster had performed his teaching duties with 'eminent satisfaction,' was practically a dismissal;" and that "the only causes for this dismissal are the facts that I testified to the truth before the Commission on Industrial Relations (Dec. 7 and 8, 1914), and that I appeared as counsel for the Miners' Union before a congressional committee in February and March, 1914." He further charged that on May 7, 1915, President Farrand, upon being shown a telegram from the chairman of the Commission on Industrial Relations requesting Mr. Brewster to come to Washington to testify again before the commission, stated that "if he complied

¹ The committee of inquiry on the Montana case was not ready to report at the December meeting. It was authorized to lay its report when finished before the association in print.

with Chairman Walsh's request his connection with the university must cease at once—that is, before the expiration of the then current university session." In an open letter President Farrand denied both charges and shortly thereafter requested the American Association of University Professors to investigate the case. A summary of the committee's findings, somewhat abridged, follows:

The reason actuating the authorities of the University of Colorado * * * in not reappointing Prof. Brewster * * * was not, as charged, Prof. Brewster's testimony before the United States Commission on Industrial Relations nor his utterances or opinions on industrial questions in Colorado. On the contrary, the committee is satisfied on the evidence that the university authorities had in mind, prior to the original appointment of Mr. Brewster, a plan for the reconstruction of the law faculty * * *; that [his] appointment * * * was not intended to be renewed or extended beyond the time when payment [of a certain] bequest should make the reconstruction possible; and that this contingency occurred in the spring of 1915. * * *

The evidence does not sustain the charge that President Farrand threatened Prof. Brewster, in the conversation of May 7, 1915, with dismissal. * * * On the contrary, * * * the evidence distinctly indicates the improbability that such a threat was made.

These findings involve the exoneration of the authorities of the University of Colorado from any charge of infringement of academic freedom in their action with respect to Prof. Brewster. The implied intimation of President Farrand in the conversation of May 7 that permanent members of the Colorado faculty do not in his opinion have full liberty in the performance of civic duties, while deplorable, was purely inferential and apparently unconscious. * * * It appears reasonable to assume that the true attitude of President Farrand was expressed in December, 1914. When actually called upon by the governor of the State to commit an infringement of academic freedom, under circumstances that would have clouded the vision of an executive who might be inclined to put the immediate wants of his institution above principles of more remote value, we find President Farrand firmly acting for the ultimate welfare of the university, and asserting the principle that the conscientious utterances of a university professor in the performance of his duties imposed upon him as a citizen may not be called in question by the administrative authorities of the institution with which he is professionally connected.

The committee points out in conclusion that a rule requiring that teachers whose terms are about to expire should receive definite notice not later than three months before the end of the academic year whether their appointment is to be renewed would have saved both the university and Mr. Brewster embarrassment and possible injury.

THE WESLEYAN CASE.

The summary report of the committee of fifteen on the resignation, at the request of the president, of Prof. Fisher, of Wesleyan University, in 1913, was, in view of the length of time which has elapsed since the case was first publicly discussed, "limited to a statement of the position taken on each of the three questions of major importance." The report says in part:

1. According to correspondence that passed between President Shanklin and Prof. Fisher the ostensible ground upon which his resignation was called for was an utterance incidentally made by Prof. Fisher in an address, not intended for publication, before a men's literary club at Hartford, Conn. In this address certain opinions regarding church going and Sunday observance were expressed. The committee is of the opinion that the ground upon which Prof. Fisher's removal was officially based was inadequate. * * *

2. If the ostensible ground of Prof. Fisher's dismissal was not the real ground, if it was made an occasion for dismissing a man objectionable to president or trustees or benefactors of the university for reasons other than the one alleged, this committee regards the procedure as objectionable. * * *

If such a method of college government goes unchallenged as a precedent, there can be no guaranty of ordinary personal liberty in thought and expression or of security of tenure for any scientific or economic teacher. We can not earnestly insist that the dismissal of a college or university professor should be accompanied by a frank and straightforward statement of the actual reasons therefor and by full opportunity for inquiry by all legitimately interested parties. * * *

3. The committee regrets that Prof. Fisher so readily tendered his resignation upon the demand of President Shanklin, based as that demand officially was, upon manifestly insufficient and inadmissible grounds. The committee expresses the hope that in future both professors and university administrative authorities will realize, and in their actions acknowledge, the importance of full investigation, with ultimate publicity in view, of every case of dismissal or enforced resignation in which the question of academic freedom may be raised.

THE NEARING CASE.

Probably no other case of the alleged infringement of academic freedom has attracted such widespread interest and has given rise to such prolonged and heated controversy in the public prints as has the case of Prof. Scott Nearing, whose appointment as assistant professor of economics at the University of Pennsylvania was, contrary to all expectation and precedent, not renewed in the spring of 1915. The facts, as far as they were then obtainable, were stated in the commissioner's report for 1915, page 165 et seq. The commonly assumed cause of Dr. Nearing's virtual dismissal and the attitude of various members of the university board of trustees and of groups of alumni toward the questions at issue were also indicated. A very brief summary of the findings of the committee of inquiry of the American Association of University Professors therefore is sufficient to complete, for the purposes of these reports, the record of this incident. This summary follows:

I. As to the procedure followed by the board of trustees in its action with reference to this member of the university faculty, the following facts are established:

1. The position held by Dr. Nearing was one carrying a definite presumption of reappointment in case of satisfactory service.

2. It was duly made known to the board of trustees by the department of economics and by the dean of the Wharton School that Dr. Nearing's service

was regarded as satisfactory; and he was expressly recommended for reappointment. The board was also informed by the dean that this recommendation had the substantial support of the Wharton School faculty.

3. This recommendation of the qualified representatives of the educational staff of the Wharton School was rejected by the board of trustees on June 14 without further consultation with those representatives, without reference of the case for judicial inquiry to any faculty committee, and (originally) without assignment of reason.

4. The board's own action on June 14 was not judicial in character. No opportunity for a hearing upon the charges or criticisms made against him was afforded Dr. Nearing; nor did the board conduct any inquiry on its own account to ascertain whether the persons outside the university, by whose criticisms the board declares its action to have been determined, had been correctly informed as to Dr. Nearing's utterances or had correctly understood them, or whether their criticisms were, in fact, justified by the authentic language of the utterances in question.

The committee holds that such procedure provides no proper safeguard for academic freedom; that it gives the individual academic teacher no adequate security against substantial injustice; and that it secures to the faculty or its representatives no sufficient voice in relation to questions of reappointment and removal.

II. As to the grounds or causes of the action of the board of trustees in refusing Dr. Nearing reappointment, the two following facts are established and appear to the committee decisive:

1. The only statement of reasons which the board as a whole has officially given declares this action to have been made necessary by the attitude taken toward Dr. Nearing by persons outside the board, including some who knew him only by his public utterances.

2. The most important representatives of such an attitude of disapproval and antagonism toward Dr. Nearing were a group of alumni of conservative views, whose criticisms had been repeatedly voiced in the Alumni Register and in the reports of the alumni committee on the Wharton School. The objections of these as of certain other known critics of Dr. Nearing were expressly based, at least in part, upon the character of his economic opinions and the content of his utterances upon social questions.

The committee is accordingly compelled to conclude that at least a contributory cause of Dr. Nearing's removal was the opposition of certain persons outside the university to the views, upon questions within his own field of study, expressed by him in his extra-mural addresses.

It concludes:

Removal or refusal of appointment wholly or partly upon such a ground, without judicial inquiry by any committee of fellow economists or other scholars, the committee can only regard as an infringement of academic freedom.

THE NEW STATUTES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

This incident, otherwise regrettable, has apparently led the trustees of the University of Pennsylvania to alter the regulations previously in force with regard to the tenure of teaching positions and the procedure in the dismissal of professors. Indeed, evidence is not wanting that the activities of the Association of University Professors

may have had influence in the decision of the board to take this step. Although the new regulations do not coincide with the association's "practical proposals" (see p. 55)—in fact, were adopted before the association's committee made its report—nevertheless they represent a conscientious effort to attain substantially the same ends. In view of their very great significance in the evolution of a just and efficient method of university government in the United States, these new statutes are given here with only slight abridgment.

(1) There shall be four grades in the teaching staff: (a) Professor; (b) assistant professor; (c) instructor; (d) assistant.

(2) Before any reappointments or promotions of members of the teaching staff shall be made, the trustees shall request the group of instruction of which the appointee is, or is to become, a member to make a recommendation. The recommendation shall be given careful consideration by the trustees, and, if approved by the provost and the board of trustees, shall be followed. In the event of the nonapproval of any such recommendation, or in the event that no recommendation shall be made, the provost and the board of trustees shall proceed to make such reappointments or promotions as their judgment approves. In all cases, in which the board of trustees shall feel it to the interest of the university, they shall in like manner request the advice of the proper group of instruction in reference to original appointments. * * *

(3) A professor shall be appointed for an indefinite term.

(4) An assistant professor shall receive a first appointment for a term of three years. Subsequent reappointments shall be for the terms of five years each.

(5) Instructors and assistants shall be appointed for a term of one year.

(6) The foregoing appointments shall respectively cease at the expiration of the several terms mentioned, unless notice of renewal shall have been given by the provost in writing, in case of instructors and assistants, not later than the first day of April preceding the expiration of the academic year for which the appointment was made, and in the case of an assistant professor, at least one academic year before the expiration of the term for which the appointment or reappointment was made. In the event of a decision by the trustees not to continue an appointment or reappointment of an assistant professor, or to remove the professor or assistant professor as hereinafter provided in paragraph 7, leave of absence may be given to such professor or assistant professor by the trustees for one year with full salary. All appointments are subject to the regulation covering the retiring age.

(7) A professor shall be removed, an assistant professor removed or refused reappointment by the board of trustees, only after a conference between a committee consisting of one representative from each of the faculties in the university (such representative being chosen by the faculty of which the representative is a member), and a committee of equal number from the board of trustees, at which conference the provost shall preside, and upon a report of such conference to the board of trustees, for consideration and action by them: