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AN ACCOUNT OF ITS
ACTIVITIES,

1902-1914 //

32 Full Page Illustrations and 31 Maps

NEW YORK
GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD
61 BROADWAY
1915

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OFFICERS AND MEMBERS OF THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

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OFFICERS AND MEMBERS OF THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

OFFICERS

<i>Chairman</i>	WILLIAM H. BALDWIN, JR.	1902-1904
	ROBERT C. OGDEN	1905-1906
	FREDERICK T. GATES	1907-
<i>Secretary</i>	WALLACE BUTTRICK	1902-
<i>Assistant Secretaries</i>	WILLIAM H. HECK	1903-1905
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<i>Treasurer</i>	GEORGE FOSTER PEABODY	1902-1909
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MEMBERS

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* JABEZ L. M. CURRY	1902-1903
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* DANIEL C. GILMAN	1902-1908
* MORRIS K. JESUP	1902-1908
* ROBERT C. OGDEN	1902-1913
WALTER H. PAGE	1902-

* Deceased.

ALBERT SHAW	1902-
WALLACE BUTTRICK	1902-
STARR J. MURPHY	1904-
* WILLIAM R. HARPER	1905-1906
† HUGH H. HANNA	1905-1912
† E. BENJAMIN ANDREWS	1905-1912
EDWIN A. ALDERMAN	1906-
HOLLIS B. FRISSELL	1906-
HARRY PRATT JUDSON	1906-
CHARLES W. ELIOT	1908-
ANDREW CARNEGIE	1908-
EDGAR L. MARSTON	1909-
WICKLIFFE ROSE	1910-
JEROME D. GREENE	1912-
ANSON PHELPS STOKES	1912-
ABRAHAM FLEXNER	1914-
GEORGE E. VINCENT	1914-

• Deceased.

† Resigned

INTRODUCTORY NOTE

This volume gives an account of the activities of the General Education Board from its foundation in 1902 up to June 30, 1914. The Board has made annual reports to the United States Department of the Interior and these have been regularly printed in the reports of the Department; but no further report has been hitherto issued, because, as the Board's work was felt to be experimental in character, premature statements respecting the scope and outcome of its efforts were to be avoided. After something more than a decade, tangible results have begun to appear, and to their description and consideration the following pages are devoted. Henceforth, statements will be issued annually, and, from time to time, a more critical discussion like the present report will be published.

THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

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4 THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

was specifically stated to include the power to establish or endow elementary or primary schools, industrial schools, technical schools, normal schools, training schools for teachers, or schools of any grade, or higher institutions of learning; to coöperate with associations engaged in educational work; to donate property or money to any such association; to collect educational statistics and information, to publish and distribute documents and reports, “and in general to do and perform all things necessary or convenient for the promotion of the object of the corporation.” Under the authority thus conferred, the entire field of education in the United States—taking the word education in its broadest significance—is open to the General Education Board. The Board can employ its resources in supplementing the income of established institutions of learning; it can coöperate with state and local authorities as well as with private organizations; it can undertake educational experimentation along new and hitherto untried lines, whether at the primary, academic, technical, industrial, or professional level; it can conduct educational research and disseminate educational data.

MEMBERSHIP

The membership of the Board has from the outset been selected with distinct reference to the varied and weighty responsibilities involved.¹ It was recognized that the feasibility of coöperation between private and

¹ See list of members, xiii and xiv

governmental agencies and the large opportunity open to individual initiative in dealing with social and educational problems are among the distinct advantages of a democratic social order. But the usefulness of any particular effort in these directions must depend on the wisdom with which it is conducted—i. e., on the competency and disinterestedness of those charged with its direction. Where a high order of capacity and experience is thus enlisted, it is not too much to say that complete responsibility to professional and public opinion is joined with equally complete independence of personal, sectional, or institutional interests. Foreign observers of American conditions have repeatedly commented with something like envy on the comparative ease with which large sums have been brought into fruitful use under a form of supervision, which aims to bring together in one Board both the lay and the professional points of view, and to represent every phase of social and educational concern. The devotion of private fortunes to public ends on these terms is highly desirable; and leaders in social and educational endeavor can and do render intelligent and patriotic service by participation in these characteristically American enterprises.¹

RANGE OF ACTIVITIES

The creation of the General Education Board marked the coming together and expansion of two distinct lines of interest and activity.

¹ For a fuller consideration of these points, see pp. 105-109; 80-82.

(a) Higher Education

Prior to 1902 Mr. Rockefeller had confined his educational benefactions mainly to such institutions as were conducted under the auspices of his own religious denomination. For this purpose he had acted through the American Baptist Education Society, an organization which fostered academies, colleges, and theological seminaries under Baptist auspices throughout the United States and Canada. The institutions thus assisted form, in the main, the contribution of the Baptist denomination to the general educational resources of the nation. In this spirit the Society had in 1889 determined on the establishment of the University of Chicago, a decision the fulfilment of which, on the broad lines laid down at the outset, was subsequently realized chiefly through Mr. Rockefeller's gifts.¹ The Baptist Education Society aided only institutions which were affiliated with its own denomination, and of these, such only as gave promise of permanent and increasing usefulness. A plan of education under Baptist auspices had been somewhat carefully elaborated, which was designed to furnish the Baptist denomination of the United States with a comprehensive and orderly system of colleges and academies. For a decade or more the Society wrought

¹ See "Address on the Proposed Institution of Learning at Chicago," by Mr. Frederick T. Gates, the Corresponding Secretary, in report of First Annual Meeting of the American Baptist Education Society, May 18, 1889. Mr. Rockefeller's gifts to the University of Chicago total \$34,702,375.28.

with diligence and success toward the realization of this denominational system of education, Mr. Rockefeller being the chief benefactor. But as Mr. Rockefeller's fortune increased, his interest in education broadened, and with it a sense of public duty and responsibility which transcended alike denominational, sectional, and racial lines. To provide an agency through which the broadest possible interest in education throughout the land could find a fitting expression, the General Education Board, long existing as an ideal in his office, finally came into being. Without limitation the funds of the General Education Board were to be distributed to institutions of any denomination or no denomination. Moreover, the scope of the Board was designed to include activities with which the Baptist Society had not undertaken to deal. Nevertheless, the historic relationship between the two organizations is clear. The General Education Board is, on this side, an outgrowth of the Baptist Education Society. The Board adopted the main principles and practices of the Baptist Society and extended them, dropping the denominational and other limitations. It took over the conception of a system of higher education, comprehensive, mutually related, and supplemental in its parts, so expanded, however, as to cover institutions with and without denominational connections.¹ The Board adopted, too the manner in which the Baptist Society had made

¹This point will be more fully discussed in connection with the contributions of the Board to universities and colleges, pp. 108-112.

THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

contributions, and even the precise form of pledge been employed.¹

(b) Education in the South

Our interest in the industrial and educational progress of the South represented the second of the two activities which merged in the General Education Board. The Southern states were making unprece-
dented efforts toward their own educational rehabilitation and these efforts valuable assistance had already been rendered by several private foundations and organizations created for the express purpose of coöperating with the Southern people. The most prominent of these were the Peabody Education Fund, the Trustees of the Slater Fund, and the Southern Education Board. They are all non-official in character and either endowed or financially supported by private funds. Neither they nor the General Education Board ever possessed or sought official authority; they have simply had such influence as has come from public confidence in their disinterestedness, sympathy, and intelligence. More flexible than governmental bureaus, less restricted in their choices of methods and advisers, more continuous in policy, these organizations have for years devoted themselves to carrying out educational plans which represent the conclusions of the best judgment obtainable. So important is the part played by these bodies in the upbuilding of the South that it is explained fully in the section devoted to colleges and univer-

of Southern education since the war, and so intimate their relationship with the General Education Board, that a word may fitly be said of them in this connection.

THE PEABODY EDUCATION FUND

The Peabody Education Fund—something above \$2,000,000—was established, shortly after the close of the war, by George Peabody, a native of Massachusetts, who subsequently became a London banker. The Fund was designed for the promotion of popular education in the Southern states through coöperation with state and local officials. Subject to a representative body of trustees, three general agents were successively engaged in this work: Dr. Barnas Sears, sometime president of Brown University, Dr. J. L. M. Curry of Virginia, and Dr. Wickliffe Rose of Tennessee. The Peabody Board, through its general agents, assisted the educational leaders of the several states in creating sentiment and procuring legislation favorable to popular education; it aided in the establishment of public schools in cities and towns, and in the development of state normal schools, in the support of Hampton Institute, Tuskegee Institute, and other private schools for Negroes, and finally contributed the bulk of its capital (\$1,500,000) to the new George Peabody College for Teachers, affiliated with Vanderbilt University at Nashville. In combining private and unofficial with public and official endeavor, the George Peabody Fund was the pioneer educational foundation. Its general agents were often invited to

address joint sessions of the legislatures of the several Southern states; and its efforts were repeatedly recognized in legislative enactments. An Alabama statute, for example, provided that the State Superintendent of Education should hold teachers' institutes every summer in each congressional district and authorized him to expend in each district "not to exceed \$500, the amount not in any case to exceed the amount paid for such purpose by the trustees of the Peabody Education Fund." The history of this endowment indicates the lines on which coöperation between unofficial and official agencies may be effectively carried on.

THE JOHN F. SLATER FUND

The Slater Fund, originally \$1,000,000, but well-nigh doubled by wise management, was left by the late John F. Slater, a manufacturer of Norwich, Connecticut. Its purpose was the development of educational facilities for the Negro. Bishop Haygood, sometime president of Emory College, Georgia, Dr. J. L. M. Curry, Dr. Wallace Buttrick, and Dr. James H. Dillard of New Orleans, Louisiana, served in succession as general agent. The Fund contributed from its income to the support of normal schools, denominational schools, and many town schools for Negroes. It was of material aid in developing the Trade Schools at Hampton and Tuskegee, the Hospital and Teacher Training Departments at Spelman Seminary, the industrial work at Claflin University, and many other institutions. Throughout its history special emphasis

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in point of duration, like the Peabody Fund, or lacked permanent endowment, like the Southern Education Board. It was obvious, therefore, that there was room for still another type of institution—an institution permanent in character, and with an assured income, devoted in part, at least, to coöperation with the Southern people in the development of a comprehensive educational policy. For some years previous to the organization of the General Education Board, Mr. Rockefeller's attention had been directed to the needs of the people of the South, both white and colored, and particularly to the existing conditions in respect to elementary education. Its charter was so drawn as to enable the General Education Board to enter this field. While the precise part to be undertaken was not defined in advance, Mr. Rockefeller, in making his first gift to the Board, called attention to the educational needs of the people of the Southern states and indicated his special interest therein.

EDUCATIONAL SURVEY OF THE SOUTH

Accordingly, the Board, through its Secretary, assisted by several field agents, at once set to work to acquire a thorough knowledge of conditions in the Southern states. To use the phrase now current, surveys were planned, state by state. In the fall of 1902 a conference of the County Superintendents of Georgia was held at the State University at Athens. Among the questions informally discussed were finance, supervision, school consolidation, Negro education, etc. Similar confer-

the organization of the public school system, its finances, the number and character of school buildings, the number, training, and pay of public school teachers, private and public secondary schools, institutions for the higher education of women, schools for the training of teachers, and schools, public and private, for the education of Negroes.

These monographs were distributed to members of the General Education Board and were kept on file in the office of the Board. They were not published, because no good purpose was at that time to be subserved thereby. However, in little more than the decade that has passed since that time, the general educational situation in the Southern states has been so largely transformed that the facts contained in these documents now possess considerable historic interest. In subsequent pages they will be utilized by way of showing the rapid improvements that have taken place.¹

POLICY OF THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

But the studies just referred to did more than supply facts. For out of them a conclusion of far-reaching importance soon emerged. They convinced the Board that no fund, however large, could, by direct gifts, contribute a system of public schools; that even if it were

¹See pp. 72-77; 181-184.

possible to develop a system of public schools by private gifts, it would be a positive disservice. The best thing in connection with public school education is the doing of it. The public school must represent community ideals, community initiative, and community support, even to the point of sacrifice. The General Education Board could be helpful only by respecting this fundamental truth. It therefore felt its way cautiously, conscious of the difficulty, complexity, and delicacy of the situation. It hoped to aid, not by foisting upon the South a program from outside, but by coöperating with Southern leaders in sympathetically working out a program framed by them on the basis of local conditions and local considerations. The several steps taken in consequence of this attitude will be described in detail in this volume. It will be observed that the Board has scrupulously maintained the position above defined: it has coöperated, not interfered. The lines on which coöperation could profitably take place have been arrived at as the result of conference between national, state, and local authorities, competent unofficial observers, and the officers and members of the General Education Board. The experience of over a decade has conclusively proved that on this basis endowed agencies can perform valuable public service in a democracy.

II. RESOURCES AND EXPENDITURES

PENDING the steps necessary to incorporation, Mr. Rockefeller in 1902 gave \$1,000,000 to the General Education Board. In making his initial gift,¹ Mr Rockefeller referred to the fact that he understood it to be the immediate intention of the Board to devote itself to studying the needs and aiding to promote the educational interests of the people of the Southern states. It was stipulated that the principal be used in the Southern states and that it be expended during a period of ten years.

GIFTS TO ENDOWMENT

The first permanent endowment, received June 30, 1905, and amounting to \$10,000,000, was expressly designed to furnish an income "to be distributed to, or used for the benefit of, such institutions of learning, at such times, in such amounts, for such purposes, and under such conditions, or employed in such other ways as the Board may deem best adapted to promote a comprehensive system of higher education in the United States."²

¹ Mr. Rockefeller's letters announcing his gifts to the General Education Board, with the letters of the Board in reply, are given in full in Appendix II, pp. 216-223.

² The limitations on the use of this gift were subsequently removed.

In February, 1907, a further gift of \$32,000,000 was made, "one third to be added to the permanent endowment of the Board; two thirds to be applied to such specific objects within the corporate purposes of the Board" as Mr. Rockefeller or Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., might direct, "the remainder not so designated, at the death of the survivor, to be added to the permanent endowment of the Board."¹ This addition to endowment was accompanied by no restriction whatsoever as to the specific educational objects to which its income was to be devoted.

On July 7, 1909, Mr. Rockefeller increased his benefactions by the gift of an additional \$10,000,000, at the same time authorizing and empowering the Board, in its discretion, to distribute its entire principal or any part thereof, and releasing the Board from the obligation to hold his gifts in perpetuity. Besides the sums above specified as contributed by Mr. Rockefeller, the Board received, April 17, 1905, the sum of \$200,000 from Miss Anna T. Jeanes for the "assistance of the Negro rural schools in the South."²

At the present time the Board's resources are valued at \$33,939,156.89, of which \$30,918,063.80 is general endowment and \$3,021,093.09 reserve fund. The gross income

¹ Out of the sum thus subject to distribution, and its accrued income, the following gifts have been made:

(a) To the University of Chicago	\$13,554,343.99
(b) To the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research	10,267,022.10
(c) To the General Education Board	1,239,830.38
	<hr/>

² See pp. 223.

from these funds for the year 1913-14 was \$2,417,079.62. In addition the Anna T. Jeanes Fund of \$200,000 yielded a gross income of \$9,231.64.

APPROPRIATIONS

In accordance with the terms of its charter, the Board has initiated several distinct, though related, lines of activity which will be described in this volume. Its appropriations up to June 30, 1914, have been as follows:

Colleges and Universities	\$10,582,591.80
Medical Schools	2,670,874.11
Negro Colleges and Schools	699,781.13
Miscellaneous Schools	159,991.02
Professors of Secondary Education	242,861.09
Southern Education Board	97,126.23
Rural School Agents (both races)	104,443.18
Farm Demonstration Work—South (in- cluding Boys' and Girls' Clubs)	925,750.00
Farm Demonstration Work—Maine and New Hampshire (including Boys' and Girls' Clubs)	50,876.45
Rural Organization Service	37,166.66
Educational Conferences	18,108.23
Administrative Expenses	304,794.99
Total	<u>\$15,894,364.89</u>

III. FARM DEMONSTRATIONS

IT WILL be remembered that Mr. Rockefeller's first gift to the General Education Board was designed to support an inquiry into the educational needs of the Southern people. To the officers and members of the Board who visited the South for personal study, it soon became clear that more favorable economic conditions must be attained before comprehensive school systems could be supported by taxation. The Southern people were not educationally apathetic; on the contrary, popular education, unknown to the antebellum régime, had come to be an object of ardent desire in the three decades that had passed between 1870 and 1900; significant steps had already been taken in many states, and generous private subscriptions were being added to public taxation. But adequate developments could not take place until the available resources of the people were greatly enlarged. School systems could not be given to them, and they were not prosperous enough to support them. Such was the situation reduced to its simplest terms.

EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS IN THE SOUTH

A few of the facts gathered at the time by the Board will make this point clear. The state school fund of Alabama

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for the year ending September 30, 1903, was \$1,167,887.90; in Georgia, the total from both state and local sources was somewhat less; the total net disbursements of Mississippi that year were a little less than \$1,900,000; in Tennessee, expenditures were slightly in excess of \$2,600,000. The remaining Southern states did not vary materially from the examples cited. These sums were obviously inadequate to their purposes. In some states they included amounts raised by local taxation; but in general, local levies were either impossible or were confined by statute to very narrow limits.

The real difficulty became strikingly apparent when the details essential to the organization and conduct of a school system were examined. Salaries were uniformly low and clerical assistance extremely meagre. The State Superintendent of Alabama was paid \$2,500 annually, with a total allowance for clerks of \$4,400; in North Carolina, \$2,000 and \$2,500 respectively were appropriated; in South Carolina, \$1,900 and \$900; in Tennessee, \$2,000 and \$1,920. Georgia prescribed no qualifications for its State "Commissioner of Education"; in Mississippi, only an age qualification existed; Tennessee made a vague professional requirement; Virginia specified in general terms "an experienced educator."

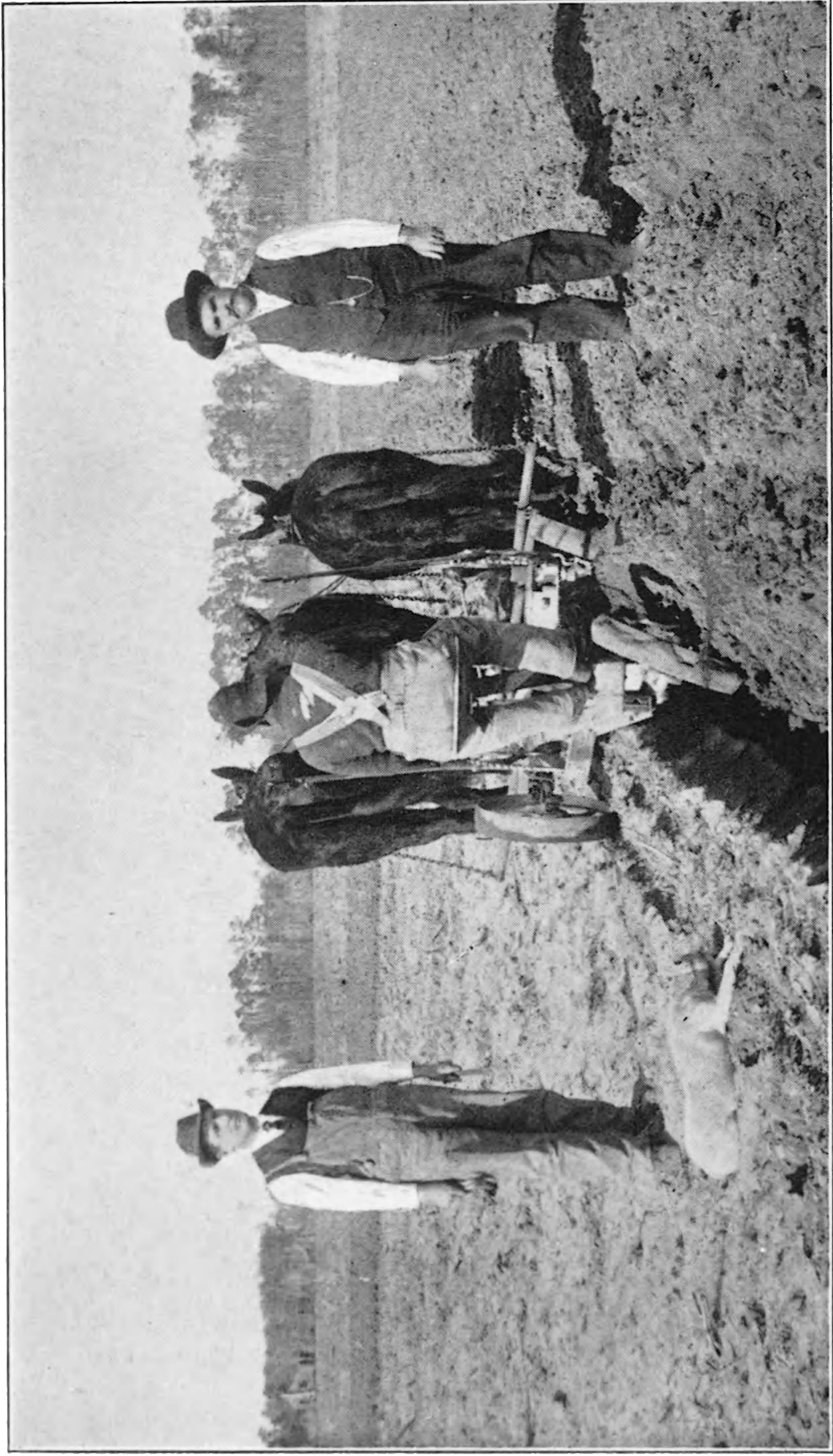
Matters were even less satisfactory in respect to the county superintendency. The average salary of these officers in Alabama in 1902 was \$575 a year; in Louisiana, \$482; in Virginia, \$399.75. Clearly the county superintendent could not as a rule devote himself wholly to

his educational duties, and it was not to be expected that the post would usually be filled by specially trained men.

At this same period the white teachers of Alabama were receiving average annual salaries of \$151.84; colored teachers, \$95.53; in South Carolina, \$195.28 and \$79.47 respectively; in Louisiana, white and colored together, \$254. The average throughout the United States was at this time \$516. The per capita expenditure on school children ranged from \$3.38 in North Carolina to \$7.43 in Louisiana, while in the country at large it stood at \$15.08. In Georgia, the county school term averaged 5.2 months; in Mississippi, a four-months' term was required by statute; in Tennessee, the county term varied from fifty-five days in Claiborne County to one hundred and forty-five in Bedford; the statutory requirement in Virginia was a term of five months or 100 days.¹

Under these circumstances the entire organization was necessarily inefficient and unsatisfactory. The salaries were too low to support a teaching profession and the terms too brief to engage the time and energy of the teacher; competent professional training could not exist, satisfactory equipment could not be provided, and, if provided, could not be utilized. A well-organized state system, conducted by properly qualified officials efficiently supervising comfortable schools in charge of trained teachers during a term of sufficient length, did not a decade ago exist in any Southern state.

¹ All the illustrations here given are taken from the surveys above mentioned.



Deep fall plowing (18 inches deep) in South Georgia by modern machinery. District Agent on left.

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UNFAVORABLE ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

But, as has already been stated, these conditions were not primarily due to any lack of interest in popular education. They were mainly the result of rural poverty. While the average annual earnings of individuals engaged in agriculture in the State of Iowa were upward of \$1,000, the average earnings of those similarly engaged in some of the Southern states were as low as \$150. Nor were these meagre agricultural incomes supplemented by disproportionately large returns from mines or manufactures. Eighty-five per cent. of the Southern population was rural in character. Trade did not therefore supply what the farm failed to produce. The great bulk of the people of the Southern states was simply not earning enough to provide proper homes and to support good schools. Whatever the other deficiencies, the prime need was money.

It was obvious that the General Education Board could render no substantial educational service to the South until the farmers of the South could provide themselves with larger incomes. The resources of the soil were ample or would become so under scientific cultivation; the climate was highly favorable to general rural prosperity. But the Southern farmer suffered from lack of scientific knowledge of agriculture, knowledge available, indeed, though never effectually distributed to the people. It was necessary to improve Southern agriculture. How could this be done?

The Board was advised to address itself to the rising generation—that is, to support the teaching of agriculture in the common schools. After thoughtful consideration this plan was rejected. In the absence of trained teachers, the effort was impracticable; moreover, there were no funds with which to pay such teachers, and the instruction itself would not materially contribute to its own support. Finally, it was impossible to force intelligent agricultural instruction upon schools whose patrons were not themselves alive to the deficiencies of their own agricultural methods. Until the public was convinced of the feasibility of superior and more productive methods, the public schools could not be reconstructed; once the public was convinced, and by reason thereof better able to stand the increased cost, the schools would naturally and inevitably readjust themselves.

It was therefore deliberately decided to undertake the agricultural education not of the future farmer, but of the present farmer, on the theory that, if he could be substantially helped, he would gladly support better schools in more and more liberal fashion. The Board, therefore, set about an extensive inquiry as to the best means of conveying to the average working farmer of the South, in his manhood, the most efficient known methods of intelligent farming.

ORIGIN OF THE FARM DEMONSTRATION

The extension of the so-called Coöperative Farm Demonstration movement resulted from this investiga-

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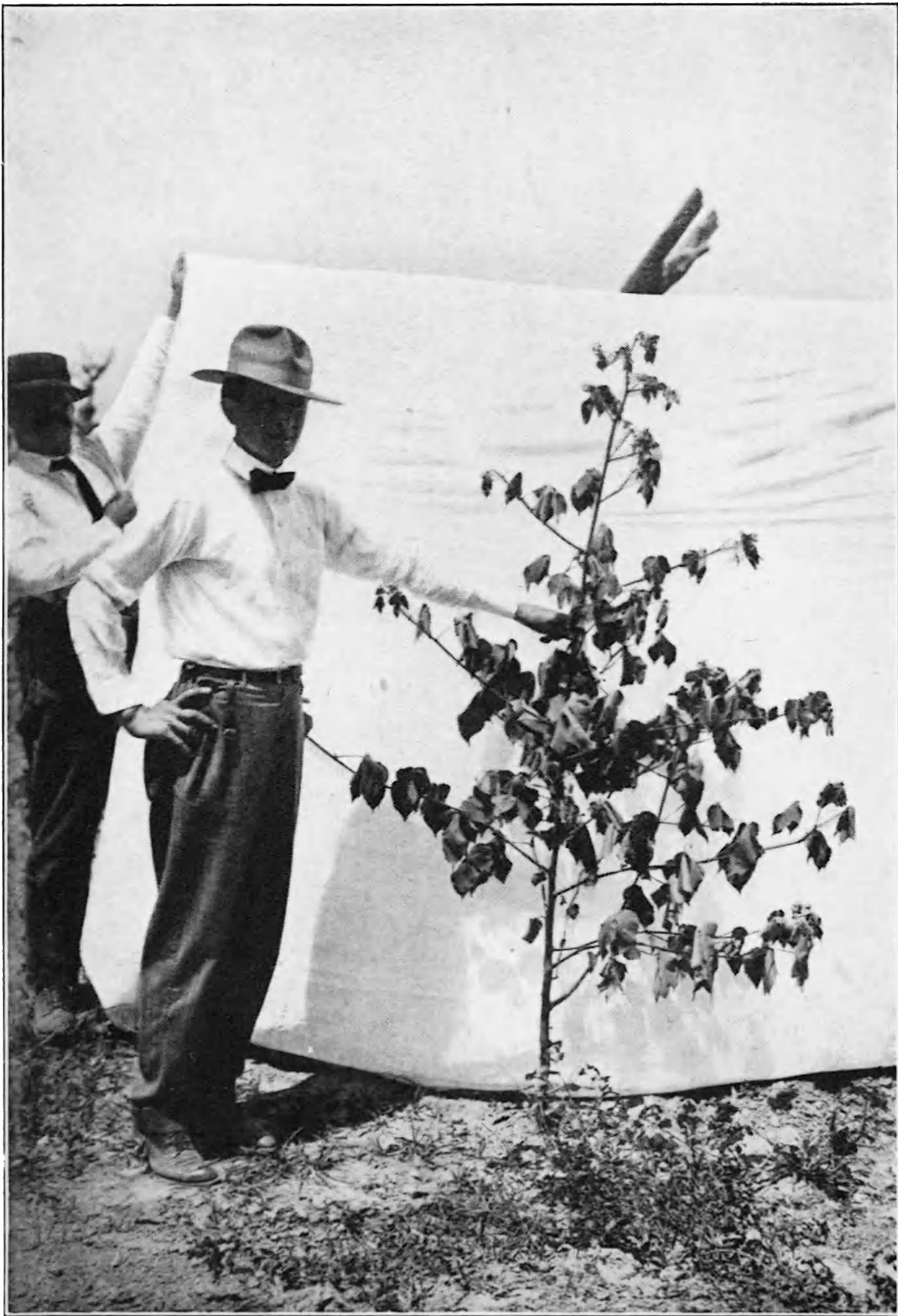
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tion. The story of its inception and expansion is not without strong human interest. In the first place, the Secretary of the Board spent almost a year under its authorization in seeking to discover the most effective methods of teaching improved agricultural methods to adult farmers. Agricultural schools in various parts of the United States and Canada were studied: the MacDonald College at St. Anne, Quebec; the Agricultural College of Ontario at Guelph; the agricultural colleges of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Texas. By a fortunate coincidence Dr. Seaman A. Knapp chanced at this time to be lecturing on the farm demonstration method at the last-named institution.

The Mexican cotton boll weevil was just beginning its devastations. As the pest spread, a panic had taken place in Texas. Cotton was the principal crop, and the days of its profitable cultivation seemed to be numbered. Farms were abandoned and counties well-nigh depopulated. Acting for the United States Department of Agriculture, Dr. Knapp in 1903 established a community demonstration farm at Terrell, Texas, for the purpose of showing farmers how cotton could be raised despite the boll weevil, with such success, indeed, that, from one point of view, the boll-weevil curse proved a sort of blessing in disguise. By means of the improved methods employed by Dr. Knapp, the production of cotton was actually increased and normal business conditions were accordingly restored. If the demonstration method paid in dealing with a pest-ridden farm, was there not every

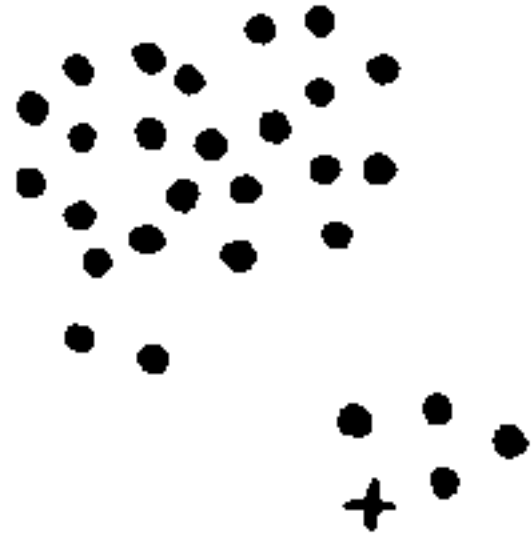
to present farmers.

Shortly afterward, the executive officers of the General Education Board—the Chairman and the Secretary—met Dr. Knapp in Washington in a series of conferences. Dr. Knapp's varied agricultural activities and experience were thoroughly discussed—particularly the history and outcome of his efforts in farm demonstration. The feasibility of extending the method as an educational measure was considered—the cost of such extension, the probability of its ultimately supporting itself, the length of time which must probably elapse before any such result could be counted on. It was agreed that the work would permanently affect Southern agricultural prosperity only if it became vitally rooted; that, therefore, an outside agency engaged in its promotion must regard its part as temporary and experimental. Dr. Knapp was from the outset confident that experience would justify this view. He believed that if the demonstration work could once be started by outside funds in a state, a county, or a community, it would promptly enlist local support; that it would spread from community to community and from state to state; and that in the end the teaching of agriculture and



Typical stalk of cotton from a field worked under old methods. Note:
The weevils have stripped it of all but one boll.

only for interstate purposes. Following the success of the experimental demonstration at Terrell, Texas, Congress had made special appropriations for the purpose of combating the boll weevil, and cotton culture farms were established by Dr. Knapp throughout the infested region; but, as the appropriation was based on the theory that the weevil was an interstate menace and, only as such, a legitimate object of Federal concern, the money was not available for strictly educational uses. The coöperation of the General Education Board made the educational application of the idea possible. While still retaining his connection with the Department of Agriculture, Dr. Knapp readily accepted an offer made by the Board to finance the educational extension of farm demonstrations, entering into the scheme with all the vigor and enthusiasm of youth. The United States Department of Agriculture became a party to the necessary arrangements. An agreement, signed April 20, 1906, by the Secretary of Agriculture and the Secretary of the General Education Board, provided that "The farmers' coöperative work, in which the General Education Board is to become interested, shall be entirely distinct in territory and finance from that carried on solely by the Department of Agriculture" and that "the United



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Distribution of work between U. S. Government and General Education Board, 1908

- * Agents paid by United States Government
- + Agents paid wholly or in part by local subscriptions (personal, county, or organizations)
- Agents paid by General Education Board
- Agents paid jointly by General Education Board and John F. Slater Fund

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“I have a cotton seed,” he would explain, “which has been carefully selected through a long series of years. The planting of this seed and its proper cultivation will more than double your yield of cotton. We have come to you as a leading farmer of this vicinity and would like to have you make a demonstration of its value. The demonstration, we believe, will not only convince you of the value of good seed and of scientific tillage, but will also teach your neighbors the same thing.”

Interest once aroused and confidence gained, the necessary conditions were broached one by one. The land must be plowed in the fall. “Why?” Because fall plowing gives mellowness to the soil and affords nature an opportunity to prepare plant food for the coming season. Moreover, the rows of cotton must be planted wide apart. “Why?” Because 85 per cent. or more of all vegetation is light and air: if the rows are close together, the cotton is starved and smothered. Again, the cotton must be cultivated six or eight times. “Why?” Because there is plenty of moisture down by the roots and you can keep it there only by constantly breaking up the soil so that it may not be evaporated by the heat of the sun. Thus the demonstration was in the first instance a simple object lesson. A few shrewd aphorisms controlled Dr. Knapp’s procedure: “Don’t confuse people by elaborate programs; the average man, like the crow, cannot count more than three.” And again: “Do the next thing.” He formulated and widely circulated



Demonstration corn, 1910, Thos. Hitchcock farm, Aiken, S. C. Land brought up from five bushels to sixty bushels per acre in two years under demonstration methods.

and commercial fertilizers.

7. The home production of the food required for the family and for the stock.

8. The use of more horsepower and better machinery.

9. The raising of more and better stock, including the cultivation of grasses and forage plants.

10. Keeping an accurate account of the cost of farm operations.

BY-PRODUCTS

In his talks with farmers, bankers, and business men—for, though keeping headquarters in the Department of Agriculture at Washington, he travelled almost incessantly—Dr. Knapp endeavored to teach his hearers not only how to raise cotton and corn, but how to conduct farming as a business—how to ascertain the cost of a crop, how to find out whether they were making or losing money. “Agriculture,” he was accustomed to declare,

“may be divided into eight parts: one eighth is science; three eighths is art; four eighths, business management.” He never failed to expose the economic fallacy of the factoring system,¹ and urged that the farmer should raise what he needed for his family and his stock, rather than buy at the village store, in exchange for his one crop. There was, of course, no inherent reason for the restriction of the demonstration method to the production of cotton. As rapidly as possible, its scope was broadened for the purpose of making the farmer more and more independent. He was stimulated to raise stock, to produce feed and forage for his stock, and to interest himself in truck gardening, hog-raising, etc. A group of Mississippi farmers is remembered who had been taught by Dr. Knapp’s representative not only how to grow cotton, but how to grow corn, potatoes, and small fruits, and how to keep accounts. “How many of you made your living last year?” was asked. Every one replied affirmatively. “How many two years ago?” Not one. For the first time in their lives they had balances in the bank and were measurably independent of the storekeeper. As a result of Dr. Knapp’s teaching there is good prospect that the South, which has long sold cotton and with the proceeds bought food-stuffs, will grow the latter as well as the former.

As is invariably the case with a fertile idea, the by-products of the demonstration movement are thus hardly

¹ I. e., mortgaging the cotton crop in advance in order to obtain the year’s supplies of meat, flour, corn, clothing, etc.

Demonstration hay in South Carolina, yielding 5,000 pounds of cured hay per acre in 1912.



Demonstration in oats, Arkansas, 1911. Yield, ninety bushels per acre.

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is proud of planting the best seed and doing cultivation. When the demonstration agent held a field meeting at his farm, he begins to feel that his life is of more consequence than he had thought. In the spring the brush begins to disappear from fence corners, weeds from the fields, the yard fence is strung with whitewash or paint goes on the buildings, the team is better, and the dilapidated harness is renovated. He made a good crop, but the man grew faster than the corn.

Characteristic examples may be cited in at least one place. East of Brookhaven, Mississippi, lived a wretched man on poor, piney woodland that "five years ago (as written in 1910) sold for \$1.00 an acre." He was in debt to the village storekeepers; very rarely had corn and hay enough to last beyond March and did not believe that his land was "corn-land." He had no papers and read no bulletins.

Demonstration work began in his county in 1908. Our friend, sceptical and depressed, held aloof. Induced at length to participate, he applied demonstration methods to five eighths of an acre in cotton which, to his amazement, he gathered 500 pounds of cotton. His respect for the "government" as it was called, increased. In 1909 his entire crop came a demonstration. Despite bad seasons, he averaged over 1,100 pounds of lint cotton an acre, against his neighbor's average of 300-400. He made, besides, 500 bushels of corn, and a special demonstration acre realized 152 barrel



Demonstration cotton in boll weevil infested territory of Louisiana and Arkansas, 1912.



A contrast between demonstration and ordinary methods in producing cotton in North Carolina in 1910. The demonstration crop to the left will average between 1,400 and 1,500 pounds of seed cotton per acre; while the field at the right will make between 400 and 500 pounds per acre.

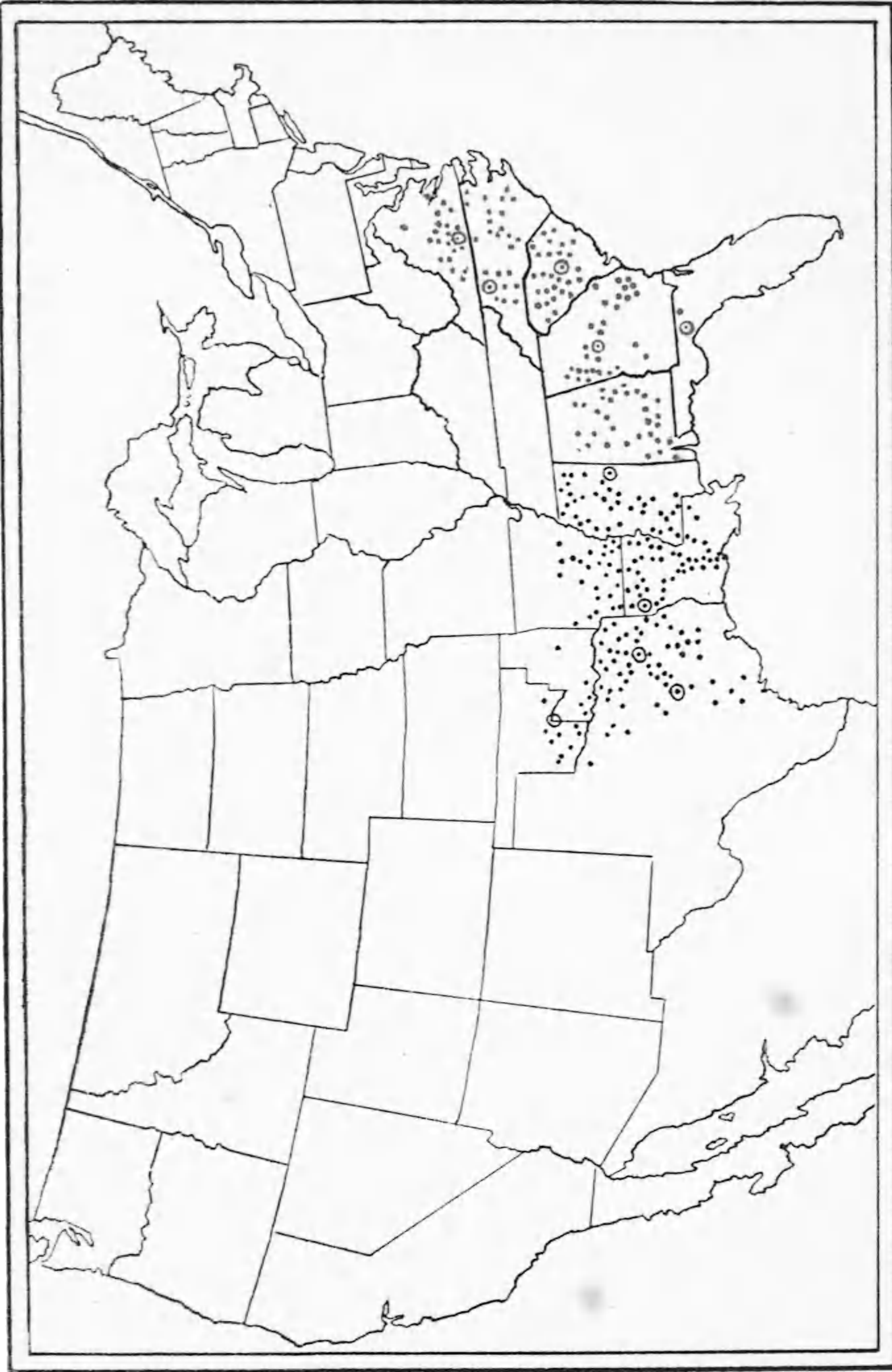
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Pages might easily be filled with similar instances illustrating the transformation wrought by awakened interest and practical success; but we must content ourselves with a single additional example: a poor mule farmer” in South Alabama, “in debt and without hope”—a pronounced and generally accepted failure. It was hard work to induce him to undertake a demonstration crop; he had no faith in “book-farming, I thought he knew more about raising cotton than any man I had met in Washington. But he consented at last, and that was his surprise at the outcome. With a previous average of two fifths of a bale, or less, to the acre, he now produced eight bales on seven acres; with a previous record of less than eleven bushels of corn per acre, he now made fifty-two and one half on a two-acre plot. He sold out the entire output at fancy prices, receiving \$315 as against \$224.90 the year before. His conversion was prompt and complete. In a little speech at a public meeting he testified that “as a farmer he was just a year old.” Now, in his third year, he has become a successful demonstration agent and is beginning to cherish ambitious ambitions!



Location of Agents Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work. Crop Season of 1909

Black—Under Congressional Appropriation
Red—Under General Education Board

UNDER THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD THE WORK IS
EXTENDED THROUGHOUT THE SOUTH

The coöperation of the General Education Board brought about an immediate and rapid expansion of the demonstration movement in every direction; it conquered new territory, dealt with a rapidly increasing number of activities, and touched more people. In 1907 only Texas, Louisiana, and Arkansas were worked by the national government; the appropriation of the General Education Board extended the work to Mississippi, Alabama, and Virginia; in 1908 the government made additional provision for Oklahoma; the General Education Board for Georgia and the two Carolinas. The next year the government took over Mississippi; the Board made provision for Florida. Government funds were next employed in Tennessee; the Board's in West Virginia and Maryland. At the close of the year 1913 the entire region covered by the farm demonstration movement was, in so far as the source of financial support is concerned, divided as follows:

Appropriations made by the
General Government
were expended in

Texas

Oklahoma

Louisiana

Arkansas

Mississippi

Alabama

Tennessee

Florida and Georgia (South)

Contributions of the General
Education Board were
expended in

Maryland

Virginia

West Virginia

North Carolina

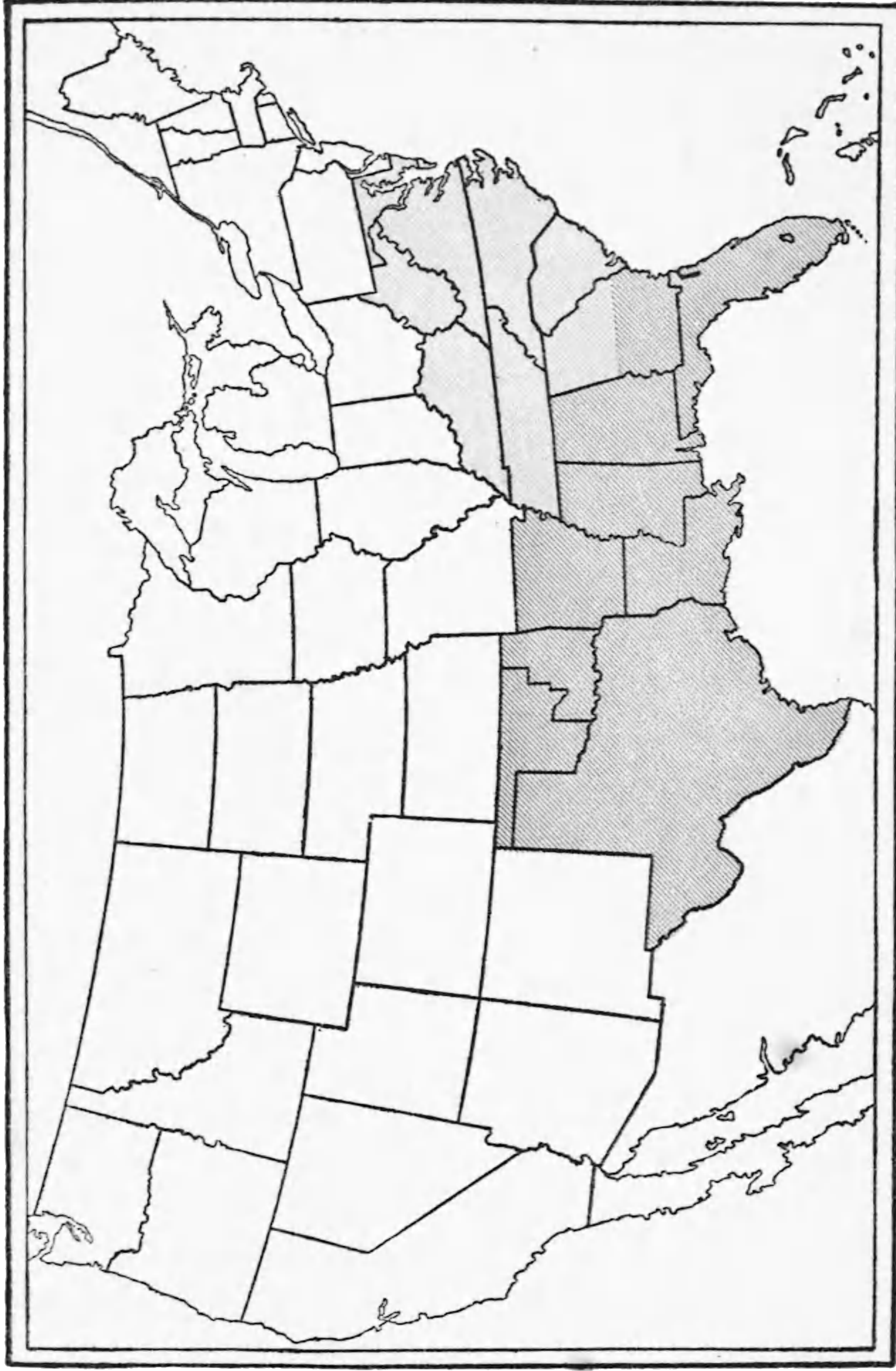
South Carolina

Georgia (North)

Maine

New Hampshire

Figure 3.



Blue indicates territory in which Farm Demonstration Work was financed by G. E. B.
Red indicates territory in which Farm Demonstration Work was financed by U. S. Government

Fiscal Year, 1913-14

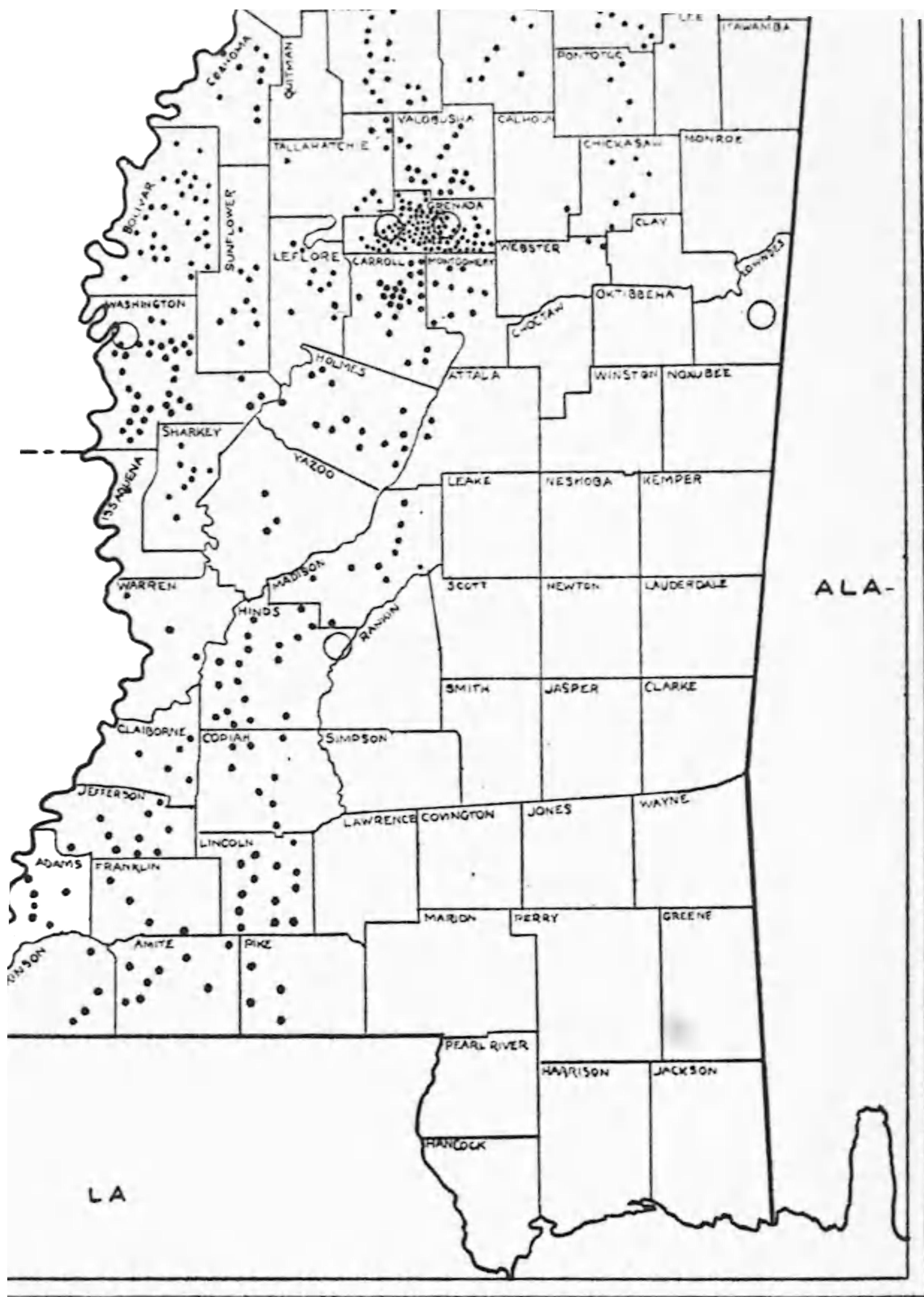
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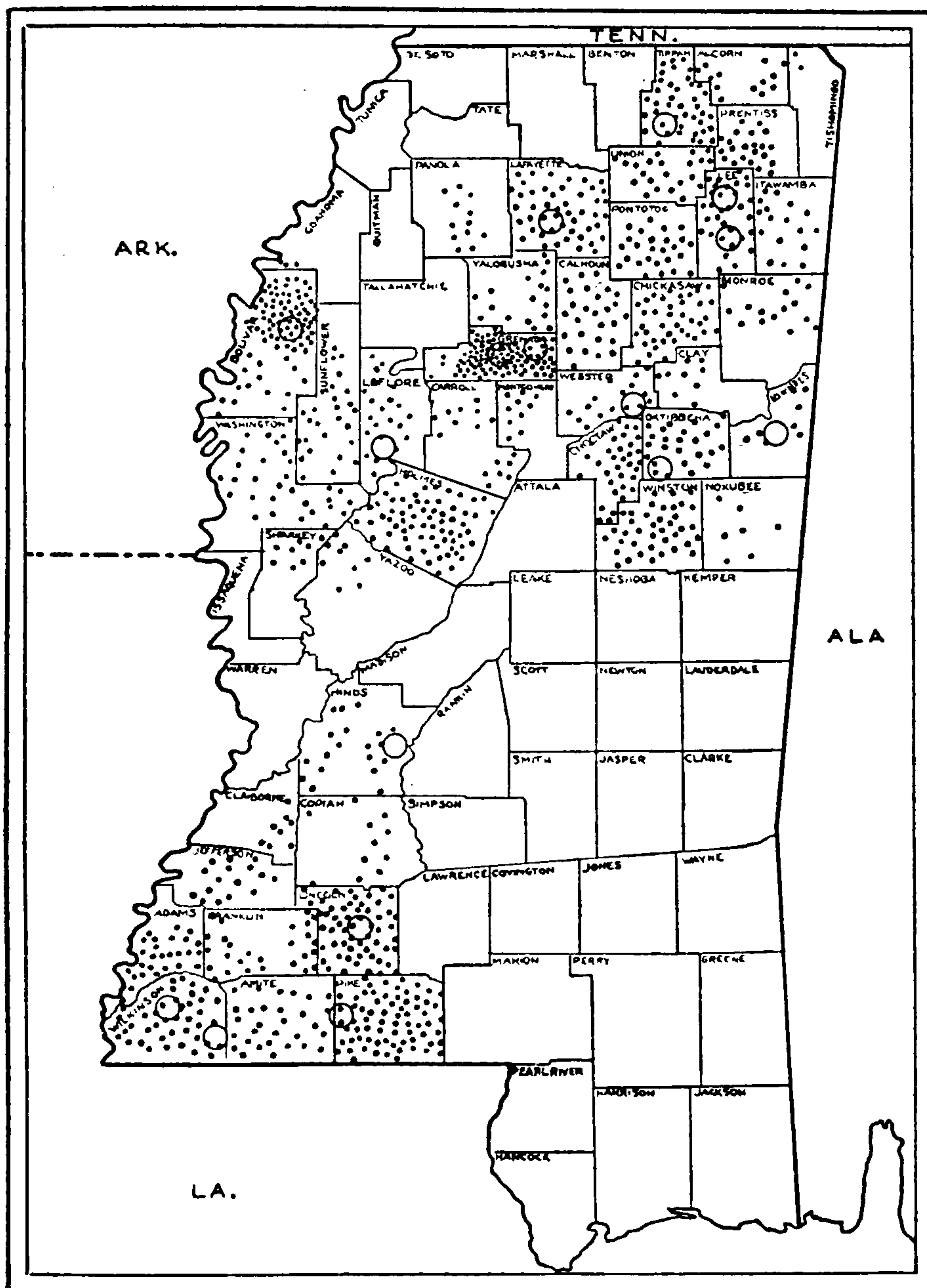
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Location of Demonstration Farms in Mississippi, 1907

Figure 5.



Location of Demonstration Farms in Mississippi, 1908.

esting as indicating the rapid growth in number of farms and the contagious nature of the movement. The demonstration farm is naturally an object of local curiosity. By actual count it has been ascertained that from thirty to one hundred farmers annually visit each demonstration. On the basis of the lower average 360,000 persons saw the 12,000 demonstration farms cultivated in 1908.

WORK DIRECTED BY GOVERNMENT

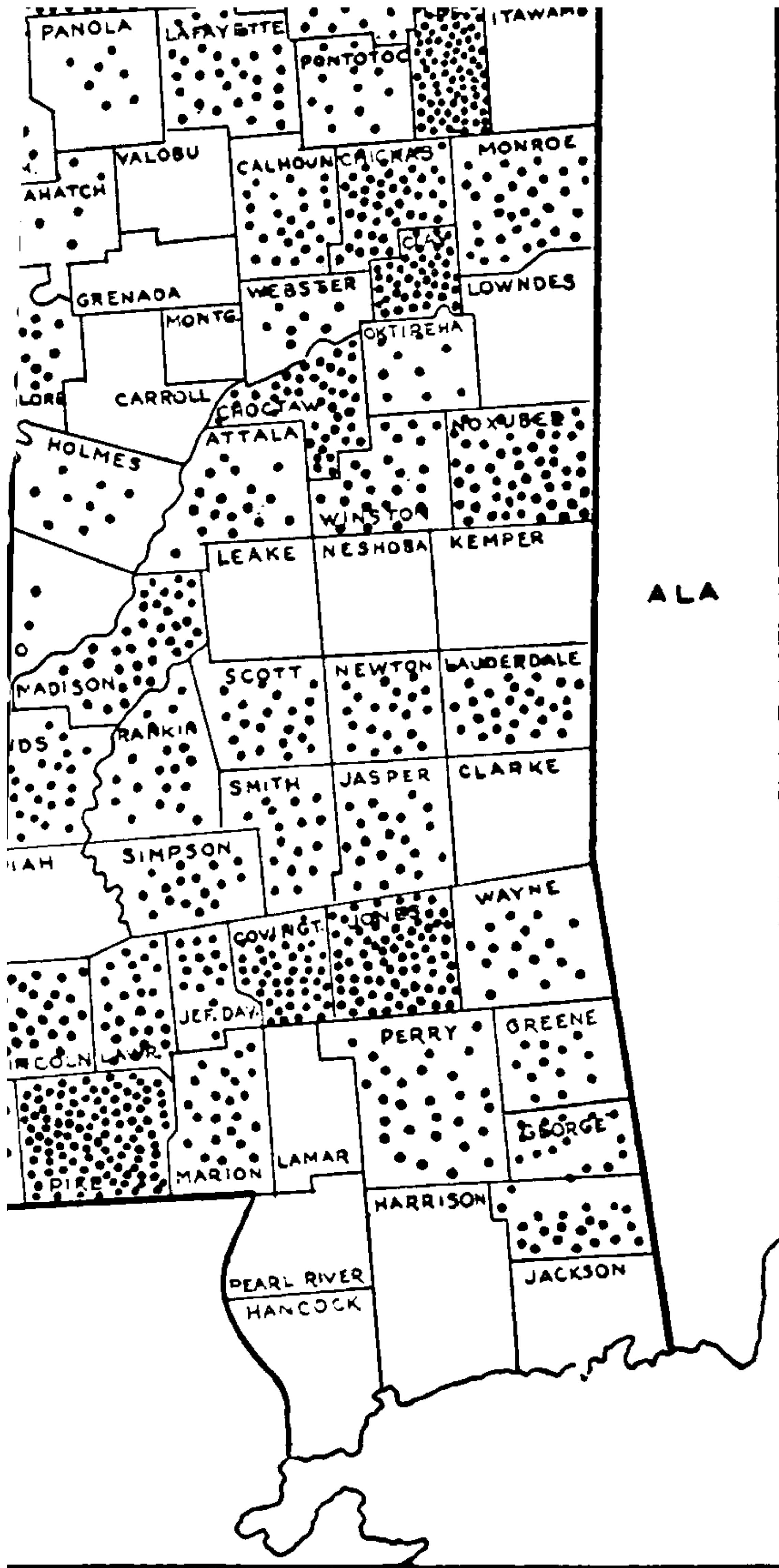
Attention has been called to the line of demarcation between the states in which government money and those in which the contributions of the General Education Board were expended. The constitutional scruple which suggested itself in reference to Federal support of purely educational work within the several states was thus continuously respected. The organization and administration of the entire work were nevertheless completely unified in the Bureau of Plant Industry of the Department of Agriculture at Washington. The several states had as such no way of knowing whether the demonstration work within their respective confines was supported by one party to the agreement or the other; all funds were disbursed by the Department of Agriculture; all appointments were made by the Department of Agriculture; all reports were made to the Department of Agriculture; in the Department of Agriculture complete administrative control was vested. From time to time the Secretary of the General Education Board conferred with the offi-



Demonstration peanuts near Comanche, Okla., 1912. The peanut is taking a prominent place in Oklahoma's diversification of crops.



Kafir corn, as one of the surer crops for the semi-arid section of Oklahoma. This is a demonstration near Ryan, Okla., in 1912.



of Demonstration Farms in Mississippi, 1914.

cers of the Department in reference to the extension of the work to other states, its enlargement by new features, which will be shortly described, and similar matters, and duplicate copies of various reports were sent to the Board. But the General Education Board had no authority. Its sole desire was to facilitate the progress of the movement by supplying funds which, whatever the reason, neither the general government, nor the several states, nor other organizations or individuals, offered to furnish; and its ultimate object on account of which the work was originally undertaken remained, viz., the increase of the taxable wealth of the South in order—to quote Dr. Knapp's pregnant words—that “schools should follow as the sequence of greater earning capacity and should not be planted by charity to become a tax on poverty.”

ORGANIZATION OF THE WORK

The conduct of the work was placed in the hands of a special agent, reporting directly to the Chief of the Bureau of Plant Industry, and assisted by a corps of field agents—classified, according to the territory assigned to them, as state, district, and county agents.¹ These agents are selected on the basis of special fitness and experience and are governed by instructions emanating from Washington. The size of the force grew with the extent of the work; it numbered only twenty-four, all told, in 1906,

¹ In Maine and New Hampshire the work is under the direction of the State Agricultural Colleges, as has been previously stated.

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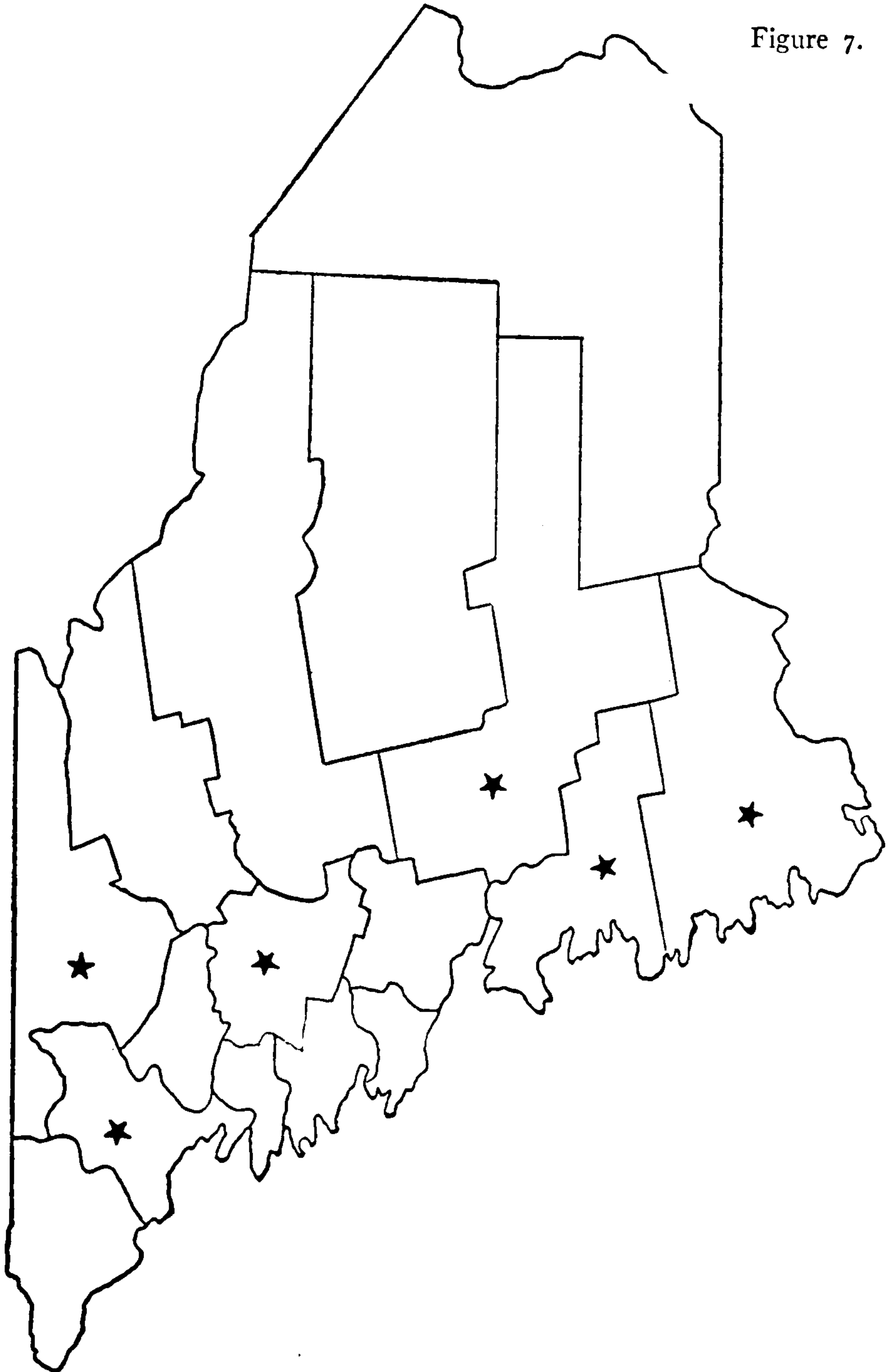
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Figure 7.



Farm Demonstration in the State of Maine.
(Stars mark counties in which demonstrations are in progress.)



Farm Demonstration in the State of New Hampshire.
(Stars mark counties in which demonstrations are in progress.)

twenty of whom were supported by the government, four by the General Education Board; thirty-six the next year, twenty-one on the government pay-roll, fifteen on that of the General Education Board; one hundred and fifty-six in 1908, seventy-one paid by the government, eighty-five by the General Education Board. By 1912 there was a roster of 639 agents, not counting 155 agents assigned to the girls' and boys' clubs which were, as we shall see, an important outgrowth of the demonstration movement.

ENLARGEMENT DOES NOT AFFECT METHOD

Too often extension involves mechanization and consequent sterilization of educational method; with an increase of numbers, either inferior persons are employed, or verbal explanation addressed to masses supplants concrete experiment or demonstration. In the present instance no such deterioration has taken place. The instruction has remained concrete and individual; and the development on the social side has served only to inaugurate additional concrete and individual experiments. Four general field agents now keep the central authority in close touch with the work; they are on the lookout for local difficulties; in addition, they appoint times and places for bringing together state and local agents for conference and instruction. Thus the main principles of the work are constantly kept prominently before those on whom, in the end, success depends. Each state is supervised by its own state agent, assisted by district

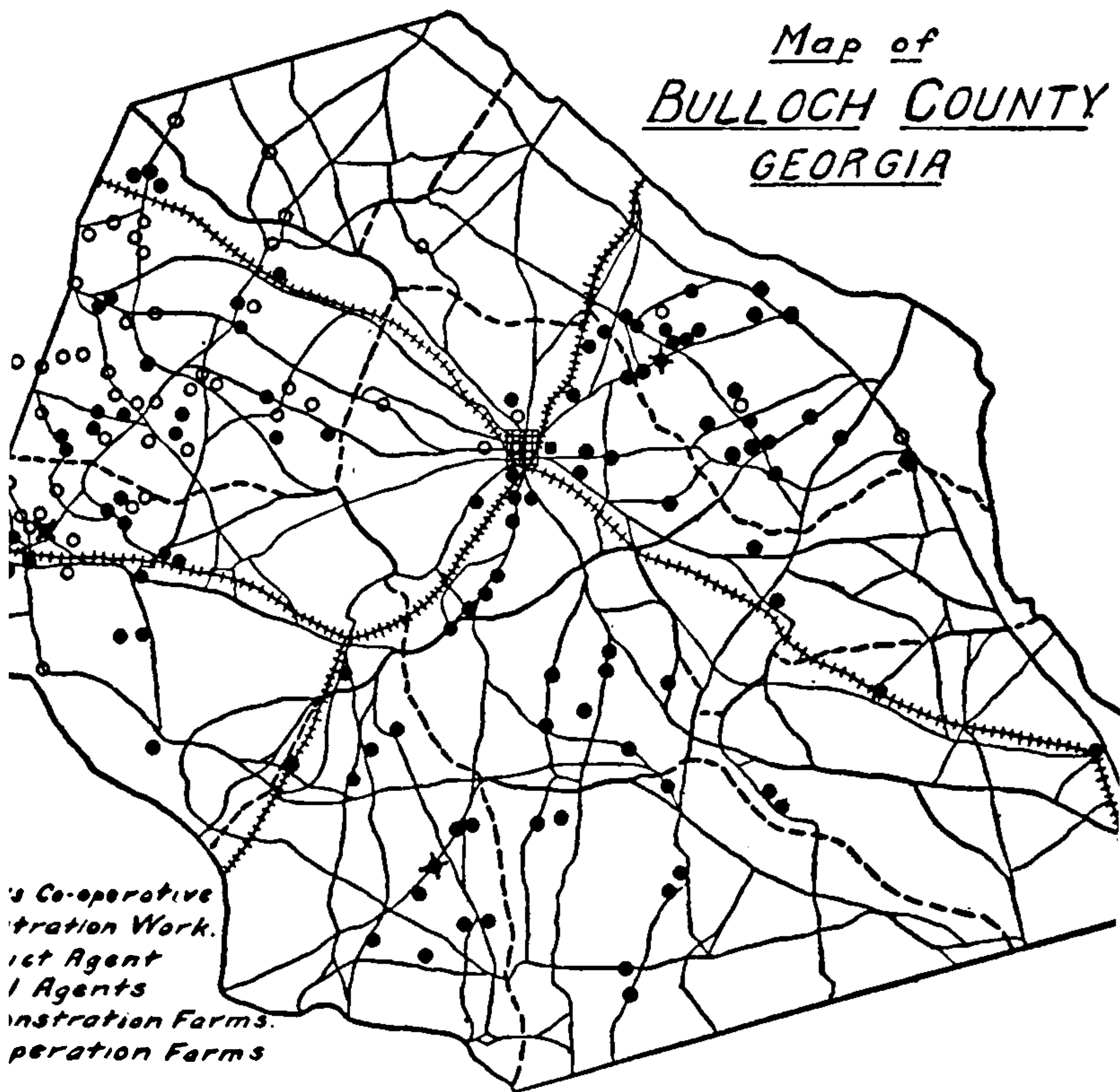
agents in charge of from fifteen to twenty-five local agents. The state and district agents make frequent excursions with the local representative, examining into the location of farms, assure themselves as to the quality of the local supervision, and communicate observations made in other sections of their territory. The local agent is absolutely responsible for the number and success of the experiments under way in his field; for the amount of enthusiasm generated; for the extent and variety of other activities, social and individual, following in its wake. The tests applied are throughout actual, and as long as this is the case extension involves no perils to the spirit and outcome of the movement.

APPROPRIATIONS: GOVERNMENT, GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD, AND OTHER SOURCES

The initial appropriation of the General Education Board in 1905 was \$7,000. At that time the government was devoting \$40,000 to demonstrations directed against the boll weevil. The Board appropriated \$30,900 the next year, \$76,500 two years later, \$130,000 in 1911, and \$252,000 in 1913. These sums were unevenly distributed: in 1908-9, \$4,000 was spent in Florida, \$15,000 in Virginia; the next year, \$19,000 in Virginia, \$30,000 in Georgia; in 1911-12, \$23,000 in South Carolina, \$25,000 in North Carolina. For the current year the appropriation for Maine was \$19,500, for New Hampshire \$10,000.

The following table summarizes the total cost of the

Figure 9.



This illustrates how the farmers of a county are reached.

outhern work thus far and shows the sources of funds by means of which it has been carried on:

Year	Government	General Education Board	Other Sources
1903-04	\$27,316.04		
1904-05	40,163.29		
1905-06	40,000.00	\$7,000.00	
1906-07	40,000.50	30,900.00	\$2,800.00
1907-08	85,901.85	69,300.00	4,200.00
1908-09	105,370.34	76,500.00	14,200.00
1909-10	229,449.17	102,000.00	33,500.00
1910-11	258,825.83	118,000.00	76,600.00
1911-12	363,792.19	130,000.00	175,000.00
1912-13	356,481.31	140,050.00	272,500.00
1913-14	375,000.00	252,000.00	¹ 490,100.00
Totals	\$1,922,300.52	\$925,750.00	\$1,069,400.00

By all odds the most important contributions are designated as coming from “other sources.” The government had in the first place undertaken to deal with boll weevil; the General Education Board had supplied a straightout educational application of the farm demonstration; and success had promptly achieved the significant result that outside assistance can ever achieve—it had led the Southern people to help themselves out of the very first profits of their new insight. Less than a decade, “other sources”—i. e., the Southern people themselves, were paying almost 50 per cent of a total annual expenditure approaching \$1,200,000.

¹ Approximate.

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tion on radically new lines; unofficial organizations are more receptive of new suggestions, can create here or there the conditions required for an experiment, and, as they are unhampered, can command the advice and the ability needed to inaugurate and to develop a novelty. A successful demonstration once made, the work can be turned over to the state, and the funds released may be devoted to the solution of other problems, handled according to the same general method of procedure.

RESULTS

Roughly speaking, it is fair to say that the demonstration method doubles the crop to which it is applied. In 1909, the United States Bureau of Statistics calculated that the average yield in pounds of seed cotton was 503.6 per acre; on demonstration farms taken by themselves the average was 906.1 pounds; in 1910, the figures were 512.1 and 858.9 respectively; in 1911, 624.6 and 1081.8; in 1912, 579.6 and 1054.8.

Corn makes a similar showing. The Bureau of Statistics reports an average of 16.7 bushels per acre in 1909 for states in which demonstrations were in progress; on these demonstration farms, however, the average was 31.7 bushels per acre; subsequent years were as follows:

	Average bushels corn per acre taking entire states				Average bushels corn per acre on demonstration farms
1910	.	.	.	19.3	35.3
1911	.	.	.	15.8	33.2
1912	.	.	.	19.6	35.4



Improved farming implements being explained to Negro farmers by colored District Demonstration Agent T. M. Campbell, of Tuskegee Institute, Alabama. This is the Jesup wagon, used in conveying from place to place good implements, stock, poultry, etc., that their advantages may be explained to demonstrators.



A field of prize rye grown under the direction of colored Demonstration Agent Jas. A. Booker (on left), Mound Bayou, Miss., 1910.

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No matter how the figures are studied, the same equally favorable results emerge. In Mississippi, for example—to take a single state—an acre of land yielded in 1907 on the average 17 bushels of corn, or 228 pounds of lint cotton; a demonstration acre yielded, however, 35 bushels of corn or 445 pounds of lint cotton. In Alabama, in the same year, average acres yielded 15.5 bushels of corn, 169 pounds of cotton; demonstration acres, 37.6 bushels of corn, 428 pounds of cotton.

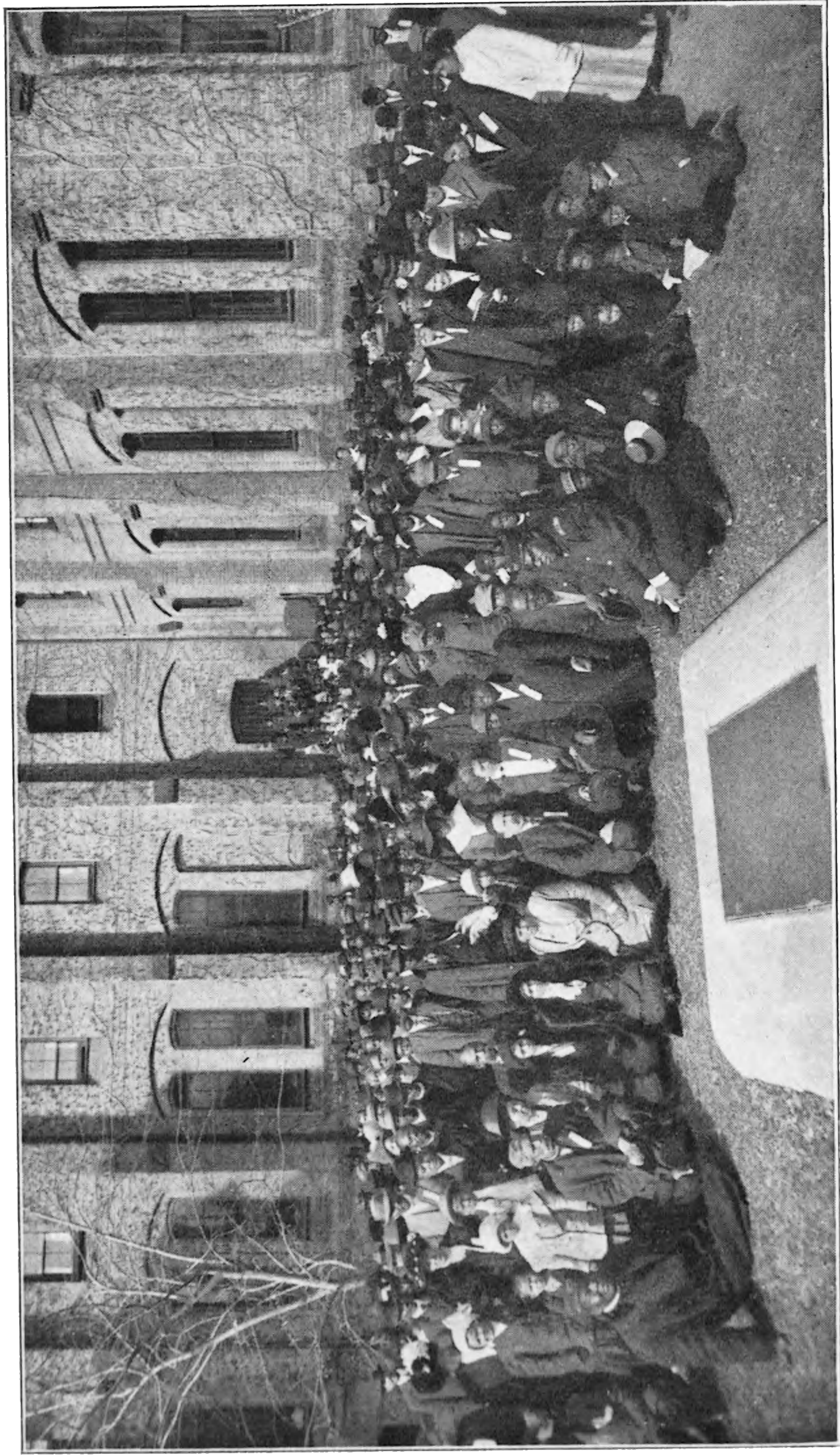
The poorer the season, the more clearly the demonstration method proves its superiority. The year 1911 was a poor one for crop raising in the South. Drought was severe and prolonged. In Texas and Oklahoma it was indeed the culmination of a dry period covering three successive seasons. Thousands of acres planted in corn produced nothing at all. Oklahoma, taken as a whole, averaged in consequence only 6.5 bushels of corn to the acre, Texas only 9. Yet the demonstration farms averaged 13 bushels per acre in Oklahoma, and over 22 in Texas. Under the unfavorable boll-weevil conditions in Louisiana, 33,022 demonstration acres averaged 1063.5 pounds of seed cotton as against an average of 522 pounds per acre for the entire state.

The work can also be viewed from the standpoint of the farmer's financial profit. In Alabama, for example, in 1912, the average yield of lint cotton was 173 pounds per acre; but demonstration acres averaged 428.3 pounds. Demonstration methods, therefore, netted the farmer 255.3 pounds per acre. At the average price of \$65 a

bale for lint and seed, the farmer made an extra \$33 per acre; as there were 8,221 acres under cultivation on the demonstration method, the total gain was \$271,000. In the same year, 7,402 acres were under cultivation in demonstration corn. Demonstration acres averaged 26.9 bushels more per acre than the general average for the state. The demonstration farmers of the state pocketed \$139,379.66 in consequence.

DIVERSIFICATION OF CROPS

Though corn and cotton have been most frequently instanced in this account, local conditions have been everywhere considered, and efforts to diversify production have been increasing. In Virginia, for instance, it was soon perceived that south of the James River the former tobacco lands, covered with sedge grass and pine brush, had been largely impoverished. The tobacco area had been gradually reduced. After studying the situation, it was decided to try the substitution of hay and corn for the tobacco crop, with the ultimate purpose of developing a dairy and stock country. Six years later, the general agent could report that in counties where demonstrations were in progress 15,000 acres were seeded to mixed grasses; that interest in grass culture was rapidly growing, and that 2,000 acres had been seeded in demonstration alfalfa during the past year. Similar phenomena could be cited from every other state. In South Carolina, for example, vetch, oats, rye, crimson clover, cowpeas, and hay are now raised on demonstration farms. The farm-



Annual Farmers' Conference, Hampton Institute, 1912. Crowd leaving Cleveland Hall at close of morning session of Conference.

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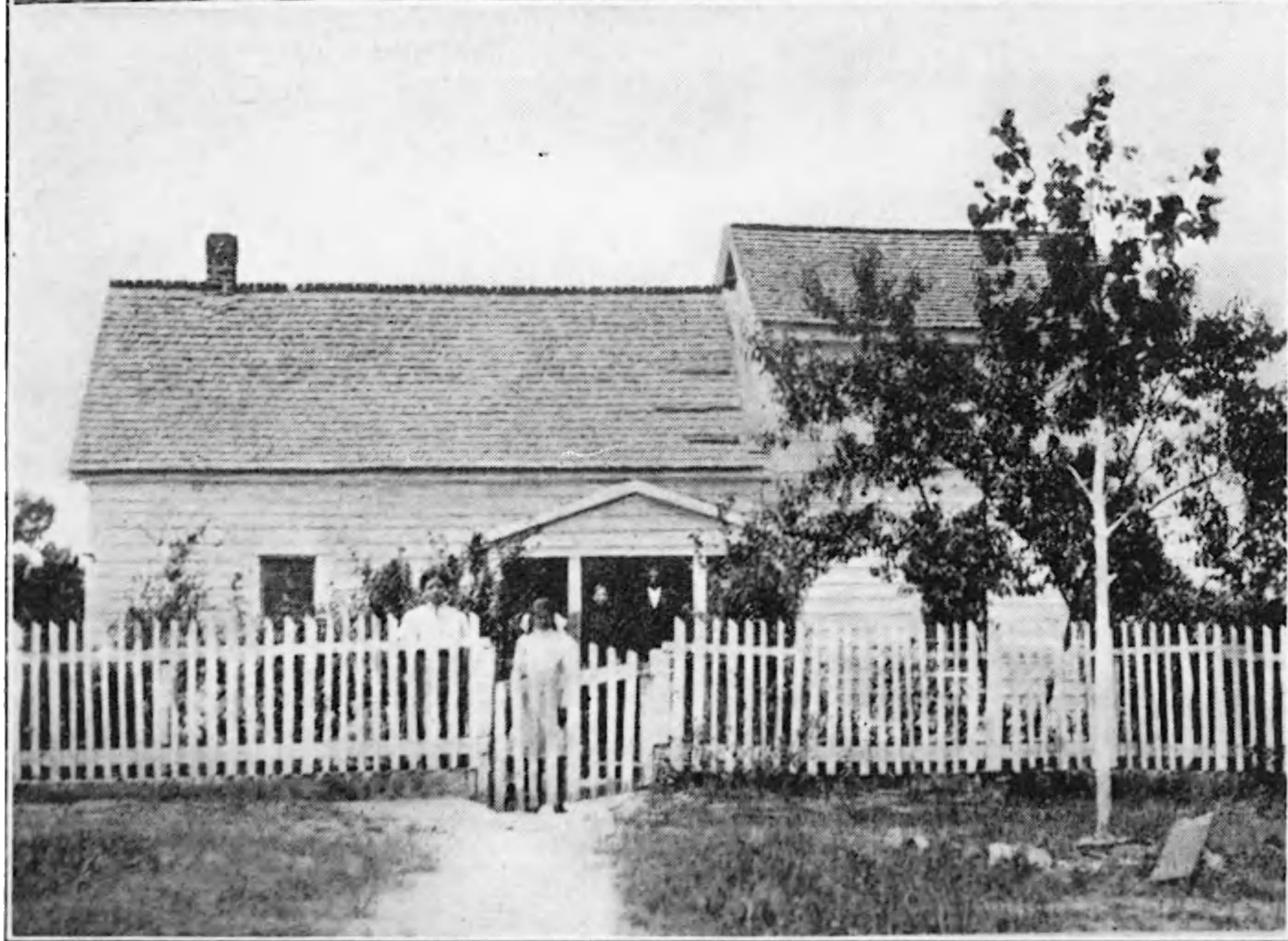
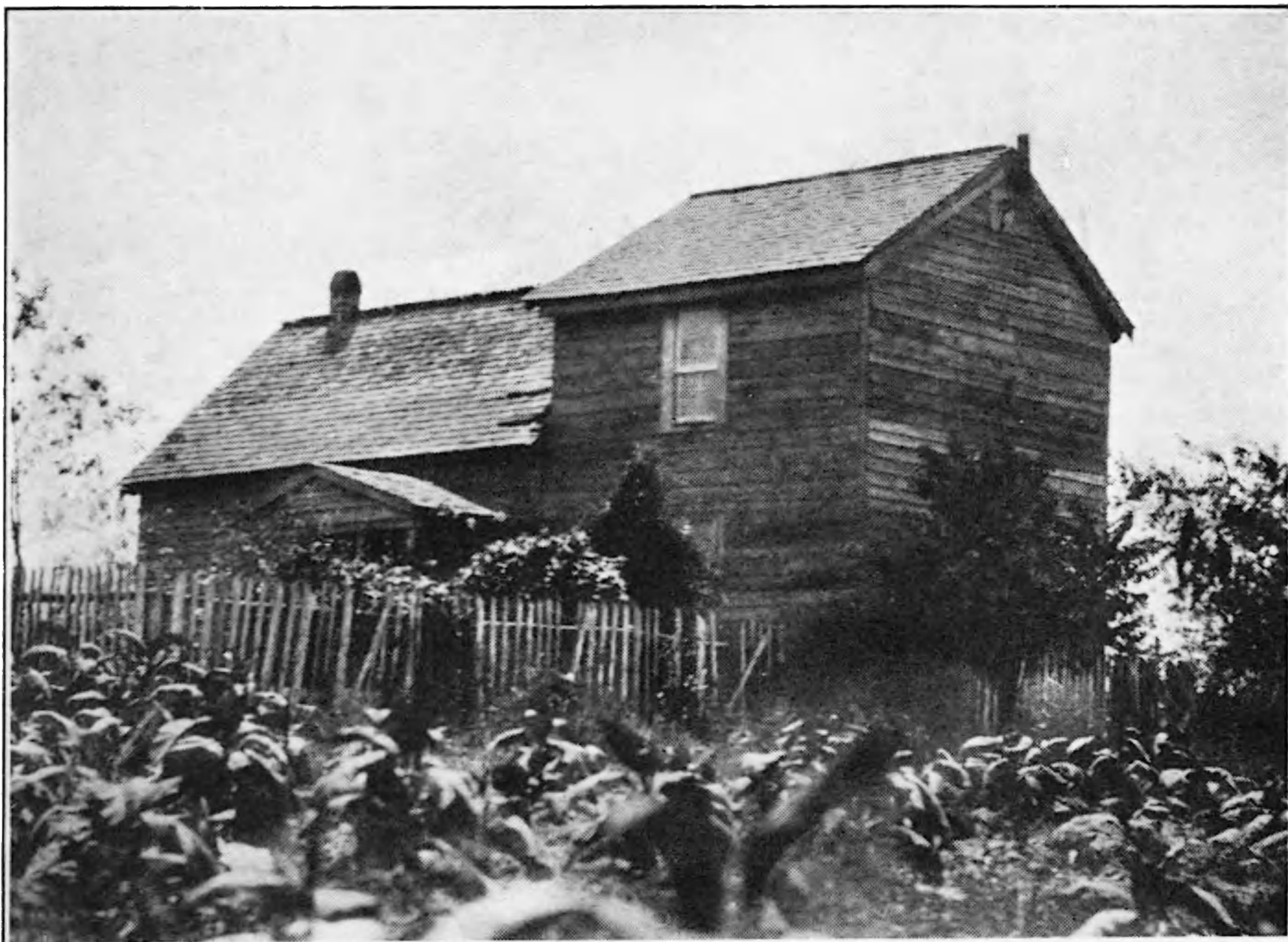
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increasingly intimate relation. These contacts are translating themselves into social and educational terms. Indeed the social and educational awakening of the rural South is to some extent at least a by-product of the coöperative demonstration movement.

DEMONSTRATION AMONG NEGRO FARMERS

The Negro farmer has been quick to take advantage of such opportunities in demonstration work as have been offered to him. In his very first report Dr. Knapp writes: "As the bulk of the cotton crop is produced by colored laborers and tenants, all our agents are not only instructed but of their own choice select colored farmers as demonstrators, visiting them regularly and giving them every attention." In some states, colored local agents work under the white state agent. At Mound Bayou, in the delta region of Mississippi, under a colored local agent, six demonstrations were started in 1907; forty-one were in operation the following year, and the sum of \$50 was raised by the colored people themselves for prizes. In Virginia a somewhat different plan is pursued, a district agent, reporting directly to Washington, being in charge. Hampton and Tuskegee Institutes, and many other industrial and agricultural schools for Negroes, have played essential parts in this development. Their training has produced agents and teachers, who go out into life persuaded that the fate of the race depends primarily on improved economic efficiency. Frequently, throughout the year, the Negro farmers of the neighbor-



Negro demonstrator's home "Before and after." A little whitewash, a little cleaning up, and the fences straightened.

hood or state are brought together to see and to value each other's product. Pride and solidarity are thus built up.

The precise results due to demonstration efforts among Negro farmers are difficult to give, because many colored farmers are enrolled under white agents; but the number of colored agents is gradually increasing. In 1910 there were twenty-three; the next year thirty-two. At the latter date, 3,709 Negro farmers were reported by name, and it was estimated by the Department that 20,000 were under instruction. The results were as good as those obtained by the whites: in South Carolina, for example (where, by the way, 56 per cent. of the farms are operated by Negroes without white supervision), there were, in 1911, 570 acres of cotton and 449 acres of corn under demonstration by Negroes. The average yield per acre throughout the state was 795 pounds of seed cotton, and 18.2 bushels of corn: the Negro demonstrators averaged 1567.9 pounds of seed cotton, and 38.1 bushels of corn. The gain in money at current prices approximated \$24,000.

Among Negroes, as among whites, the work tends to expand in scope. Demonstrators are instructed to procure information regarding the rural economy of the Negro farmers: how many plow in the fall, have summer and winter gardens, keep a cow, care for poultry, have pigs, etc. At Snow Hill, Alabama, the Negro demonstrators have formed a club and agreed on "a standard," requiring every member to possess an enclosed garden,

“in which something must be kept growing the year round; to keep at least one hog for each member of his family, not less than thirty hens, and one or two cows; to preserve or can fruits sufficient for the family’s demand; to plant shrubs, and whitewash the house, and to take at least one agricultural paper.” Local agents report many instances of improved farm equipment due to demonstration work: home gardens, wire fences, new mules, harvesters, riding cultivators, grain drills, enlarged houses, cleaned premises, and the liberal use of whitewash. The farm demonstrator and the farm demonstration arouse pride and stimulate energy. The net outcome has never been more picturesquely summed up than by a Negro farmer in Virginia: “You done turned de kivers down and waked us up.”

The account above given must not, however, convey the idea that farm demonstrations now cover the field. This is not the case; the work is far from adequate to the need and the demand. Five hundred Southern counties had not been reached at all at the end of 1912; needless to say that perhaps no single county has been exhaustively worked and many have been barely touched. There is also every reason to believe that the demonstration method has significance for North, East, and West—not for the South alone. At best a substantial experiment has been successfully performed; it remains to make a general application of the method. Fortunately the value of demonstration has been so clear that the Federal Government will now take over and extend



A field meeting with the agents.



A boy's demonstration crop (1909).

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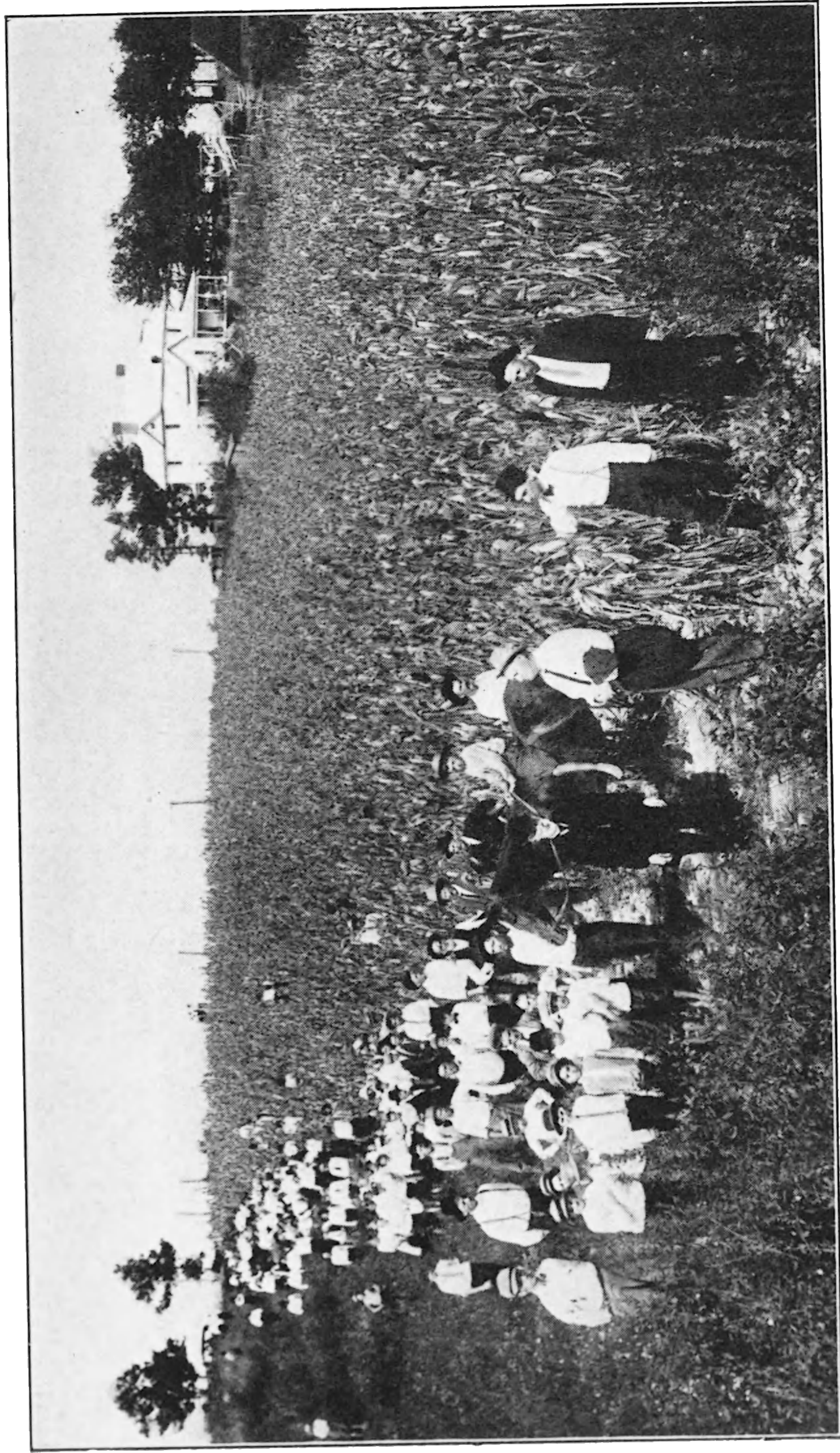
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had already been organized by a few county superintendents of education, when in 1908 Dr. Knapp appropriated and made the most of the idea. As far as possible, every boy should plant an acre of corn on his father's farm; in every neighborhood there should be a local boys' corn club; next, county and state organizations; finally, a federation of corn clubs, including every Southern state. Local, county, and state prizes should be awarded; the topmost boys should be sent to Washington, to meet the Secretary of Agriculture and to shake hands with the President. The expanded idea was an effort to appeal to the boy's imagination—assuredly an effective way of dignifying the farming occupation. But the shrewd old teacher knew that merely decorative distinctions would in the long run prove ineffective. The boy, therefore, was to sell his crop and pocket the money!

A club consists essentially of a group of boys varying in number from twenty-five to one hundred, and ranging in age from ten to eighteen. Corn and cotton are both cultivated, but corn is preferred: first, because the South needs more corn; secondly, because corn lends itself better to study and selection. As a rule, each member works a plot of one acre. The county superintendent of education is usually in charge. Appointed special agent of the Department of Agriculture with a nominal salary of one dollar a year, he obtains the franking privilege which enables him to procure reports from the boys and to disseminate information and instruction among them. But, more and more, other agencies also undertake to



Field meeting of a boys' club in Elbert County, Ga.

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for the best ten ears, 20 per cent. for the best written report. The standards are thus concrete, but not merely quantitative.

The instances above cited represent, of course, the most favorable results; but the general average of the boys is, as the following figures show, strikingly superior to results otherwise obtained:

State	Average Yield on Boy's Acre	Average Yield on Similar Lands
Alabama	62.3	17.2
Arkansas	49.5	22.
Florida	38.58	8.
Georgia	56.4	14.
Louisiana	55.32	20.24
Mississippi	66.3	18.
North Carolina	62.8	20.
Oklahoma	48.	22.63
South Carolina	68.79	18.5
Tennessee	91.46	35.5
Texas	38.	24.
Virginia	59.5	20.

The corn club, like the farm demonstration, is, however, at best as yet only a successful experiment; it remains to be extended and developed. There can be little doubt that, if wisely handled, this movement among farm boys of school age will be the means of enriching the rural school by associating it closely with the natural interests and environment of its pupils. The boys are "learning by doing." Instead of studying text-



Exhibit of corn at the local fair at Blackstone, Va., 1910, produced by members of the Boys' Corn Clubs under the Demonstration Work.

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“When did you put in the cowpeas?”

“After the last plowing, sir.”

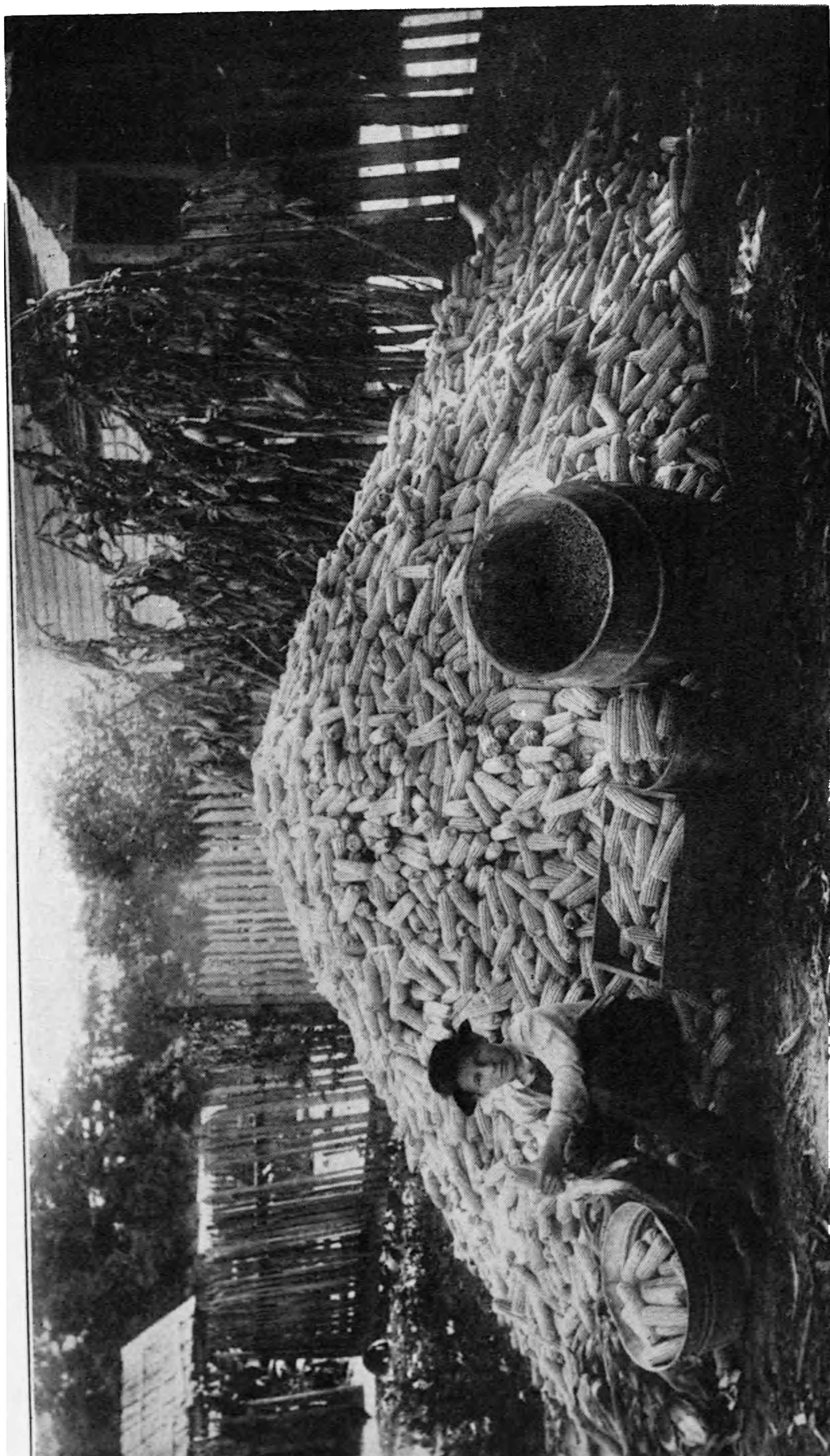
“What did you do that for?”

“Because the cowpeas get out of the air nitrogen, and put back in the ground about as much as the corn takes out.”

How many valuable lessons had this remote Negro lad learned from doing one job right! But this is not the end of the story. His double crop was worth \$52. From his pocket he pulled a dirty little pass-book, the entries in which showed what the crop had cost. Reckoning his own time at ten cents an hour and his father's mule at a dollar a day, he netted a profit of \$30 to the acre. His younger sister, it appeared, had had an equally profitable quarter of an acre in cotton. Three years later both were students at Tuskegee, paying for their education with the money earned as club workers.

GIRLS' CANNING AND POULTRY CLUBS

Father and son were reached by the methods above described; mother and daughter remained to be dealt with. “The demonstration work,” wrote Dr. Knapp in his report under date October, 1910, “has proven that it is possible to reform by simple means the economic life and the personality of the farmer on his farm. The Boys' Corn Clubs have likewise shown how to turn the attention of the boy toward the farm. There remains the home itself—and its women and girls. This problem cannot be approached directly. The reformer who tells



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onions, corn on the cob and preserved plums. The girls write essays on the "Life History of the Tomato and Its Uses," "Gardening and Canning Arithmetic," "The Value of Vegetables in the Daily Diet," "How to Set a Table," "How to Cook a Piece of Meat," and so on. They have to draw sketches of their plots, to figure out and report on the cost of their crop and its market value. A prize is bestowed on the girl who gives the greatest number of recipes for the preparation of a given vegetable. All sorts of things thus immediately relate themselves to the job of canning.

The enrolment duplicates the experience of the boys' clubs. Three hundred and twenty-five girls were registered the first year; 3,000 the next; 23,550 in the year following; in 1913 there were upward of 30,000 in fourteen different states. This army of workers was under the general direction of the special agent in the Department of Agriculture in charge of the Farm Demonstration work, acting through the trained women who were the state and county agents. Headquarters were attached to the state agricultural college, a normal school, or other educational institution. Where the appointment of a



A club member and her well-tended plant full of fruit.

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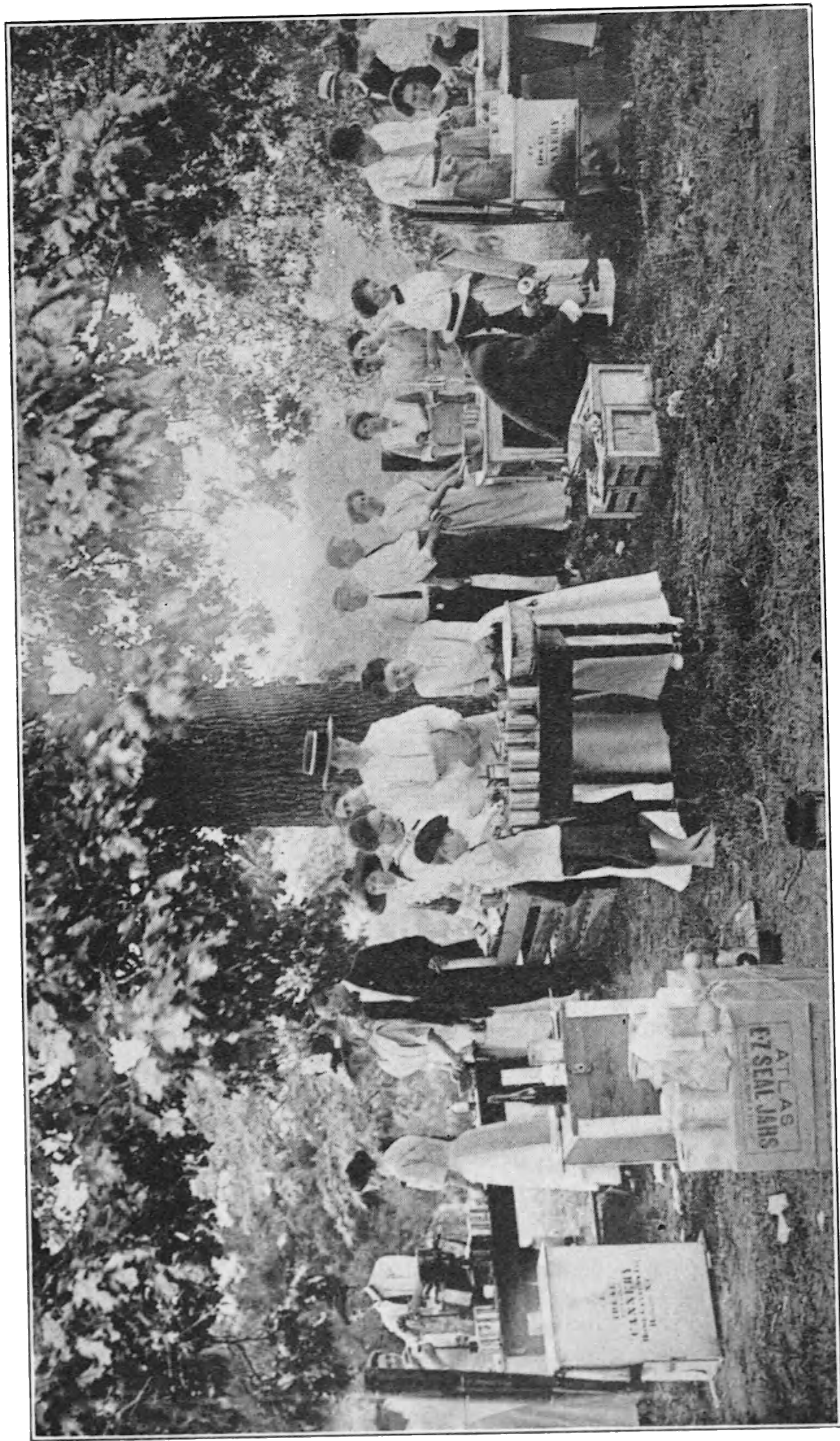
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The imponderable indirect gains are certainly not less important. Canning club day is a social occasion. Mother prepares something a little extra for luncheon, and asks the aid and instruction of the teacher in charge of the Canning Club. The home is "tidied up," tables are properly set out and decorated, bouquets of wild flowers appear here and there about the rooms. The boys come; mothers and fathers come; the neighborhood is there! Thus social interest is kindled about the doing of something worth while. There follows a spirit of mutual helpfulness, mutual concern, mutual affection. This sort of thing lays the foundation for coöperation in larger and more important things—in the church, in the school, in charities, in business. With the sharpened vision of a man nearing his end, Dr. Knapp saw all this. His last visit to the offices of the General Education Board was for the purpose of arranging the expansion of the girls' club work. He was already stricken with illness, but he was not too feeble to foretell what might be accomplished through this work for Southern womanhood. This was indeed his last legacy.

EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETATION OF THE DEMONSTRATION MOVEMENT

The facts above stated are not to be regarded as indicating an accomplished transformation. No such transformation has been achieved. The data merely show the existence now of numerous foci of fresh interest and activity, which, if multiplied indefinitely, seem



A Georgia canning club demonstration in 1912.

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the field in the effort to ascertain and comprehend what has happened.

The boys' corn clubs and the girls' canning clubs may be similarly interpreted. They were, as has been stated above, extremely unpretentious outgrowths of the demonstration idea. What more natural than that, after the father has been assisted to make more cotton and more corn and better cotton and better corn, the boy should be caught earlier, and the girl taught the domestic sides of improved agricultural processes? The authors of the scheme had no further educational philosophy as its sanction. Indeed, the educational philosopher must, like other philosophers, come after the event. The step was taken to meet a situation; and, like all sound steps similarly taken, it developed unsuspected significance.

The Southern club movements may contain the germ of the solution of the vocational problem in the rural districts. They take up relevant, vital, fundamental activities and make them part of the normal process of growth. The activities involved are useful; they are productive; they make for intelligent living in the child's environment; they increase his economic competency; they do not tie him to the soil, if any sufficient reason exists for his leaving it; they make him more contented and more efficient, however, if he stays there. They fit in with the more intellectual work in the schoolroom without overburdening the school by making it the sole custodian of the growing child, the sole sponsor for everything he gets—a tendency all too plainly evident in



A canning club member's plat of staked tomatoes, 1912.

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habitat, and because its outcome has been subjected to the real tests of the market. The boys have cultivated a real acre apiece on the farm; the girls have cultivated a real tenth of an acre in the family garden. The boys have measured their corn in current bushels and sold it at market price; the girls have had to comply with the pure food law. The cash return has been larger or smaller, according to the quality and quantity of the result. The conditions have been precisely those prescribed by the task itself; the incentives have been precisely those that operate upon mature men and women, and the reality of both process and result grips the growing boy and girl. For this reason the club work is likely to be a determining influence in life; the activity is actual, the standards are actual, and the results—economic and moral—genuine.

A school, and the college or university. During the first two decades succeeding the war, provision made by law in all the Southern states for the organization of public elementary school systems. In a subsequent section of this report¹ the state of elementary education in the South will be somewhat fully discussed. Suffice it at this point to say that elementary school systems existed in skeleton at least, and that in the case especially these skeletons were in process of being encased with flesh and blood. Every state also possessed its State University, usually of antebellum origin, while private supported colleges were then, as now, superabundant. Under this plan of organization the high school is of strategic importance. Without it, the elementary pupil lacks a powerful incentive to continue his schooling. Moreover, without adequate facilities in the form of secondary education, a competent body of elementary school teachers cannot be obtained in sufficient number; the elementary teachers could have only such education as is furnished by elementary schools, supplemented,

¹Section VII (pp. 179-189), dealing with rural education.

THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

small amount of normal school training or a good in a "college" or academy. The proper extent of elementary education is thus necessarily dependent on the vigor of the high school.

College or university is equally dependent. It is a question as to whether college standards are high from the standpoint of educational organization is the main consideration. An effective college may be developed from any one of several starting-points, or, a three-year, or a four-year high school. The only are the precision of the point of departure. Close articulation between the two types of instruction is essential.

A sound system of higher education presupposes the existence of high schools with adequate courses of study taught during a definite series of years by competent instructors. Without such facilities at the secondary school level the college must be formless and ineffective. Thus, higher education, as well as elementary education, is peculiarly dependent on the high school.

SOUTHERN HIGH SCHOOLS

educational surveys, to which repeated reference has already been made, dealt, therefore, fully with high school conditions in the several Southern states. A true situation was disclosed. High schools had increased as enumerated in reports issued by State Departments of Education and by the Bureau of Education at Washington. But these statistics were found to be

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scarcely be dignified with the title of high school, so limited both in time and content are their 'courses of study.'” Outside of a small number of modest secondary schools in large towns, the Alabama high school was thus at this period nothing but a more or less uncertain addition to a primary curriculum.

Similar conditions existed in other states. Of the high schools of South Carolina, for instance, it was said less than a decade ago that “few offer a course of study of sufficient length; fewer than one fourth offer more than one course of study; in most, the teaching force is inadequate; and a few are entitled to be called high schools only by courtesy.”

PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The lack of public high schools was temporarily, and for the most part very poorly, compensated by numerous private schools and academies, usually meagre in outfit and transient in point of duration. In North Carolina, for example, there were reported to be 486 secondary schools in 1900; three years later the same authority reports only 283, and of these, 135 were not contained in the previous list. Not infrequently, where the school endured even so brief a period, its name changed or its location shifted. In Alabama, 206 private schools enrolling upward of 8,000 pupils and doing both secondary and elementary work were reported in 1902; they were in the main the merest makeshifts, admittedly destined to “die when better public standards demand the develop-

ment of modern public high schools.” Similarly, in North Carolina, even in the more important towns: while the Raleigh public school had, for instance, only seven grades, six private schools flourished in the town. Whereas in South Carolina private schools were less numerous and important, the “colleges”—superabundant as they were—operated “preparatory departments,” despite the fact that the “college” was itself, as a rule, merely a sort of high school, “though not regarded as such.” Altogether, they had little endowment; for the most part they were supported by fees modest in the extreme—\$60 to \$75 a year in towns, and \$2.50 a month in the country. In general, no inference as to the character of the enterprise could be made from the title by means of which these schools were described. A few were semi-collegiate in character; a few were good, though narrow, preparatory schools; others were feeble schools of the same scope; many were hardly more than inefficient primary schools. They were largely without equipment of any sort; most of them offered no definite courses of instruction; commonly a single teacher—or perhaps two—tutored a miscellaneous aggregation of boys and girls of all sizes, ages, and degrees of competency in a bewildering variety of “subjects.”

Particularly in Virginia and Tennessee, however, the private school was not infrequently a more substantial affair, though weak ventures were even in those states far too abundant. In Tennessee, Vanderbilt University, the first Southern institution of learning to promul-

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insist upon a definite basis for matriculation, promoted the development of a number of efficient schools." The subjects taught were conventional—Latin, Greek, Mathematics, etc.—such in a word, as could be successfully handled in day schools relying on fees for maintenance and to meet the Vanderbilt requirements certain already in existence modified and stiffened their curriculum and a considerable number of new schools were organized and manned largely by Vanderbilt graduates for the purpose of fitting boys for the university. At the time of the report, there were at least eight such schools, claiming property valued at \$1,000,000, with 739 instructors and 17,508 students, as reported by the State Superintendent in his report and the list was not exhaustive. In consequence of the growth of these sources of supply Vanderbilt was able to go as far back as 1887 to discontinue its own preparatory department. The fitting school could not, of course, take the place of the public high school; it was too narrow in scope, too limited in aim. It answered, at best, to those who could afford to pay the tuition and were expected to go to college. To the larger numbers who needed wider opportunities, who could not pay or for whom the secondary school must itself be the educational terminus, the fitting school was inadequate. But it performed, nevertheless, a genuine service in emphasizing the necessity of separately organized and competently manned schools of secondary

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education was a new thing in the South. It could **not** spring into existence, clearly organized, satisfactorily manned, and decently equipped. A start had to be made, and **in the** absence of buildings, teachers, money, and experience, this start was bound to be chaotic.

OBSTACLES TO DEVELOPMENT

High schools could not, however, be created **out** of hand. Even in the cities where school boards were more or less free to act, money, buildings, and teachers were difficult to procure. In the counties and rural districts these serious difficulties were often complicated by the absence of favorable sentiment or by statutory obstacles, now negative, now positive **in** character. Neither the Constitution nor the State School Law of South Carolina recognized the high school as an essential part of the school system, further than the mere grant of the privilege of establishing schools of secondary grade; and this indifference of constitution and statutes proved a complete block to development. The obstruction in Georgia was much more serious; for the law provided that "there shall be a thorough system of **common** schools for the education of children in the elementary branches of an English education *only*," and, further, that the "General Assembly shall *not* have power to delegate to any county the right to levy a school tax for any purpose except for instructing children in the elementary branches of an English education *only*." The State Department of Education could not support, as-

schools, by levying the necessary taxes, and by using money not already otherwise disposed of, and creating a special county high school fund; and several towns and counties had taken favorable action, though with little concerted effort as to the length of the course, the curriculum, etc. In Mississippi, school trustees were authorized to establish in graded schools a high school course of four years or less with a seven months' term, to charge reasonable fees, if they so chose, and to admit pupils from outside the district on payment of a proper fee; no provision was made for state direction, supervision or support. In Virginia, a state subsidy to local created and sustained high schools had been proposed in the legislature, though without favorable action on the proposition as yet. In Georgia, the university, which had never had a preparatory department, had taken hold of the situation, having appointed a school inspector through whose efforts an accredited list of fifty-one schools, only five of them private, had been

got together. In this direction Mississippi had also been effectively busy. Observing that only 3 per cent. of those who passed through its preparatory department reached graduation, as compared with 25 per cent. of those who entered from outside schools, the university abolished the department in question in 1892 and threw itself deliberately on the secondary schools of the State. Coöperation between this institution, the State Department of Education, and the State Teachers' Association was brought about; the high school course of study was revised; members of the faculty visited schools, conferring with patrons and trustees; and an affiliated list was made out, on which, in 1902, there were fifty-nine schools. Thus, without especially favorable legislation, aggressive and tactful leadership on the part of the State University, in coöperation with other agencies, was beginning to produce results.

From these incipient endeavors to deal with the situation, the General Education Board took its cue. A sound secondary school movement had already begun; the project was therefore not a foreign suggestion, but of local origin. It was in essence the response of the Southern people to the increasing urgency of their own needs. But, for lack of resources and leadership, the local movement was making slow and irregular progress. There was, as a rule, no one whose business it was to inform, cultivate, and guide professional, public, and legislative opinion. There was need in every state of a trained specialist in secondary education, who, while sympathiz-

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should exert themselves. With a common general aim, the precise procedure followed was never the same in any two instances. The sketch above given will show how the local situations varied: here the law was fairly favorable, there fatally obstructive, in another place passively permissive. Here the field was more or less encumbered with private schools; there it was relatively open. In one state, sentiment was more or less favorable, and efforts were already making; another was indifferent; a third, perhaps, hostile. Under such circumstances, workers could share an ultimate ideal and could meet to exchange experiences, but they could not follow a single path. In any event, the General Education Board was satisfied to provide the necessary funds which would enable the State University, the State Department of Education, the high school representative, and other interested agencies to work out the local problem in whatever way their own judgment approved.

The first contract of this character was made in Virginia, in 1905; the latest in Kentucky, in 1910. Coöperative work in this field is now under way in the following eleven states: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia. In Louisiana, the work begun by the Board in 1907 has been taken over by the state.

THEIR METHODS OF WORK

In no state was a cut and dried program pursued. The professors of secondary education were in the first place

critical students, each of the conditions in his own state. Their reports contain accurate and detailed accounts of secondary education from the standpoint of law, local sentiment, the number and value of school buildings, school equipment, cost, curriculum, teaching, enrolment, etc. For the first time thoroughly reliable information procured at first hand became available; it was, moreover, diffused through special bulletins and through the reports of State Superintendents, so that the Southern people learned to face frankly the facts of their situation. In addition, the professors of secondary education were high school evangelists, traveling well-nigh incessantly from county to county, returning from time to time to the State University to do their teaching, or to the State Capitol to confer with the State Superintendent. Wherever they went, they addressed the people, the local school authorities, the county court, teachers, business men and business organizations, county and state conferences, etc. They sought almost any sort of opportunity in order to score a point. Law or no law, they urged their hearers to make voluntary efforts toward a county high school, if a start had not yet been made; to add a grade or a teacher to a school already started; to repair the building or to provide a new one; to consolidate weak district schools into a larger one adequate to town or county needs. Nor did they merely expose defects, tender advice, and employ exhortation: they not only urged a policy, but nursed a situation. By correspondence they kept in touch with places already visited; from

time to time they returned, to renew pressure or to recognize achievement. Especially in their earlier efforts they relied largely on the contagion of example, and skillfully played off one vicinity against another. By this method, five county high schools having been previously established, eleven more were started in Tennessee by the efforts of the secondary school representative in his very first year; thereafter counties were the more easily persuaded, coaxed, or shamed into activity. A small Virginia county seat had a \$100,000 courthouse; bonds had been issued for that, for waterworks, sewerage, and electric lights; but six hundred children went to school in an obsolete and inadequate building. An agreement was practically extorted from the town fathers to preserve the next surplus for a high school and to utilize the credit margin still remaining for the same purpose. A North Carolina town of some 10,000 inhabitants, with fair private schools, had done nothing in the way of public schools. "Indeed there is a lingering prejudice against public education—a relic of the time when a public school was regarded as a charity school." A movement to set up public schools being endangered by local rivalries, the secondary school representative exerted himself to bring about harmony, and the election vindicated his efforts. Similar incidents might be quoted from every other Southern state.

The work has been extremely trying. Fortunately the men were young, hardy, and enthusiastic—pioneers in physique, as they were evangelists in spirit. "After

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breakfast, the County Superintendent and I"—so reads a characteristic report—"started across country to Fall Branch, seventeen miles from Jonesboro. We addressed a good crowd of citizens, and three members of the county court who were present promised to vote for the high school tax. At 3.30 we were due at a church twenty-two miles distant. The roads were very bad, our carriage broke down, and we failed to reach the church in time. Returning to Jonesboro, we had supper and drove to Telford, from which place we planned to get to Washington College for a night meeting. But transportation was lacking. It was dark and raining, but we walked three miles to the college, and found a good crowd waiting for us." The most isolated section of Virginia lies north of the York River and east of Fredericksburg. There is not a foot of railway in it, though it is rich in agricultural, fishing, and lumbering industries. "We found traveling difficult; naphtha launches, midnight steamers, relays of buggies had to be relied on. During one dusty day we traveled in three different vehicles, held three different meetings with school trustees, waited till midnight for a boat, rode till five in the morning, and after sleeping two hours, arose, held another meeting, and drove twenty miles to catch a train." In the summer of 1906 the Tennessee representative and the State Superintendent made a campaign that touched every county in the state. Its central purpose was to impress upon the people the importance of having a complete and well-articulated school system from the elementary school in

the rural districts through the high school and normal school to the university. The attendance at this series of mass meetings ranged from one hundred to seven thousand—perhaps one thousand being the average. The meetings began in Memphis, July 20th, and closed at the opposite end of the state just three months later to the day; seventy-nine towns had been visited and one hundred and fifty speakers had participated, the Governor, university and college presidents among the number. These efforts are fairly representative of one phase of the activities of the professors of secondary education.

FAVORABLE LEGISLATION

It was from the first clear that sporadic successes due to voluntary initiative on the part of interested communities would not suffice. They could, at best, whet the appetite for a substantial secondary school system. Aside from local benefit, they were, however, valuable because they reduced opposition to satisfactory legislation—constitutional or statutory as the case might be. Within less than a decade important legislative gains have been made. In Georgia the prohibitions above noted have been expunged from the State Constitution: counties and school districts may now vote local taxes by two thirds of those voting; under which provision thirty-nine counties and some nine hundred school districts have taken affirmative action. By two other amendments, the limitation of public education to “the elements of an English education only” has been removed; a State

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state, local bodies and organizations, state and local officials were working along one line or another to arouse educational interest. The secondary school men profited immensely by all this activity; at the same time they made their own valuable contribution by directing effort toward a definite and valuable object.

RESULTS

Favorable legislation has been generally followed by immediate results, so ripe was the situation everywhere for action. The Alabama law in regard to county high schools required that towns in which these schools are located must furnish at least five acres of ground and a building costing not less than \$5,000. Eighteen counties promptly promised buildings costing \$277,000, no place offering less than twice the minimum required by law; supplemental local appropriations for annual support to the extent of \$1,000 to \$2,000 were voted; and light, water, and fuel were also promised in some instances. The town of Prescott, Arkansas, was a disappointed competitor for one of the new State Agricultural High Schools, despite a generous offer of money and land. The citizens were, however, induced by the high school representative to turn over to the local school board what the state had not accepted; and the little town thus came into possession of a building costing \$24,000, exclusive of furniture, a farm of thirty acres, a four-year high school course with electives in science, manual training, domestic science, and agriculture.



Clinton Public High School, Sampson County, N. C. Erected in 1912.



Murphy High School, Cherokee County, N. C.

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NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOLS

A few statistics will convey an idea of what has thus far been accomplished. It has been pointed out above that a decade ago or less, the four-year high school, properly so-called, was practically non-existent in the South outside a few large towns; that in general the high school was for the most part vague and formless. Though, as we shall see, the term "high school" does not yet mean the same thing or the same sort of thing everywhere, it is nowadays used in the South with a fair degree of critical caution. In this sense, since the appointment of the "Professor of Secondary Education," 174 four-year high schools have been established in Virginia, 110 in North Carolina,¹ 78 in Georgia, 88 in Alabama, 37 in Tennessee, 18 in South Carolina, 13 in Florida, 31 in Mississippi, 62 in Arkansas, 15 in West Virginia. Three-year high schools, many of which will shortly add the missing year, are numerous: Georgia has started 132, North Carolina 100, Arkansas 60, Virginia 146, West Virginia 12, Tennessee 37, South Carolina 88, Alabama 23, Florida 14.

STUDENT ENROLMENTS

With this development, the enrolment of pupils has kept pace. The high schools of Georgia enrol 25,000 pupils; those of Alabama over 20,000 boys and girls; those of Mississippi over 10,000; North Carolina, 8,500

¹ Of these, sixty-two are rural, forty-eight city, high schools.

in the country, and 8,000 in towns; Virginia, over 18,000. In Kentucky there has been an increase in attendance of 4,000 in three years. In the final year of the four-year high schools the enrolment is, of course, still modest: 550 in the rural high schools and 950 in the city high schools of North Carolina; 470 in South Carolina; 1,143 in Arkansas; in Mississippi, about 1,000; in Georgia, 1,241; in Tennessee, 715; in Virginia, 1,613; boys and girls are included in all these figures. The number of full-time high school teachers—teachers not distracted by having to do also odds and ends of primary work—is keeping pace; South Carolina employed 160 in 1906, and 412 in 1913—a gain of almost 160 per cent., indicative of a far keener appreciation of the importance of an adequately trained teaching body, for more and more of these full-time teachers are college graduates. In the same way Tennessee employs 392 full-time teachers in the 117 four-year, three-year, and two-year high schools established since 1905; Arkansas 106 in the 99 high schools set up since 1908. In Georgia full-time teachers increased from 149 to 443 between 1905 and 1914.

IMPROVED BUILDINGS

In this same period very considerable sums have been invested in new school buildings of improved type:¹ \$1,750,000 in North Carolina, \$1,500,000 in Florida, \$1,265,000 in South Carolina, \$2,500,000 in Mississippi, a little under \$2,000,000 in Tennessee, almost \$3,000,000

¹ Often used for the grades as well.

in West Virginia, more than \$3,000,000 in Georgia, and more than \$4,000,000 in Virginia.¹ The state appropriations in aid of high schools locally maintained are beginning to reach considerable dimensions; for this purpose, Alabama has already paid almost \$1,000,000; Georgia, \$659,600; Tennessee, \$282,940; North Carolina, \$500,000; South Carolina, over \$300,000. Private subscription is perhaps most significant of all. In Alabama \$685,000 has been thus donated, the relatively large sum being accounted for by the difficulties in the way of raising funds by taxation; in Tennessee, where taxation has been relatively liberal, private parties have contributed \$172,000 toward high school buildings and equipment; in North Carolina, \$250,000. A few cuts printed as illustrations (pages 84 to 98) convey some notion of the improvements now taking place in Southern school architecture. These buildings are, of course, still the exception; but they represent what is rapidly becoming a general ambition to dignify education by making the schoolhouse one of the most striking and attractive buildings in the community.

APPROPRIATIONS OF GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

The appropriations of the General Education Board in connection with the secondary school movement

¹It will be understood that throughout the figures deal only with the period of activity of the professor of secondary education; this means since 1905 in Virginia, Alabama, Tennessee, Georgia, and North Carolina; since 1906 in South Carolina; since 1907 in Florida and Louisiana; since 1908 in Arkansas and Mississippi; since 1909 in West Virginia; since 1911 in Kentucky.

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North Carolina	1905	28,250.00
Georgia	1905	17,840.00
Alabama	1905	26,624.99
Tennessee	1905	21,144.79
South Carolina	1906	26,166.67
Florida	1907	10,172.36
Louisiana	1907	14,000.00
Mississippi	1908	19,166.66
Arkansas	1908	18,875.00
West Virginia	1909	15,150.00
Kentucky	1911	14,000.00
Conference, September, 1913		<u>970.62</u>
Grand total . . .		\$242,861.09

The foregoing account reveals a movement rich in promise. But the point adverted to in dealing with the farm demonstrations may well be emphasized anew in this connection. As yet only a beginning has been made. Eight years ago the term “high school” conveyed in the South no definite meaning; now it represents a fairly well conceived educational entity, the place, scope, and requirements of which are quite widely appreciated. The experience of Arkansas may be cited in illustration. There the endeavor has been made not only to add to the number of complete high schools and to get the children into them, but to give the term “high school” a clear, substantial meaning. The state aid law, passed in 1911, requires assisted schools to conform

to a standard in length of term, length of recitation period, number of teachers, course of study, etc. These requirements are defined by the State Board of Education, of which the professor of secondary education is not only a member, but the secretary and school inspector. The first year more than one hundred schools met the standard; now, after the law has been in force only three years, practically all high schools, whether receiving state aid or not, are organized and operated in accordance with the regulations of the State Board.

The vastness of the task still to be achieved is fully realized by those who have been the pioneers in the entire movement. Their reports from month to month and year to year emphasize again and again the defects and shortcomings characteristic of even a satisfactorily developing situation. The high schools are rarely full-grown; many of them are meagre; many of them have shot up almost too rapidly and must fill out in the coming years. Separate buildings are still relatively rare; a numerous, stable, and properly qualified teaching and supervising profession has yet to be created, even though a beginning has been made.

It is unnecessary in a volume of this kind to attempt an exhaustive discussion of even the more urgent high school problems with which the secondary school representatives are now dealing. But one or two may be singled out, on account of their more than local interest: and in the very first place, the question of the high school curriculum.

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THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

At the outset, the course of study of the newly established high school naturally follows conventional lines; this is indeed at once the easiest and the cheapest thing to do. The close relationship of the high school to the state university rather accentuates this tendency. For the university begins by formulating its entrance requirements in terms of the traditional cultural subjects. On the other hand, the extent to which the people have directly participated in demanding and paying for the new Southern high schools was bound to emphasize another aspect of high school usefulness. The Southern people want high schools not only as cultural luxuries, but as aids in the solution of political, social, and economic difficulties. The most casual visitor in the South must indeed be impressed by the well-nigh universal recognition there of the existence of problems bequeathed to the present and to succeeding generations by the collapse of the ancient social and economic régime. The South has been convinced that education alone can hope to achieve any kind of solution. Graded schools, high schools, and state universities have been supported with increasing interest and liberality on the basis of this newly acquired faith.

The high school curriculum must under these circumstances face both ways, whether its pupils subsequently attend college or not. It must make an immediate response to present local needs, whatever they are. It

must, on the other hand, be calculated to widen the scope of its pupils, to create fresh intellectual and spiritual needs not at the moment acutely felt. These two objects are not mutually repugnant to each other; indeed, the first is one of the conditions on which the development of the second depends. If the Southern school man has often been militantly aggressive in his criticism of the old-fashioned literary or academic course of study, it does not mean that he sees no good in it; he has only wanted to put it in its proper place, to deprive it of its monopoly, to make room for other types of wholesome activity, and to pay proper regard to the large numbers who never go to college. In every Southern state the high school curriculum has thus been thoroughly ventilated in the last few years; and with already noticeable results. At formal and informal gatherings efforts have been made to reach some agreement as to why this or that subject should be taught, how, and how much. The cause of the new interests—agriculture, domestic art, business methods—has been discussed earnestly and effectively. “The discussions revolved around the present course of study,” writes one of the men at the beginning of his service, “an inelastic, hidebound thing, well enough adapted to the making of preachers, lawyers, and doctors, provided boys are so inclined, but wholly unfit for the teaching of agriculture in a practical way. As the representative of the State Department of Education I plead with all my might for the formulation and adoption of a new course of study in which agriculture, home economics, and

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These and other high schools are likely to become centres for many of the forces now stirring in rural life. The farm demonstration work may be connected with them; boys' and girls' clubs are so connected already. To helpful work of the demonstration type there need be no arbitrary limit. A resourceful teacher of domestic science in one of them immediately perceived that the type of domestic science which she had pursued at college was not adapted to this environment. She visited homes throughout the county in order to formulate her local problem. On the basis of that experience her girls have been trained to attend the sick with care and intelligence, and to bathe, dress, and prepare food and clothing for an infant. "I observed," she said, "that the rural sick suffer less from disease than from discomfort, and that the babies of the county need clean and intelligent management." Nor does it follow that education must be mean, unimaginative, lacking in ideal content, simply because it is mindful of such humble and vital necessities.

COLLEGE RELATIONSHIP

Attention has been called to the fact that at the outset the university and college influence made for a narrow course of study and so hampered the responsiveness of the high school to immediate needs. This has largely ceased to be the case, the colleges showing more and more disposition to enlarge the basis of matriculation. A very acute problem in respect to college and high school rela-

New building, District High School, East Bank, Kanawha County, W. Va.



New District Graded and High School, Princeton, W. Va.

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writes the secondary school representative in 1910, "these institutions will be continually trespassing upon each other's territory." Annually since that time the bulletins of the University of South Carolina publish a list of college students "untimely ripped" by the colleges of the state from the high schools where they should have remained a year or two longer. In 1910, "out of more than 200 pupils reported by the high schools as having left before completing the courses offered, 82 entered colleges." In subsequent years the matter is pursued in even greater detail, the name of the pupil and his high school standing, together with the name of the college and the class to which he (or she) was admitted, being printed. The argument has been pressed with vigor and ingenuity. "More than one half the high school communities of the state are impoverishing their own high schools by taking their sons and daughters away and sending them to college at a heavier expense than the entire high school at home. It is strange that a man of ordinary business sagacity will take his child out of the high school, where it costs him not exceeding \$25 a year, and send him off to college to do the same work at a cost of \$250." Again: "Colleges do not hesitate to take pupils from different classes in the same high school and put them into the same college class. In several colleges, first-year, second-year, and third-year high school pupils are side by side in the freshman class." Efforts to complete the high school course are thus defeated: "We had to give up our eleventh grade; the

colleges have broken it up," writes one principal. "Our eleventh grade is very small; two colleges robbed us of our tenth grade pupils during my summer vacation," writes another. It is needless to quote further illustrations; but the problem must be borne in mind, for we shall return to it in considering the policy of the General Education Board in dealing with colleges and universities.¹

HIGH SCHOOL CONSOLIDATION

There can, of course, be too many high schools, precisely as there are too many colleges. The consolidation of district into town or county high schools must therefore be an object steadily kept in mind. As soon as high school classes begin to multiply in scattered elementary schools, a campaign to concentrate the high school grades into a centrally located high school is in order. The teaching of high school subjects in one-teacher rural schools is still widely permitted, and with woful results. Hence, it is important to beware of excessive emphasis on the increased number of high schools; from time to time a fall in numbers would be more truly indicative of health. Laurens County, S. C., for example, supported at a total cost of less than \$11,000 eight state aided high schools in 1910, with fourteen full-time teachers, and 338 pupils; yet not one boasted a fourth year. The substitution of a county for a district system would facilitate a process of consolidation through which two or three good and complete schools would supplant thrice the number of feeble

¹See pp. 109-110.

Other difficulties attendant on a new and rapid educational development need not detain us now. It goes without saying that more and better buildings, more and better equipment, above all, more and better teachers are needed. Emulation will in time supply the building and equipment. Efforts have from the outset been made to improve the present body of teachers, by normal training, by teachers' institutes, by summer schools, bulletins and by special classes at the state universities and normal schools. A new agency, of whose beneficent influence high hopes are entertained, is the George Peabody College for Teachers at Nashville, which promises to address itself soberly and intelligently both to improving the present profession and to training a new and better one.

¹ At its first summer school, just held, the attendance was over 1,200.

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vately endowed and managed institutions; the general government has limited itself to the making of appropriations to agricultural and mechanical colleges, without, however, supervising the expenditure of the funds thus contributed.

Generally speaking, therefore, it may be said that in the United States there is a wide-open door in so far as higher education is concerned. Individuals and organizations are free to establish and support institutions of higher learning, and it is expected that they will do so. This expectation has not, as a matter of fact, been disappointed. In the first place, religious bodies have plentifully planted colleges and universities, in order to protect their several denominations and to secure a competently educated ministry. From these foundations, ecclesiastical in origin, many of the strongest and broadest of our higher institutions have developed in a comparatively brief space of time. Again, a majority of the states themselves have created universities by way of rounding out their several public school systems. Finally, a small number of strong institutions, independent alike of religious denominations and the several states, have been endowed by single individuals.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

Our easy-going treatment of this important matter has developed many advantages. People at large have been made to feel responsible for their own higher education, with the result that nowhere else in the world does

so much popular interest in higher education exist. An enormous amount of energy has been thus liberated; and sacrifice for ideal educational ends—a rare phenomenon in the rest of the world—has become usual in America.

It would, however, be idle to deny that very grave evils have also resulted. If only some general conception or purpose could from the outset have controlled the planting and development of higher institutions of learning, all might have been well. But no such ideal has at any time dominated or even greatly influenced the course of events. Political, local, denominational, and purely personal factors have too often proved determinative. Waste and confusion have been the consequence. States that might have developed a strong and symmetrical university as the crown of a public school system have often either multiplied institutions or split up the university into several fragments so distributed as to placate political sentiment; rival religious bodies have invaded fields fully—or more than fully—occupied already; misguided individuals have founded a new college instead of strengthening an old one. Thus institutions have been born which could not possibly grow up—superfluous institutions that interfere seriously with the nutrition of those really needed.

GOVERNMENT CONTROL

A problem that gravely concerns both the states and the nation results; for on the efficient organization of higher education depends not only the highest culture

f certain selected individuals, but the vigor and effectiveness of the primary and secondary school systems as well as the facts brought out in considering secondary education in the South—facts that can be more or less paralleled in other sections of the country—amply sustain this view. On the terms upon which the colleges admit students the quality and performance of the schools to a large extent depend. Moreover, the colleges train the men and women who teach in the lower schools; the competency of the colleges, therefore, determines the quality and performance of the schools.

There is no indication that in the near future either state or national government will fearlessly endeavor to bring order out of the chaos just described; our "open door" tradition is too deeply rooted; too many vested interests have been created; too many incidental issues are involved. Best of all, too much that is admirable has come to pass under our present methods. The conditions that produced Harvard, Williams, Johns Hopkins, the University of Chicago, and half a hundred other well-established institutions of learning, are not to be lightly discarded. More especially in these days of large fortunes, nothing must be done to deprive private initiative of incentive and opportunity, or—more than all—actual responsibility. It is therefore not probable that the several states will soon utilize their authority to regulate the founding, development, and conduct of colleges and universities. Thus far, only a single state has created a department of education armed with anything

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membership would tend to eliminate irrelevant considerations and to make for the prevalence of broad views of educational policy. The presence of a strong lay element in its composition would tend to keep it responsive to public as well as to professional opinion. In a word, a body of this kind might hope to remedy some of the defects attending unhampered individual initiative by utilizing private initiative and its experience in another fashion.

THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

In respect to higher education, the General Education Board has sought to be useful to the academic departments of colleges and universities¹ in this way. According to the terms of Mr. Rockefeller's second gift, the Board was to assist "such institutions of learning as the Board may deem best adapted to promote a comprehensive system of higher education in the United States." From the standpoint of the amount of money appropriated and the amount of attention bestowed, this has indeed been the most important of the Board's activities. The general situation to be dealt with was already well understood. But systematic studies were at once undertaken for the purpose of learning the details in so far as colleges and universities were concerned. Efforts were made to ascertain the number of institutions of higher learning in the country, the purposes for which, and the

¹ The Board has as yet made no appropriations to professional departments, except medicine: See pp. 166-172. A single appropriation has been made to a technological institute, viz., \$250,000 to the Stevens Institute of Technology.

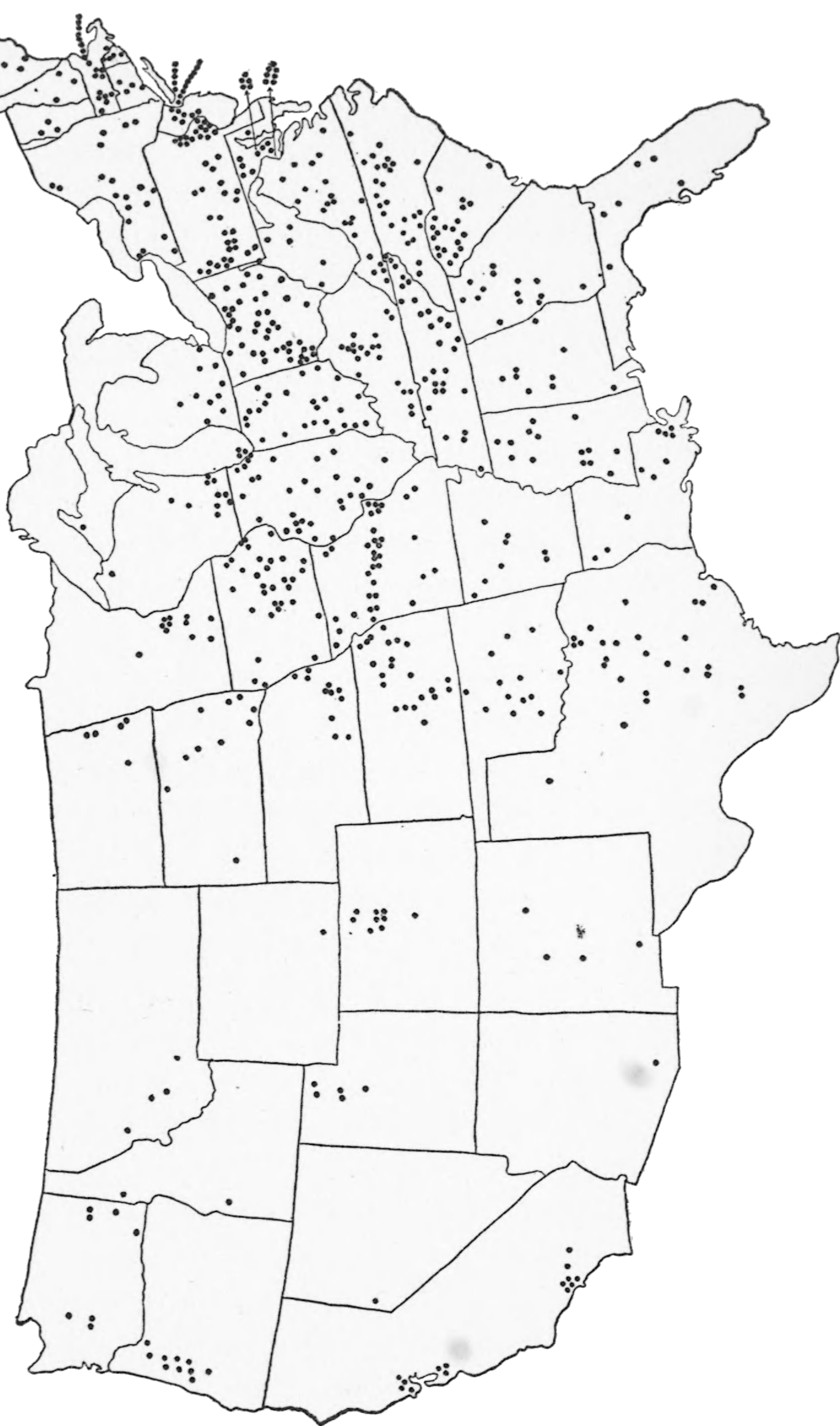
and, with the utmost particularity, their relations to their respective communities, educationally and otherwise.

NUMBER AND CHARACTER OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Exclusive of technical institutions, there were in 1902 something like 700 institutions in the United States calling themselves colleges or universities. The geographical distribution of 687 of these is indicated on the accompanying map (Figure 10). A glance is enough to show the absurdity of the situation. Institutions in such numbers cannot be supported, cannot be manned, cannot procure qualified students. The State of Ohio, with a total population of 4,767,121, contains over 40 so-called colleges and universities, almost twice as many as the entire German Empire, with a population of 64,903,423; Missouri (population 3,293,335) contains 34, Pennsylvania (population 7,665,111) contains 41, Tennessee (population 2,184,789) contains 29, Maryland (population 1,295,346) contains 20, Iowa (population 2,224,771) contains 32; other states are in substantially the same position.

An examination of the scope and facilities of the above-mentioned institutions proved that many of them were hardly more than secondary schools, not always good secondary schools at that; and that others offered only one or two years of college work. Only a minority were

Figure 10.



Location of 687 institutions of higher learning which confer academic degrees.

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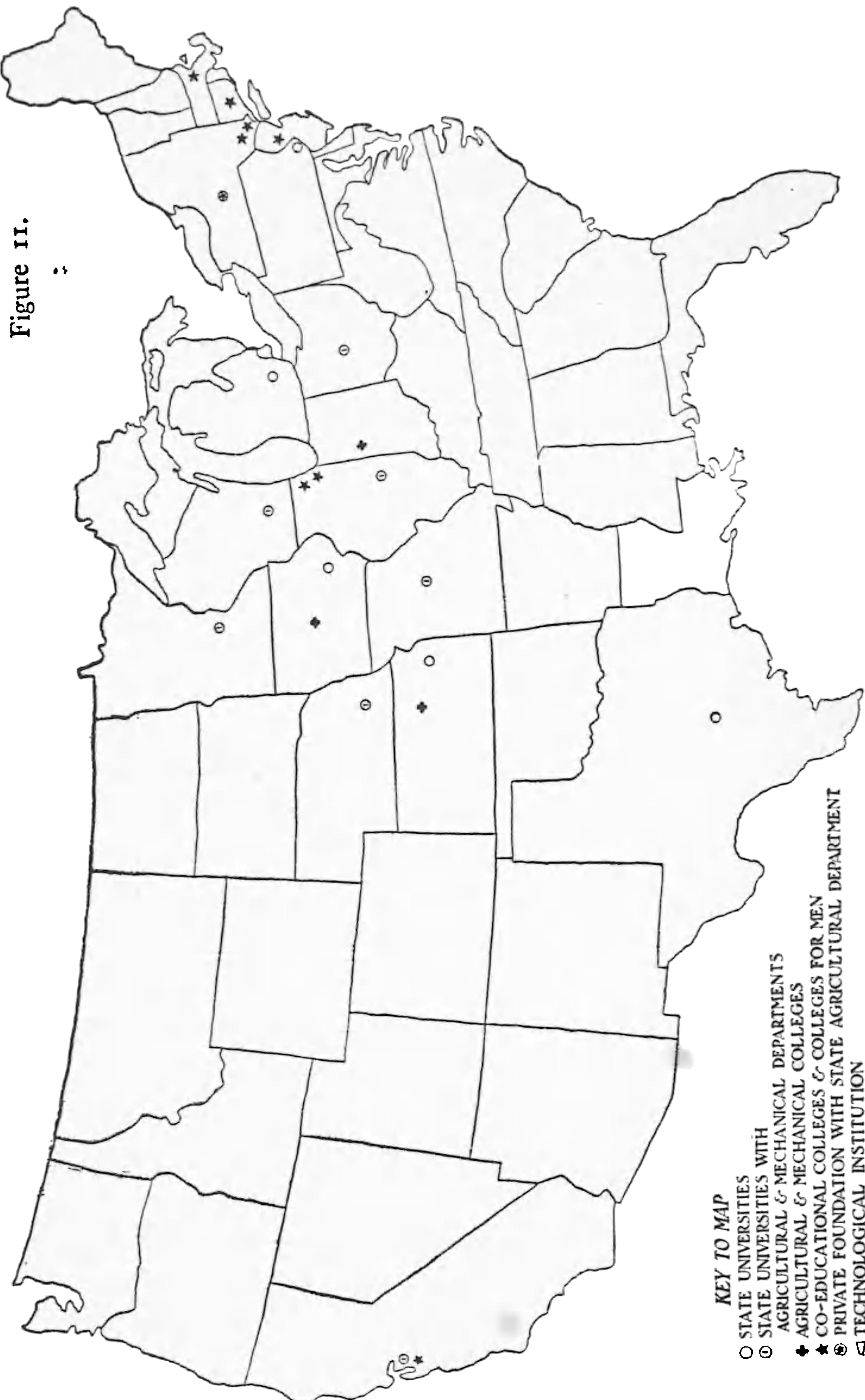
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Figure 11.



Location of 25 institutions of higher learning with annual income of \$500,000 and upward.

FINANCIAL SITUATION

Meanwhile, whatever their origin and tradition, institutions were—and still are—generally suffering from the pressure of need. Financial strength and security are indeed far rarer than is commonly believed. In the accompanying series of maps an effort is made to portray the existing situation.¹ Only twenty-five institutions of higher learning located in seventeen different states (Figure 11) enjoy total annual incomes from all sources—endowment, tuition, fees, etc.—of \$500,000 or more. If this is regarded as too severe a criterion, assuredly a total annual income from all sources of \$200,000 will in these days sustain only a modest university: forty states contain about eighty-five institutions receiving that amount or more annually (Figure 12). The time is fast approaching, if indeed it is not already here, when it will be conceded to be impossible for an academic institution to do justice to its students on a total income from all sources of less than \$100,000 a year: considerably less than one fourth of our colleges and universities (one hundred and forty or thereabouts) now enjoy an income of that size (Figure 13). A very large number of institutions, some of them doing well, though clearly showing the strain, operate with an annual budget between \$50,000 and \$100,000 (Figure 14). One hundred and seventy-six have to live on

¹Based on statistics given in the Report of U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1913.



KEY TO MAP

- STATE UNIVERSITIES
- ① STATE UNIVERSITIES WITH AGRICULTURAL & MECHANICAL DEPARTMENTS
- ✚ AGRICULTURAL & MECHANICAL COLLEGES
- ★ CO-EDUCATIONAL COLLEGES & COLLEGES FOR MEN
- Ⓒ PRIVATE FOUNDATION WITH STATE AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT
- ◇ COLLEGES FOR WOMEN
- MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS
- < TECHNOLOGICAL INSTITUTIONS

Location of 85 institutions of higher learning with an annual income of \$200,000 and u

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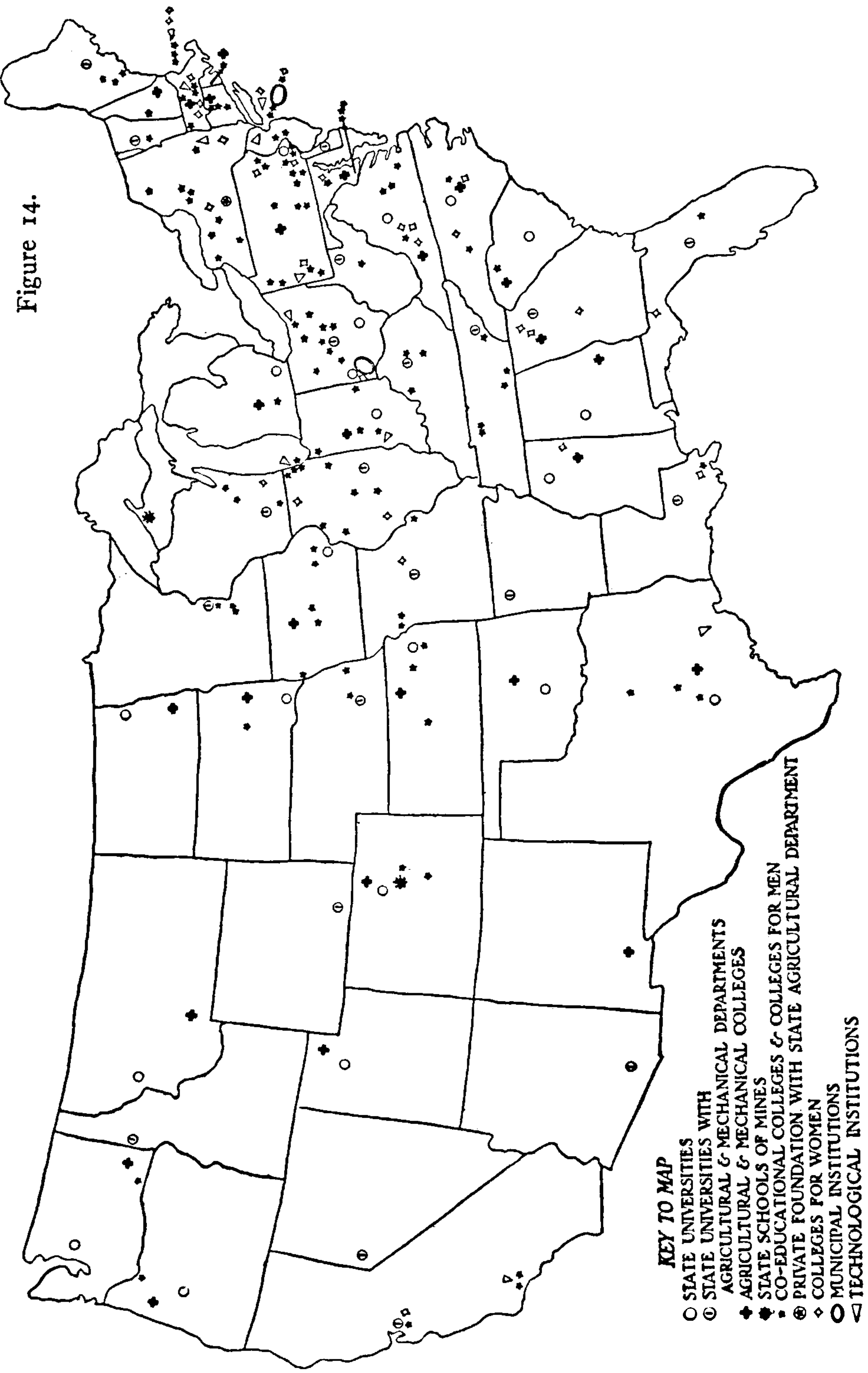
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\$25,000 a year or less—an absolutely impossible undertaking, if efficiency is to be secured (Figure 15). On this showing the necessity of strengthening colleges and universities on the financial side and of concentrating aid on those upon which the main burden falls is obvious.

POLICY OF THE BOARD

Whatever policy the Board might elect to pursue, two preliminary decisions were reached, neither of which has ever been departed from, either in letter or in spirit. The Board had no authority, and desired no authority; and its membership must be its sole title to influence. It was therefore resolved to put no pressure, direct or indirect, upon any college or university with a view to influencing its course of action; it was resolved that in making appropriations the Board would in no wise interfere with the internal management of an institution, and would incur absolutely no responsibility for its conduct in any respect. Informal discussion and conversation between the officers of the Board and college or university representatives have been, indeed, frequent, but the unanimous testimony of those participating declares that the spirit of the above-mentioned decisions has never been infringed. The General Education Board has left to the discretion of every institution with which it has in any way had relations complete power to shape its own course, externally and internally. It has held that the higher institutions of learning must in the end

Figure 14.



Location of 234 institutions of higher learning with an annual income of \$50,000 and upward.

- KEY TO MAP**
- ★ CO-EDUCATIONAL COLLEGES & COLLEGES FOR MEN
 - ◆ COLLEGES FOR WOMEN
 - ↔ TECHNOLOGICAL INSTITUTION

Location of 176 institutions of higher learning which confer academic degrees, and which have less than \$25,000 of annual income.

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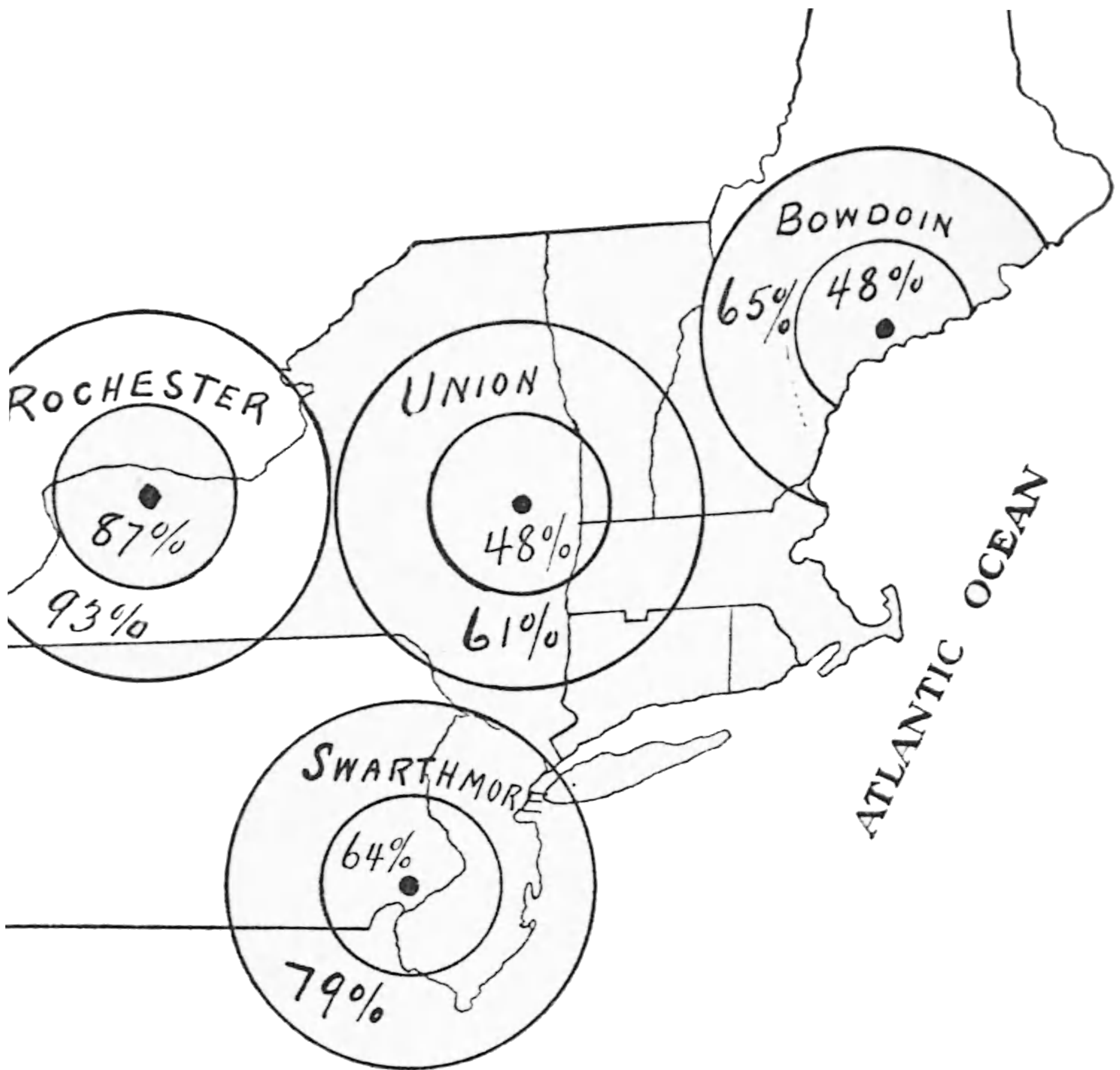
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showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of four colleges.

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles)

NAMES OF INSTITUTIONS

Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me.
 The University of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y.
 Union College, Schenectady, N. Y.
 Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.

and 87 per cent. from within fifty miles; 61 per cent., 79 per cent., and 93 per cent. from within one hundred miles. In the case of Rochester, nearly one half the circle is cut off by Lake Ontario, but the local percentage is raised by the inclusion of women students, who necessarily come from Rochester only, since there are no dormitories for the accommodation of those from a distance.

In the South Atlantic section, three institutions (Figure 17), similarly chosen, sustain, on the whole, the same principle. One half the students of Richmond College live fifty miles or less from the college; a trifle less than three fourths, one hundred miles or less. Furman University derives 60 per cent. of its students from the smaller area, 72 per cent. from the greater. Trinity College, getting only 35 per cent. of its students from within fifty miles and 61 per cent. from within one hundred miles, is a partial exception, only because the State University and Wake Forest College, being so near by, drain the same area.

Vanderbilt University, Hendrix and Millsaps Colleges (Figure 18) in the South Central section, practically

**Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles
and enrolled in the four regular college classes of three colleges.**

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles)

NAMES OF INSTITUTIONS

Richmond College, Richmond, Va.

Trinity College, Durham, N. C.

Furman University, Greenville, S. C.

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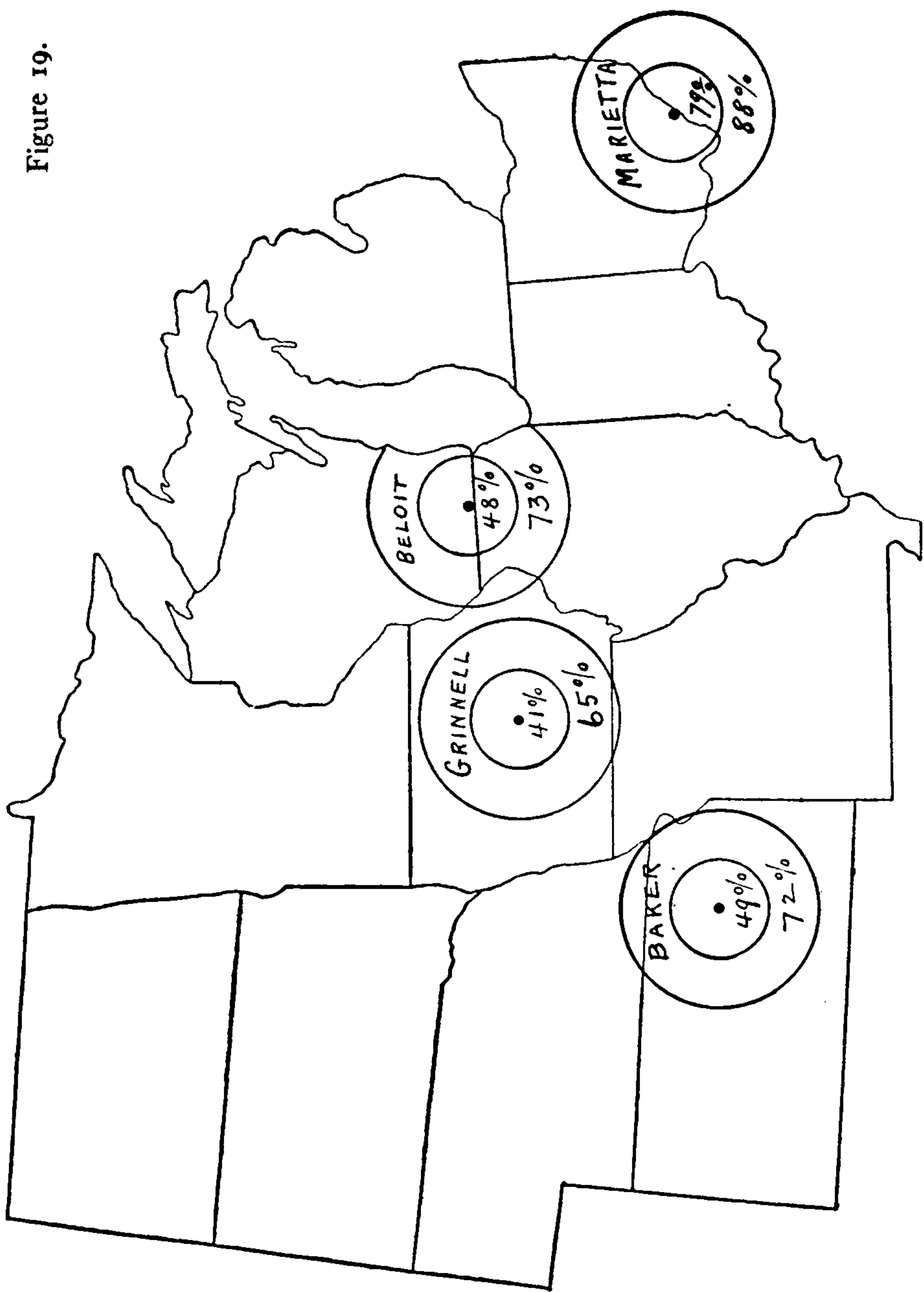
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conform to the same rule, with 48 per cent., 45 per cent., and 49 per cent., respectively, of their students coming less than fifty miles, and 54 per cent., 68 per cent., and 80 per cent. coming one hundred miles or less. Baylor University, located in the centre of an immense and thinly settled country, might be expected to draw less heavily on its immediate environment; yet 56 per cent. of its students reside within the one hundred mile circle.

The North Central section illustrates the same tendency. Beloit and Grinnell Colleges and Baker University (Figure 19) draw approximately one half their regular undergraduate body from the smaller of the two circles we are considering, and from two thirds to three fourths of them from the larger. Marietta, by reason probably of its close proximity to important West Virginia towns, draws over three fourths from the fifty mile area, and almost nine tenths from the one hundred mile area.

The extreme West is no exception. Whitman and Colorado Colleges (Figure 20) agree in obtaining 44 per cent. within the fifty mile radius; the former obtains 50 per cent., the latter 62 per cent., within one hundred miles. Pomona College, despite the fact that a considerable slice is cut off the circle by the Pacific Ocean, obtains most of its students (80 per cent.) from its immediate vicinity; less than 15 per cent. travel over one hundred miles. This extraordinarily high percentage is perhaps due to the fact that many families settle close to the college so as thus to obtain both climatic and educational advantages.

Figure 19.



Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of four colleges.

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles).

Figure 20.



Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of three colleges

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles).

NAMES OF INSTITUTIONS

Whitman College, Walla Walla, Wash.
Colorado College, Colorado Springs, Col.
Pomona College, Claremont, Cal.

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Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of Amherst College, Amherst, Mass.

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles)

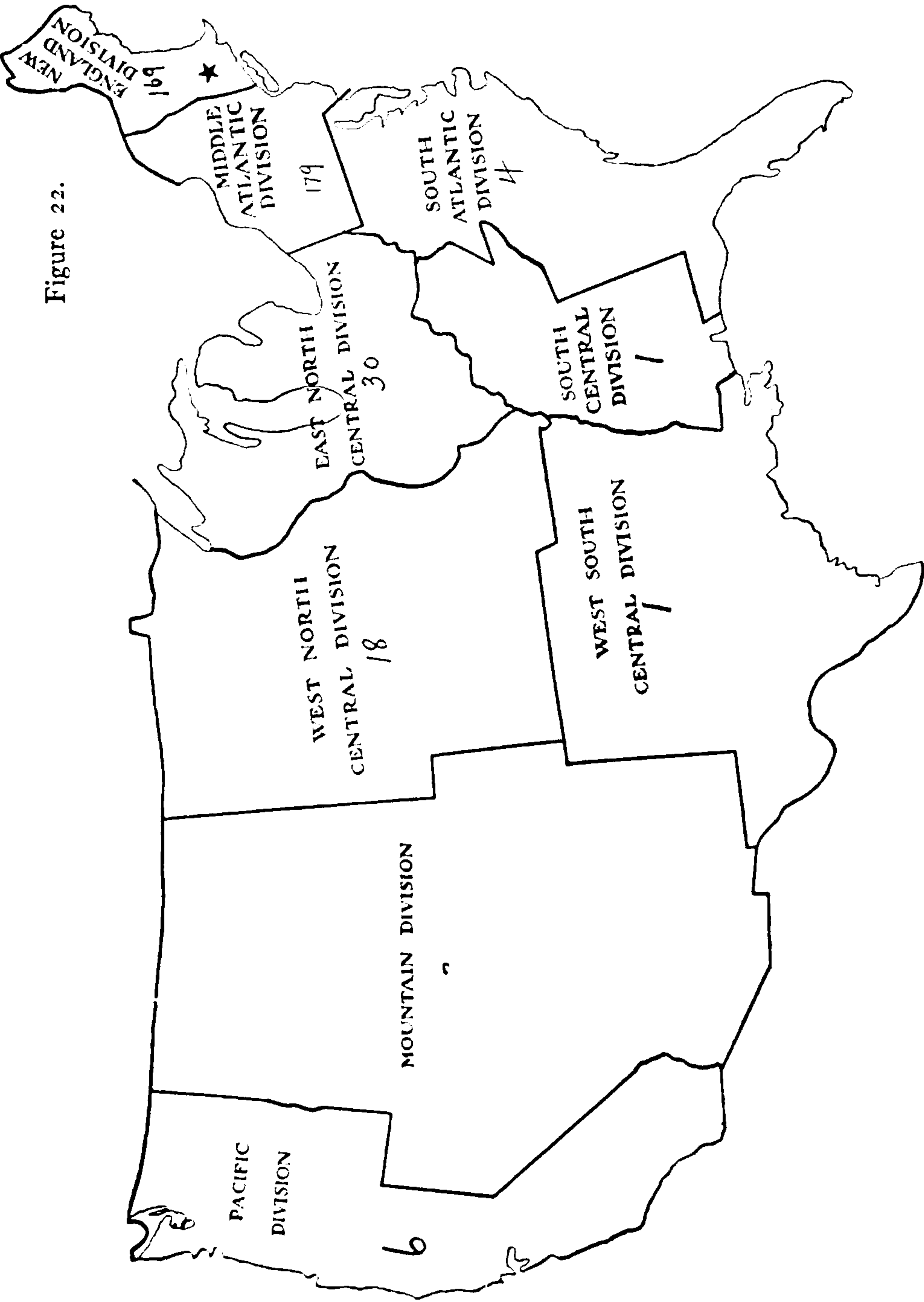


Figure 22.

Map showing sections from which Amherst College, Amherst, Mass., derives its students.
(Star denotes the location of Amherst College)

Williams, Amherst, and others. These institutions, established before the growth of great cities with the industrial and social changes implied therein, had already acquired sufficient momentum to defy the tendency under discussion. They have strong support in a numerous, prosperous body of alumni, and rich historical, local, and personal associations, making their future alike useful and secure. Nevertheless, it is important not to magnify the extent to which even they are exceptions to the general rule. None of them are really national in scope. While Amherst College, for example (Figures 21, 22), draws less than one fifth of its students from the fifty mile circle, over 40 per cent. come from the one hundred mile circle, and 92 per cent. from the region east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio. The reach of Williams College (Figures 23, 24) is somewhat larger: only 14 per cent. come from the smaller area, only 23 per cent. from the larger; but 94 per cent. live east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio. Of the regular undergraduate body of Harvard College (Figure 25) 57 per cent. come from three fourths of a circle with a radius of fifty miles; 61 per cent. from somewhat less than a semicircle having a radius of one hundred miles. The comparatively small size of New Haven reduces Yale's draft (Figure 26) on the fifty mile area to 23 per cent.; but 47 per cent. live within one hundred miles.

The colleges for women belong to this category. The first foundations of this kind obtained relatively wide fame as innovations and naturally drew ambitious girls

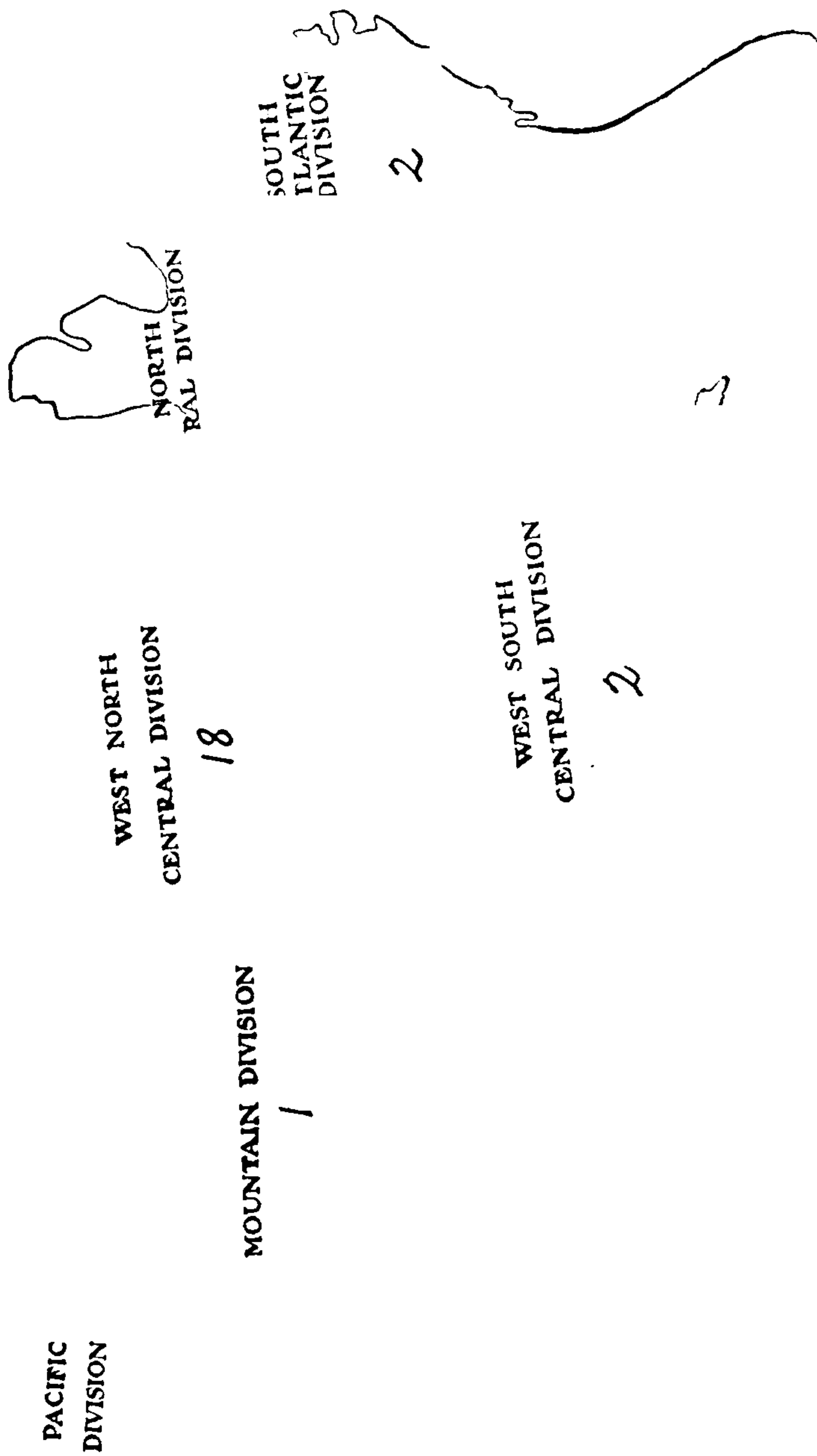
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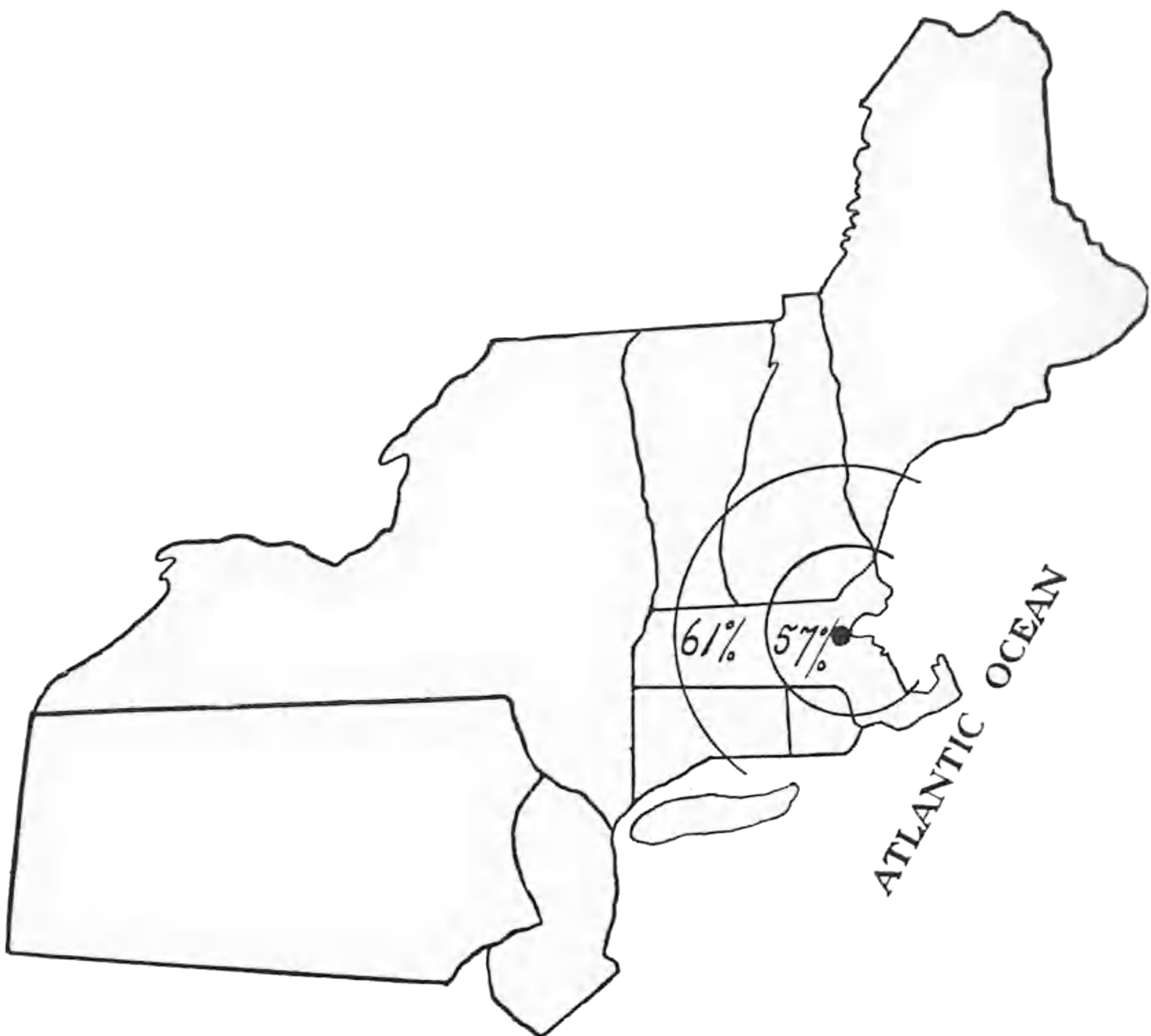
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Map showing sections from which Williams College, Williamstown, Mass., derives its students.
(Star denotes the location of Williams College)

from all sections. Moreover, these institutions have never been so numerous that the demand for higher education on the part of women could be as a rule locally satisfied. Nevertheless, the one hundred mile limit takes in a substantial portion of the attendance and only a small percentage come from remote regions. Smith College, for instance (Figures 27, 28), draws 14 and 35 per cent, respectively, from fifty and one hundred miles, 86 per cent. from the larger field east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio. Vassar (Figures 29, 30), drawing 9 per cent. from the fifty mile limit, 42 per cent. from one hundred miles, and 86 per cent. from the territory east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio, is similar to Smith.

It is clear then that the geographical factor is always powerful, even though not infrequently offset to greater or less extent by historical or other considerations. Institutions which have thus made themselves effective over an unusually wide territory are obviously to be regarded as permanent and important factors in our educational development, precisely as in Germany the universities of Tübingen and Greifswald have more than triumphed over a disadvantageous location. Nevertheless, such institutions constitute no conclusive precedent for present-day action. Our college planning, in so far as it endeavors to develop institutions that have not yet attained full power, must give great weight to the consideration that the modern university thrives and is most useful in close association with population, industry, and wealth.



Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles)

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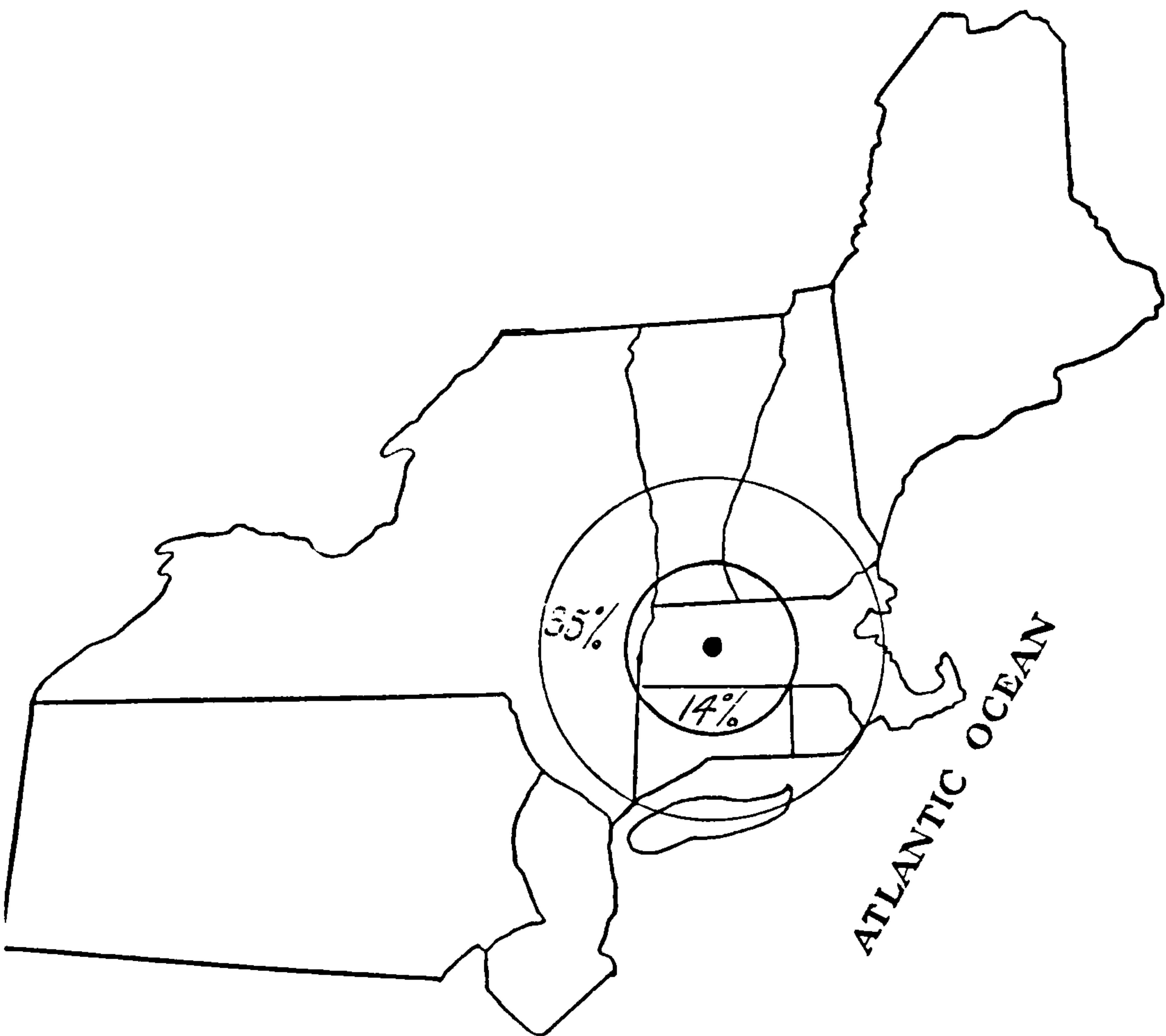
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We shall see in a moment that this is a fact, vouched for by experience, even were it a matter to be deplored. But it is by no means clear that a rural location has to-day any substantial advantages at all over an urban location. The village or the wilderness was suitable to the college student, from twelve to fourteen years of age at matriculation and hardly more than sixteen at graduation, whose instruction was confined to ancient languages, the elements of mathematics, rhetoric, and philosophy. To-day the college student is on the verge of manhood; the college curriculum endeavors to include not only the treasures of historic culture, but the activities and ideals of contemporary life. From these points of view, the opportunities, influences, perhaps even the restraints, surrounding the student in a city of fifty or one hundred thousand inhabitants may well be superior to the influences in the country college situated in a little village which the students dominate.

LARGE DEVELOPMENT OF COLLEGES LOCATED IN CITIES

Of the hundreds of colleges and universities struggling for existence at the time the General Education Board was established, thirty-four, privately founded, had endowments valued at \$500,000 or more. Of these thirty-four, twenty-three were located in cities and growing towns. The eleven situated less favorably had \$13,000,000 in endowment, and less than 6,000 students; the twenty-three more favorably situated had \$72,000,000 of endowment, and almost 36,000 students.

Figure 27.



Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of Smith College, Northampton, Mass.

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles)

PACIFIC
DIVISION

WEST NORTH
CENTRAL DIVISION

MOUNTAIN DIVISION

73

22

SOUTH
ATLANTIC
DIVISION

45

SOUTH
CENTRAL
DIVISION

WEST SOUTH
CENTRAL DIVISION

7

Map showing sections from which Smith College, Northampton, Mass., derives its students.
(Star denotes the location of Smith College)

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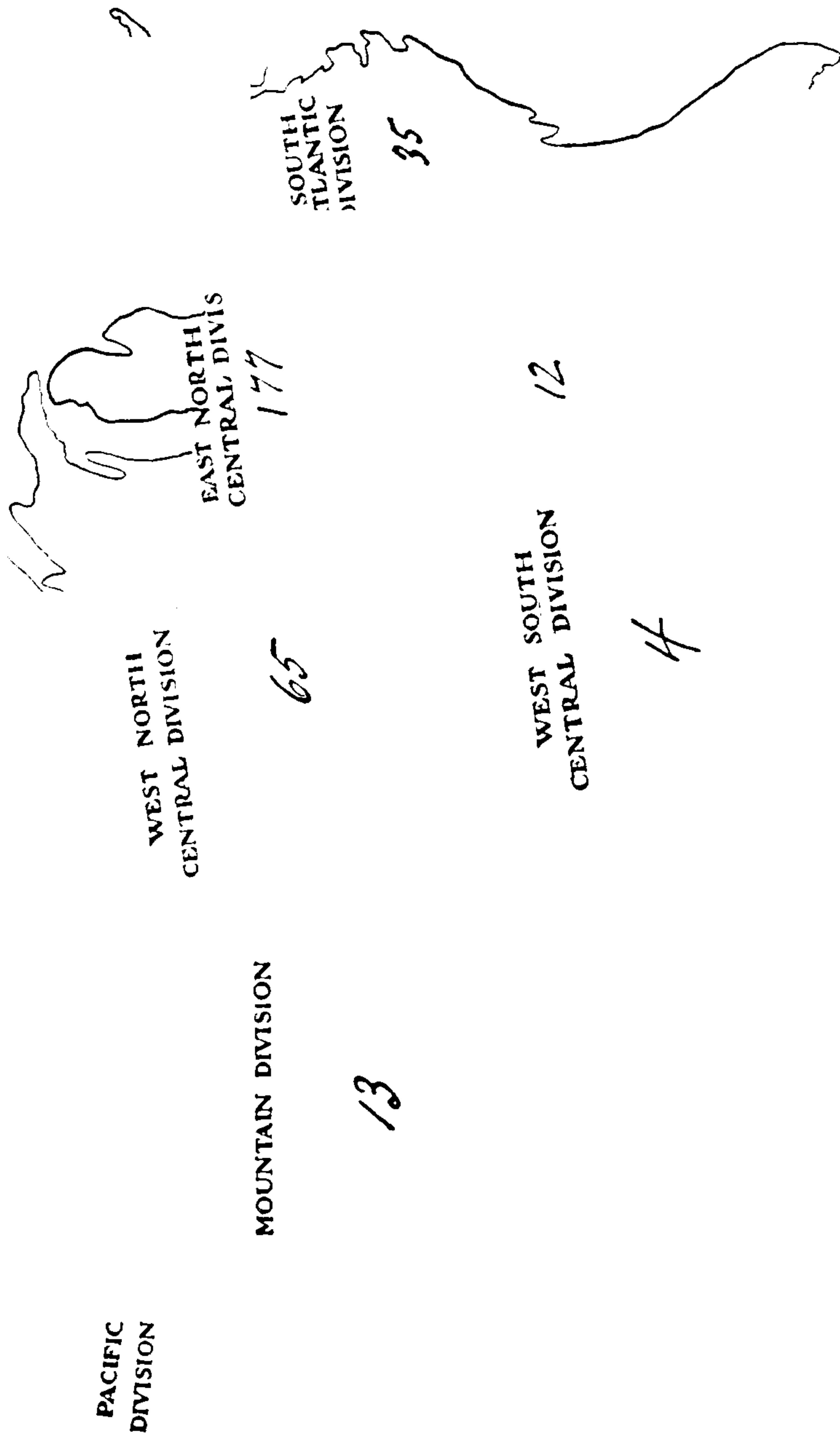
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Figure 29.



Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles)



Map showing sections from which Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y., derives its students.
(Star denotes the location of Vassar College.)

national care. An effort to develop a system of higher education in the United States requires, therefore, constant and sympathetic coöperation with denominational organizations; only thus can certain promising institutions be aided; only thus can a movement toward concentration of denominational effort be promoted.

(c) Importance of Increasing Endowments

It was tentatively estimated that an efficient college should enjoy an income from endowment covering from 40 to 60 per cent. of its annual expenditure. Moreover, the expense of conducting colleges and universities is bound to increase with the cost of living, the competition for trained teachers, the enlargement of the boundaries of knowledge, and the increase of specialization. In order that they may obtain and retain competent teachers, the colleges must be financially strong and secure. Support by fees and by contributions to meet current expense is too precarious to sustain the elaborate organization of a modern institution of learning. It was decided, therefore, that the gifts of the General Education Board should be made to endowment and on such terms as were calculated to draw further funds to the selected institutions and arouse other interests in them. There was the further consideration that buildings, grounds, apparatus, and scholarships can all be more readily obtained through gifts than can the endowment necessary to meet the expenditure they entail.

The three main features of the policy of the General

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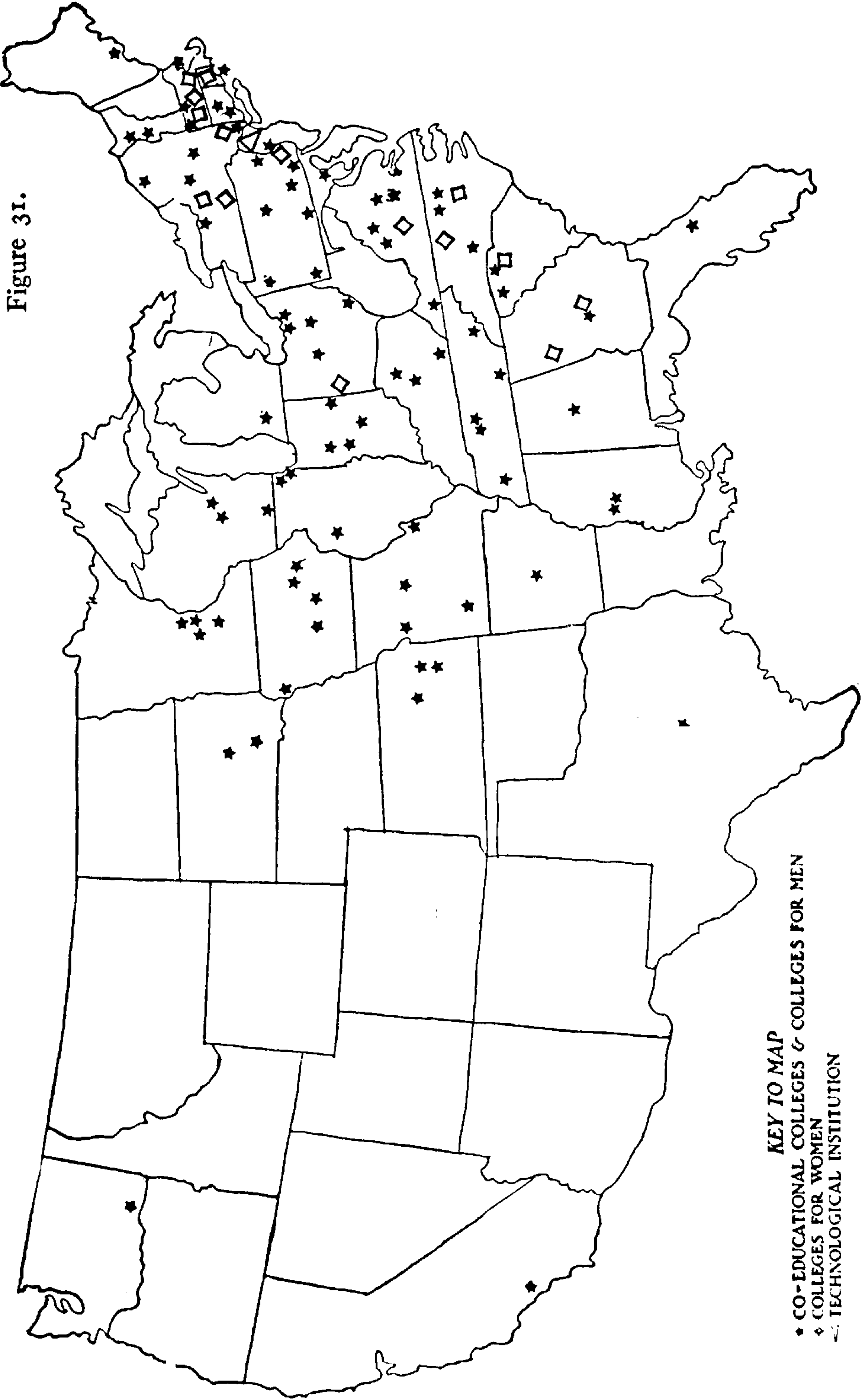
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cost of new buildings for the same period is \$6,302,953. A list of the institutions with the sums raised is given below.¹ The following map (Figure 31) shows the geographical distribution of the institutions to which appropriations have been made.

It will have been remarked that the gifts of the General Education Board to colleges and universities are invariably part only of the sum which the institutions in question have undertaken to raise. It should, however, be stated that this does not mean that the General Education Board requires an institution to raise any particular sum or to raise money in any particular way. Quite the contrary is the case. Not the Board, but the institution, takes the initiative, by communicating to the Board its intention to undertake the raising of a certain sum, toward which a contribution is requested from the General Education Board. In giving, the Board is therefore in the same position as every other contributor; all alike subscribe specified sums toward a specified total; all are therefore conditional givers. The General Education Board appears to stand out from the others, not because its offer is any more conditional, but simply because it is usually the largest single contributor.

Conditional giving is justified by its fruits. Let us recall for a moment what has been previously stated in respect to the founding and support of higher institutions of learning in the United States. They derive their

¹pp. 155-9.



Location of 103 institutions of higher learning to which the General Education Board has made appropriations.

funds largely from private donors; in so far, their security and growth depend on their possessing a wide circle of devoted friends. Moreover, the sudden increase in the cost of conducting higher education, due to the quick development of laboratories, research, libraries, etc., required that this circle of devoted friends be very rapidly enlarged. More persons had to be interested on short notice, and they had to be trained at once to give more generously. Modest unconditioned gifts might indeed prove a hindrance rather than a help. A new building presented without an increase of endowment sufficient to carry the additional expense incurred in running it; an endowed professorship unaccompanied by increased general funds; a new campus without further unencumbered funds with which to develop and care for it—these and other unconditioned benefactions tend to embarrass, not to assist, a university. Conditional giving means, therefore, that when an institution undertakes to raise money for expansion, it has calculated what it needs in order, not only to make, but to support, a progressive step. To this end every giver increases the leverage by means of which the required total may be collected; every giver accepts a certain—not infrequently a large—responsibility for the future of the institution. It may not be amiss to add in this connection that, in founding the University of Chicago, Mr. Rockefeller acted upon the principle just elucidated. In making his final gift of \$10,000,000 to this institution (December 13, 1910) he stated his conviction that “it is far better that the uni-

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ods. As a business organization, alive to the dangers which attend large enterprises, the Board has taken care to aid institutions in safeguarding their property. The Board was indeed bound to exercise as much care in the distribution of its income as in making investment of its principal. For this reason, the business management of colleges applying for contributions has been carefully scrutinized with a view to suggesting such improvements as might be advisable.

At first, request was made for the report of the treasurer of the college. Sometimes this was sent in printed form, but more often, especially by the smaller colleges, in manuscript form. A few of these financial statements received in the earlier history of the Board were in excellent form, and the information desired was easily obtained from the official document. More frequently, however, the statement was incomplete and confused. The essential facts about which information was wanted could not be gathered from the report. Furthermore, there was no uniformity of statement among the many colleges reporting, so that comparative presentation of facts regarding several colleges was impossible. The varied systems of accounting employed rendered it practically impossible to secure a correct comparative statement of any item of college finance. It became necessary, therefore, to prepare a set of questions and to ask the colleges applying for aid to cast their accounts in forms provided by the office of the General Education Board. These forms provided for sharp distinction in

matters that were essentially different, and defined terms so as to leave no doubt in the mind of any one as to their precise meaning. These blanks were sent freely to all who asked for them, and they have contributed toward reshaping the financial methods of many institutions. It may be interesting, as a matter of record, to mention some of the particulars wherein the Board has been helpful to colleges in improving the management of their finances.

IMPROVEMENTS SECURED

(a) More Careful Accounting

The call for accurate and complete financial statistics has resulted in the more careful keeping of records. Originally, many, particularly the smaller, colleges had no organized bookkeeping staff. One college was discovered which had no record of bonds given for endowment, except the envelope in which they were placed. In another instance gifts had been received through a series of years and no record of the amounts or the purposes for which the gifts were made had been kept. The only thing known by the college when the inquiry was made was that at that time they had such and such securities. Colleges have found it necessary to examine files of years' accumulation, to search records of church organizations, to appeal to the memory of "the oldest inhabitant" and to resort to every known method of getting information, and then have been obliged to report that the statements submitted were only approximately correct. All this is being changed. Bookkeepers are being installed;

a thoroughgoing system of bookkeeping established; a complete system of vouchers adopted; an annual auditing of accounts required by the trustees, as well as the issuing of financial reports to boards of trustees and to others.

(b) Definition of Terms

A few words have found their way into college finance which have been freely used without clear or definite meaning. To one, they have meant this, to another, that. Among them are the following: "equipment," "scientific equipment," "capital," "endowment," "income," "investments." Early in the history of the Board it became clear that before accurate statements, particularly comparative statements, could be made, words must be defined. For example, what is "endowment?" Reports made to other agencies than the General Education Board showed that all sorts of property were being reported as "endowment," the word being so freely and loosely used by colleges in reporting that published statistics were valueless. So indiscriminate were the returns under this heading that summaries made on the basis of these reports frequently included the same item twice and sometimes actually included liabilities. "Investments" has been as loosely used. Not infrequently subscription notes and even verbal promises to make gifts have been reported as "investment" or "endowment." One college officer astonished the office by making a report which was very flattering, and when questioned more closely confessed that the

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trust funds before making payments on its pledge. It has also stipulated that the money contributed by the General Education Board "shall be invested and preserved inviolably for the endowment" of the institution. The Board has received many assurances from colleges that in the future trust funds will be more strictly regarded and that under no circumstances will encroachment upon permanent funds to meet current expenses be allowed. The Board has thus been made to believe that, apart from rendering direct aid to colleges, it has been of service in throwing safeguards about funds contributed by others.

(d) *Educational and Business Budgets*

A distinction has been made between an educational budget and affairs of a business or a semi-business nature conducted in connection with a college. Certain colleges, particularly colleges for women, maintain boarding departments, for example. Early records show that it has been customary for many colleges to include gross receipts from the boarding department as "college receipts." This custom not only made comparison of these colleges impracticable with colleges reporting no such gross receipts, but it rendered impossible the making of a strictly educational budget. In the blank forms above referred to, which have been furnished to colleges making reports to the office of the General Education Board, provision is made for the segregation of all accounts of a business or semi-business nature, thus permitting a clear statement of annual receipts and expenditures for *educa-*

tional purposes. College officials have reported to the office that this insistence upon segregation of strictly educational matters from business affairs has been helpful, not only in preparing the educational budget, but also in determining the profit or loss of the business conducted.

(e) Differentiation of Departments

As the General Education Board has been devoting its attention to the development of a limited number of colleges of the arts and sciences, its officers have sought to learn the facts specifically regarding the college department of the institution. In the earlier dealings of the Board with colleges it found few institutions maintaining preparatory departments which knew the comparative expense of the collegiate and preparatory departments. The accounts were inextricably mixed. A radical change has been made in the method of accounting so that now all the better institutions are able to determine the exact financial status of their several departments. The tendency has been not only to draw a clear line of demarcation between the finances of the college and the academy, but to separate the two parts educationally or to discontinue the secondary work altogether. The very word "college" has come to have a new meaning in consequence of a better system of accounting.

EFFECT OF BOARD'S CONTRIBUTIONS

Many years must necessarily elapse before the main task in which the General Education Board is assisting

can be even approximately completed. Meanwhile, there can be no doubt in the mind of any one familiar with the facts that the growing recognition of the importance of conceiving the higher education of the country, from the standpoint of a system of parts mutually related by the voluntary efforts of those interested, is proof of the soundness of the conception which led to the creation of the Board. Nor has the activity of the Board cost institutions anything in the way of freedom to meet their own problems in their own way. On this point expressions are too many and too sincere to leave any doubt whatsoever. The very opposite, indeed, has happened. The gifts of the General Education Board have been the means of arousing new effort. "The offer of the General Education Board proved to be the culmination of a series of events which caused the friends of the college to rally to the institution in a campaign for additional endowment as nothing else could have done," writes the president of one institution. "Under the stimulus of your pledge," wrote another, "a local movement was begun, local resources were developed, alumni and friends were aroused, and we secured not only a million dollars, but twenty-five hundred investors in our educational enterprise, many of whom had never before contributed to the support of an American university." In one instance, the only endowed college in a Southern state, "struggling against almost insuperable obstacles," was saved from destruction and has now \$300,000 safely invested; in another—this one of the strongest institu-

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SUBSCRIPTIONS TO COLLEGES BY SECTIONS

SOUTHERN STATES

Total Appropriation . \$3,052,625 Toward . . \$12,199,677

	Subscribed by G. E. B.	Supplemental Sum	TOTAL
Maryland—\$250,000			
Johns Hopkins University	\$250,000	\$750,000	\$1,000,000
Virginia—\$490,000			
Emory and Henry College	50,000	200,000	250,000
Randolph-Macon College*	60,000	130,000	190,000
Randolph-Macon Woman's College	75,000	175,000	250,000
Richmond College	150,000	350,000	500,000
University of Virginia . . .	50,000	450,000	500,000
Washington and Lee Uni- versity*	105,000	445,000	550,000
North Carolina—\$379,416			
Davidson College	75,000	225,000	300,000
Meredith College	50,000	100,000	150,000
Salem Academy and College	75,000	225,000	300,000
Trinity College	150,000	850,000	1,000,000
Wake Forest College	29,416	88,248	117,664
South Carolina—\$154,176			
Converse College	\$50,000	\$100,000	\$150,000
Furman University*	50,000	250,000	300,000
Wofford College*	54,176	151,704	205,880
Georgia—\$232,333			
Agnes Scott College	100,000	250,000	350,000
Mercer University	32,333	97,000	129,333
Wesleyan Female College . .	100,000	200,000	300,000
Alabama—\$21,700			
Howard College	21,700	65,100	86,800
Mississippi—\$150,000			
Millsaps College	25,000	75,000	100,000
Mississippi College	125,000	275,000	400,000
Arkansas—\$175,000			
Hendrix College*	175,000	525,000	700,000

* Two appropriations made.

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

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SOUTHERN STATES—*Continued*

	Subscribed by G. E. B.	Supplemental Sum	TOTAL
Tennessee—\$625,000			
George Peabody College for Teachers	250,000	750,000	1,000,000
Maryville College	50,000	150,000	200,000
Union University	25,000	75,000	100,000
University of Chattanooga	150,000	350,000	500,000
Vanderbilt University	150,000	150,000	300,000
Kentucky—\$125,000			
Georgetown College . . .	\$25,000	\$75,000	\$100,000
Transylvania University .	50,000	150,000	200,000
Williamsburg Institute . .	50,000	170,000	220,000
Texas—\$400,000			
Baylor University	200,000	400,000	600,000
Southern Methodist Uni- versity	200,000	800,000	1,000,000
Florida—\$50,000			
John B. Stetson University	50,000	100,000	150,000
	\$3,052,625	\$9,147,052	\$12,199,677

WESTERN STATES

Total Appropriations . \$3,967,781 Toward . . \$19,374,522

	Subscribed by G. E. B.	Supplemental Sum	TOTAL
Ohio—\$760,000			
Marietta College	\$60,000	\$240,000	\$300,000
Oberlin College	125,000	375,000	500,000
Ohio Wesleyan University .	125,000	375,000	500,000
University of Wooster* . .	275,000	825,000	1,100,000
Western College for Women	50,000	200,000	250,000
Western Reserve University	125,000	375,000	500,000
Indiana—\$230,160			
DePauw University	100,000	400,000	500,000
Earlham College	30,761	133,300	164,061
Franklin College	49,399	214,063	263,462
Wabash College	50,000	150,000	200,000

* Two appropriations made.

	Subscribed by G. E. B.	Supplemental Sum	TOTAL
Michigan—\$16,106			
Kalamazoo College . . .	16,106	48,318	64,424
Illinois—\$300,000			
Knox College*	150,000	600,000	750,000
Lake Forest College . .	50,000	350,000	400,000
Northwestern University .	100,000	900,000	1,000,000
Wisconsin—\$290,000			
Beloit College*	\$150,000	\$550,000	\$700,000
Lawrence College* . . .	90,000	310,000	400,000
Ripon College	50,000	200,000	250,000
Minnesota—\$350,000			
College of St. Thomas . .	75,000	225,000	300,000
Carleton College	100,000	500,000	600,000
Hamline University . . .	50,000	150,000	200,000
Macalester College* . . .	125,000	575,000	700,000
Iowa—\$596,515			
Coe College*	146,515	586,060	732,575
Cornell College	100,000	300,000	400,000
Drake University	100,000	300,000	400,000
Grinnell College*	200,000	700,000	900,000
Morningside College . . .	50,000	150,000	200,000
Colorado—\$200,000			
Colorado College*	100,000	700,000	800,000
The University of Denver .	100,000	300,000	400,000
Kansas—\$275,000			
Ottawa University	25,000	75,000	100,000
Washburn College*	125,000	475,000	600,000
Baker University	125,000	375,000	500,000
Missouri—\$525,000			
Drury College*	\$125,000	\$525,000	\$650,000
Washington University . .	200,000	800,000	1,000,000
William Jewell College . .	125,000	375,000	500,000
Central College	75,000	225,000	300,000
South Dakota—\$150,000			
Dakota Wesleyan University	50,000	200,000	250,000
Huron College	100,000	400,000	500,000
Washington—\$125,000			
Whitman College	125,000	375,000	500,000
California—\$150,000			
Pomona College	150,000	850,000	1,000,000
	\$3,967,781	\$15,406,741	\$19,374,522

* Two appropriations made.

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VI. MEDICAL EDUCATION

THE activities described in the preceding section have been concerned only with what is ordinarily known as the department or faculty of arts and sciences—the core of the American college or university. For some years the Board concentrated its attention on this central feature of our institutions of higher learning. Only within the last year has it undertaken to deal with one of the professional schools, viz., that of medicine.

DEVELOPMENT OF MEDICAL EDUCATION IN AMERICA

The American medical school began as a casual association of local physicians lecturing and occasionally demonstrating to a nondescript body of medical students. Up to comparatively recent times the facilities were of the most meagre kind. Laboratories of very unsatisfactory character were provided for anatomy, chemistry, and perhaps pathology; clinical opportunities were limited to a precarious relationship with a private or public hospital, the appointments to which were made on almost any basis except education and science. The curriculum, originally calling for the repetition of certain courses of lectures during two successive years was only

gradually and painfully lengthened and graded. Entrance requirements there were for years none worthy the name. The fees received for the opportunities just described were distributed among those participating in the instruction.

CHANGES IN RECENT YEARS

During the last twenty-five years these so-called proprietary schools have come to be regarded with great disfavor. Many have closed their doors; signs of discomfort preceding dissolution can be discerned in those still surviving. These schools were most numerous about the year 1906 when 161 medical schools were in existence in the United States; now, less than a decade later, this number has decreased to about a hundred. The process of reduction has obviously still far to go; but the accomplishment in this direction has undoubtedly been noteworthy. Simultaneously, the surviving schools have greatly improved. Entrance requirements have been formulated and somewhat rapidly elevated—in the South, especially, with such excessive speed that the better medical schools have for the time being lost touch with the general educational situation. Tuition fees, instead of going into the pockets of practitioner teachers, have been utilized to equip the necessary fundamental laboratories, and to pay for a gradually increasing number of full-time teachers; the hospital relationship has been improved to the extent that larger freedom for teaching has been obtained, though the hos-

pital staff continues, in so far as these schools are concerned, to be appointed largely for other than educational reasons.

THE NEW TYPE OF MEDICAL SCHOOL

The progress just sketched has been greatly influenced by the outright creation, meanwhile, of a new type of medical school—a school offering from the start, to properly qualified students, a four years' graded course, the first two years devoted to laboratory subjects—anatomy, physiology, and pathology; the last two years devoted to clinical subjects—medicine, surgery, obstetrics, etc.—all these departments being organized and equipped with education and science prominently in mind. The first and best known of these modern institutions was the Medical School of the Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore. This institution, fortunate in its freedom from all entanglements, in its possession of an excellent endowed hospital, and above all in wise and devoted leadership, set a new and stimulating example precisely when a demonstration of the right type was most urgently needed.

THE LABORATORY BRANCHES

At the time of the establishment of the Johns Hopkins Medical School in 1893, the fundamental laboratory branches—anatomy, physiology, and pathology—were still taught in even the better medical schools then existing by practising physicians. It is true that at Harvard

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teachers by other schools; nowadays no reputable medical school uses practitioners to teach these branches. Moreover, the work of these men in America and of their collaborators in other countries has provided a new basis for medical and surgical development.

THE CLINICAL BRANCHES

On the clinical side, the establishment of the Johns Hopkins Medical School was marked by two important features. The first of these was its organic connection with its own hospital. At that time, though one or two medical schools possessed small university hospitals—hospitals, that is, the staff of which the school selected—no such medical school possessed a hospital adequate in size and equipment for such teaching and research as should be prosecuted. For the most part, as has been already stated, hospital relationship to medical schools was casual or precarious. Hospital trustees appointed a medical and surgical staff; and schools desiring hospital facilities had to employ these men as teachers or do without. In no case did a hospital sufficient in size, well supported, and well equipped for teaching and investigation belong to an American medical school prior to the establishment of the Johns Hopkins Medical School.

The second feature above alluded to was the selection of clinical teachers on scientific grounds. The founders of the Johns Hopkins broke with precedent when, instead of filling the clinical teaching posts with local practitioners, as had been and still unfortunately is the pre-

vailing custom, the clinical professors were called from other places: Philadelphia, New York, and elsewhere. In this way as capable a staff as the country afforded was assembled, and as selections could be and were made on educational and scientific grounds, the country for the first time saw an entire medical school organized on precisely the same principles that obtained in other university departments.

Unfortunately, the university lacked income enough to pay its clinical teachers adequately, even had it desired to do so. They had to engage in practice. To greater or less extent clinical teaching and clinical research have therefore suffered from the distractions incident to the life of practitioner and consultant. This could not be otherwise. Clinical teaching is not easier than laboratory teaching: it is more difficult; clinical research is not easier than laboratory research: it is more complicated. To conditions essential for research and teaching in anatomy and physiology, medicine and surgery cannot be indifferent. Under existing circumstances, initial success in clinical investigation may easily prove the clinician's permanent undoing. Scientific distinction brings hordes of patients, especially the rich; and this even though, as a matter of fact, in many instances, equally skilful service can be had elsewhere. In any event society has other uses for the clinical investigator. For to him the country must look altogether for the training of physicians and very largely for the increase of knowledge. It is necessary, therefore, that obscure cases should en-

gage his attention, and important that he should not expend himself on things that others can do satisfactorily. In Germany the general university tradition, the practice of basing academic distinction and promotion on scientific performance, has in the past served to protect clinical professors from distraction; nevertheless, in German universities situated in large cities, very disquieting indications of demoralization due to the invasion of worldly ambitions can nowadays be perceived. The American teacher of clinical medicine wholly lacks this bulwark; and though here and there an individual has successfully maintained his ideals against the pressure of private practice, the university type of clinician is extremely rare. It has therefore become important to create conditions favorable to the evolution of the full-time university clinician.

“FULL-TIME” CLINICAL TEACHERS

Fully cognizant of the situation just described, the faculty of the Johns Hopkins Medical School, after devoting several years to careful consideration of the best way in which to improve clinical conditions, from the three essential points of view—care of patients, teaching, and research—recommended that the main clinical departments—medicine, surgery, and pediatrics—should be organized on the full-time or university basis, if the necessary endowment could be obtained. A letter setting forth the facts was addressed to the General Education Board, October 21, 1913. “The faculty of the Medical

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to medical science and medical education, the fund was named the William H. Welch Endowment for Clinical Education and Research; for Dr. Welch had planned the Johns Hopkins Medical School, had selected its faculty, had guided its development, and has throughout his life been the wise, forceful, and modest leader of modern medicine and modern medical education in America.

WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY MEDICAL SCHOOL

The Board is also coöperating with Washington University, St. Louis, to the same end. The medical department of this institution had been of the usual local type; but far-reaching changes have been recently made. "Within the last three years," in the words of the application addressed to the General Education Board, "the Medical Department of Washington University has been completely reorganized as follows: The entire faculty resigned and successors, chosen on the advice of the leading medical scientists, were called from different institutions—the pathologist from the Rockefeller Institute, the physiologist from the University of Wisconsin, the biological chemist from Cornell University, the chief physician from Tulane University, the chief surgeon from the Massachusetts General Hospital. At the same time the university entered into contracts with the trustees of the Barnes Hospital and of the Children's Hospital according to which the three parties in interest decided to build a single plant, including a general hospital, a children's hospital, out-patient department, and univer-

sity laboratories, on a new site of which all three parties are owners.¹ The group of buildings in question is now nearing completion. They are of modern design and equipment, amply furnished with every appliance needed for treatment, education, and research. The hospitals will be opened in the summer of 1914; the medical school will hold its next session in the new quarters. In addition to highly advantageous contracts giving the university exclusive and complete teaching privileges in and medical and surgical control of the hospitals, and in addition to the powerful community of interest which these relations create, the plant is physically so unified that it would be practically impossible ever to separate it into its constituent parts.

“The plant above described has cost something over two and one half millions; the Barnes Hospital has an endowment of about one million dollars, which the university expects to supplement by annual subscriptions, and by raising a university hospital fund of like amount.”

¹The arrangement between Washington University and the Barnes Hospital is important because it shows how a medical school and a hospital with entirely distinct endowments and control may coöperate in caring for the sick, in teaching and research, to the immense benefit of all parties in interest. As it is hardly likely that the same individual will found hospital and university (as Johns Hopkins fortunately did), the type of relationship worked out in St. Louis is of great importance. For this reason, the contract between the two institutions is printed in full in the Appendix, pp. 224-230. A similar contract has also been made between Washington University and the St. Louis Children's Hospital, by which the Medical School obtains complete control of a modern children's hospital for its department of pediatrics. Washington University has also contracted with both the above named hospitals to operate a Training School for Nurses, supplying both institutions with nurses and charging each its proper proportion of the expense incurred. The contract dealing with this service is printed on pp. 230-1.

The Children's Hospital has fixed annual subscriptions of forty thousand dollars.

“It is estimated that an endowment producing fifty thousand dollars more would suffice to provide a full-time organization in medicine and surgery.

“In case the full-time scheme is introduced, all fees for services rendered in the private wards will be assessed by the university and collected through the hospital in order that in any event only reasonable fees may be charged; wherever such services are rendered by any person on the full-time basis, the fee will be covered into the fund which this application seeks to establish, and used for the benefit of the clinic concerned. As the private ward is a small one, there will be little use for it beyond affording the full-time men the opportunity they need for observing obscure or interesting patients who would not enter the wards.

“The medical faculty earnestly desires to enter upon its new opportunities equipped to take advantage of them according to the strictest demands of modern science and education. The university has a clean slate; and if the necessary aid is obtained, no step will be taken which will have to be retraced—no compromise effected which will at some future time have to be undone.”

In compliance with the foregoing request, the Board appropriated \$750,000 toward \$1,500,000 for the endowment of university departments in Medicine, Surgery, and Pediatrics.

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The full-time scheme is so recent an innovation that a few important points may properly be somewhat fully discussed in this connection.

FREEDOM UNRESTRICTED

The scheme involves no restriction of experience. In the letter of application from the faculty of the Johns Hopkins Medical School it was expressly stated that no limitation would be placed upon the members of the full-time clinical organization. They were not to be kept from seeing any patient that they chose to see. They can therefore take whatever steps they please to procure easy and frequent contact with incipient disturbances; they can also attend well-to-do patients afflicted with obscure or difficult disease.

In these matters, the advantage lies altogether with the full-time as against the part-time man. In reference, for example, to incipient disturbances, the ordinary consultant is, indeed, the very one whose advice is least apt to be invoked in the early stages of a malady. For the difficulty of seeing disease in its beginnings, however, a remedy, and what may indeed prove a practically complete remedy, lies at hand for the full-time man. The most neglected part of the resources available for clinical teaching and research is commonly the outpatient department or dispensary. The practitioner or consultant type of clinical teacher has not the time to develop, organize, and utilize the outpatient service. The connection between the dispensary and the usual indoor

clinic is, therefore, as a rule, nominal. It should be close and helpful, for a well-utilized dispensary will feed and supplement a well-organized clinic. The full-time organization favors such a relation. The instructor and his assistants can watch the outpatients for the purpose of detecting disorders at the very point of origin. Advantage has indeed already been taken of this in Baltimore. The favorable comments of the patients themselves on the care and sympathy with which they have been handled will rapidly build up the attendance and thus increase the reservoir from which usable material can be drawn.

Nor is the university clinician cut off from the well-to-do. The scheme seeks only to protect him from those who have no claim upon him beyond their ability to pay him. Inasmuch, however, as he receives no fee for his services, inasmuch as his time and energy are to be devoted, as far as may be, to teaching and research, he will have no interest in seeing patients whom others can handle as well as he. If well-to-do people come to his clinic under proper conditions, they can be received in a ward maintained for their reception. For such service as is rendered to them, a moderate professional fee will be charged; and this fee will be turned into the university fund out of which the department is maintained.

THE PAY WARD

This arrangement suggests the proper function of the pay ward in the university hospital. These hospitals,

like other hospitals, exist to do service. But it does not follow that they will do their greatest service by developing the largest pay ward that can be skilfully and efficiently administered. In no event can the pay ward of any single hospital undertake to receive more than a small fraction of the well-to-do sick. The rest must go elsewhere. Perhaps then a smaller pay ward which sets a standard will do the largest service for the most people, because it serves as a model which other establishments may follow. If a particular hospital undertook to serve larger numbers, it might be tempted to open the door to the profession generally or certain members thereof, with the result that the organization would be impaired and the work suffer. Mere size is therefore not necessarily imposed on the pay ward, in order to serve a large number of pay patients. This is an important consideration for all hospital administrators. But it has a peculiar urgency in case of hospitals associated with university medical schools. Their greatest and widest service is obviously their contribution to the training of successive generations of physicians and to the increase of knowledge and skill. A large pay ward filled with patients afflicted with ailments already well understood is an obstacle to both research and education; an obstacle to research, because it squanders the time of the staff; an obstacle to education, because, in addition, it lowers the ideals of the entire institution. A pay ward is needed, but it should be small—only large enough, in fact, to receive for each full-time man a limited number

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discharge important social, professional, and educational responsibilities. He has an important practical function in translating new knowledge into intelligent therapeutic practice; he is also in position to make valuable contributions to knowledge by observation and experiment. Witness the great achievements of James Mackenzie, a practising physician in a small English town, whose studies mark an epoch in our knowledge of cardiac disease. The practitioner will also have a place, more or less undefined at this moment, in the university medical school. It is, on the one hand, extremely important not to overload the full-time staff with routine; it is, on the other, important to save to the student whatever is valuable in the practitioner's experience and point of view. The practitioner can therefore be utilized in dispensary teaching, to some extent as clinical lecturer or demonstrator and perhaps in the handling of various specialties. There is no disposition on the part of those who support the full-time plan to deal arbitrarily or dogmatically with these questions; they must be solved on the basis of experience. Nevertheless, there can be no question that the university medical school will more and more get its character from the full-time staff. The school faculty will ultimately be composed only of full-time men; the medical board that controls hospital policy will, in the interest of effectiveness, be made up of departmental heads devoting themselves singly to the service of the university and the hospital. Substantially these steps have already been taken in Baltimore; and their success

there will lead to general adoption by schools of equal rank.

POSITIONS ATTRACTIVE

For the reasons just stated, the full-time posts will be occupied by men who desire to be absorbed in teaching and research. The three professorships established at the Johns Hopkins Medical School have been readily accepted at great personal sacrifice by men of conspicuous professional standing, all of whom have gladly renounced personal pecuniary advantage in order to procure ideal conditions for clinical teaching and investigation. A similar experience is confidently anticipated by the authorities of Washington University and Yale.

There is no occasion for surprise at this manifestation of practical idealism. With all our love of materialistic comfort, in no country in the world is there greater striving toward altruistic ends, keener or more constant sympathy, more frequent or more heedless sacrifice in the interest of science and humanity. The teaching profession abounds in men and women moved by nothing less than genuinely religious zeal; in every institution may be found many such—young, gifted, and devoted. An eminent Austrian pharmacologist who recently spent a winter in America declared that America was the very home of practical idealism. The full-time clinical chair appeals to idealistic motive. Medicine has always been humanitarian; in this form it becomes increasingly so. Not less fascinating than others in point of scientific

interest, the clinical branches are assuredly closer to the humanitarian appeal. They would seem therefore bound in due course to receive their needed share of recruits on the severe terms imposed by academic tradition. If, then, clinical progress is stimulated, if men are trained willing to devote themselves to science and humanity on such terms as obtain in universities, the full-time organization will have demonstrated its value and vindicated the judgment of those who first enlisted in its service.

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South and indeed throughout the country was then turning. On the dissolution of the Peabody Board in 1914, the Southern Education Board requested the General Education Board to undertake the future maintenance and development of this phase of its work. The General Education Board thereupon authorized an investigation with a view to taking action in reference to the further support of these officers whose continuance was eagerly desired by the educational authorities of every Southern state.

On some of the significant points developed by this objective study of Southern conditions in the spring of the current year this volume has already touched, in connection with the secondary education movement. But the facts are of such importance that a small amount of repetition is necessary in order to show their bearing on the problem of the rural school.

IMPORTANCE OF RURAL EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH

The outstanding feature of the Southern situation is its predominantly rural character. Despite encroachment in the last two decades, due to the growth for the first time of some relatively large towns, the rural population of the entire region ranges from 70 per cent. in Louisiana to 88.5 per cent. in Mississippi; in seven states, the rural population is between 70 and 80 per cent. of the whole; in six more, between 80 per cent. and 90 per cent. Clearly public education cannot succeed in these states unless rural education can be made effective. The Southern

states must proceed on the assumption that the undertaking is feasible; their task is to ascertain how.

FAVORABLE CONDITIONS

To Southern faith in education attention has already been directed. There are, to be sure, backward districts, and great inert masses of population. But there are also forward districts, and active centres of enthusiasm and endeavor. The Conference for Education in the South had contributed to bringing about more solidarity in respect to educational endeavor than exists in any other section of the country. At times one encounters a freshness, vigor, and confidence that recall the Middle West and Northwest of twenty years ago; one meets teachers, administrators, laymen, aglow with what is to them a new discovery. Their spirit is that of the religious missionary. If the experiment of developing efficient rural education must, by the necessities of the case, be attempted, no more favorable opportunity than the present is likely to occur.

Moreover, the South is relatively prosperous, and is willingly devoting steadily increasing funds to school purposes. The farm demonstration work, supported by the government and the General Education Board, and now likely to be greatly extended, will more and more create underlying conditions favorable to educational development. Abundant statistics showing increasing provisions for schools can be readily quoted. The annual educational expenditures in North Carolina for

public elementary and secondary schools was \$1,091,226 in 1901, \$3,069,260 in 1909, \$4,300,000 in 1913—that is, the annual school fund has quadrupled in twelve years. The expenditure of South Carolina in 1901 was \$961,897; in 1909, \$1,590,732; in 1913, \$2,609,766; taxes raised by voluntary district taxation doubled in the same period. Arkansas appropriated \$1,369,809 in 1900 and \$4,279,478 in 1913; Tennessee raises altogether \$5,000,000 a year for educational purposes; toward this sum the state gave last year \$1,350,000; prior to 1903 it gave practically nothing at all. Of its net state revenue of \$6,400,000, Virginia in 1914 devoted practically one half to education; Alabama devoted more than half. Even more hopeful and significant is the fact that, by voluntary community coöperation, funds are raised to build schoolhouses which are presented to the county. In Carolina County, Virginia, a thoroughly agricultural and by no means wealthy community, four schoolhouses for Negroes and three for whites have been lately built and paid for by local subscription and then donated to the county authorities. These instances need not be multiplied. Though the totals are not yet sufficiently large, they establish the growing ability and willingness of the Southern people to spend of their substance for the education of their children.

UNFAVORABLE CONDITIONS

On the other hand, there are certain conditions, some of which have already been touched on, that are for the time being distinctly unfavorable to orderly educational

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ers, 75 per cent. were new to their present places this year. In twelve Mississippi counties, a recent study shows that $63\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the teachers are in their first year in their present posts, 23 per cent. in their second; of twenty-four schools lately visited in Louisiana, only one school has the same teacher as last year. Finally, the prevailing schoolhouse has still only one room, so that in most rural schools an untrained girl is left to cope alone with all grades and all subjects simultaneously.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

The account just given does not understate the difficulties of the problem. But there is another side to it. An inventory must take account not only of such facts, but of efforts and tendencies, not less real and, from the standpoint of development, much more significant. The defects which we have mentioned, and others, as well, are acutely felt and candidly admitted. Efforts are being everywhere made to remedy them. In North Carolina, the county has already been made the unit of school taxation, school administration, and of the apportionment of school funds; and a series of amendments has concentrated the educational administrative power in an appointive county board of education that selects the county superintendent. This type of organization has already achieved excellent results. A majority of the county superintendents of the state devote their entire time to their educational duties. Some have held office for ten or twelve or even fourteen years, and their

salaries range as high as \$2,400 with traveling expenses. The increase of salaries, in order to attract superior men, is indeed becoming quite common. In Mississippi, to give another instance, two thirds of the seventy-nine counties have now full-time superintendents, their salaries ranging as high as \$1,800 per annum. Kentucky has made some progress along the same line. In South Carolina, two counties have petitioned the legislature for permission to abolish the elected in favor of an appointive superintendent, and this most important step was long ago taken in Virginia. In Arkansas, the office of County Superintendent was for the first time made possible by the legislature in 1907, since which date twenty-one counties have taken favorable action. Assistant superintendents, county supervisors, school supervisors, supervising teachers, whose duty it is to improve teaching and internal school conditions, are provided in Kentucky, South Carolina, Alabama, Louisiana, and other states. An unmistakable effort to supplant the one-room school with a consolidated school of three or four rooms and as many teachers, with the differentiation in teaching and grading thus made possible, is succeeding here and there, and the improvement is likely to be accelerated by the introduction of the inexpensive automobile. Four years ago, for example, there was not a consolidated school in Mississippi: there are now one hundred and seventy-five. In Pearl River County alone ten consolidated schools have replaced forty one-room schools. In Louisiana only twelve hundred one-room

schools are left: the state has three hundred school wagons in use. In Alabama, despite constitutional inhibitions, sporadic efforts at consolidation have been made. The consolidated school buildings represent a striking advance in every respect. They are tasteful, convenient, well lighted, well ventilated; their teachers are happier and more stable; the schools are at times equipped for the teaching of domestic science, and associated with the club work and demonstration work now under way in all the states. The very substance of rural education has in these instances been more or less transformed.

The foregoing examples are cited as evidence of the earnest striving characteristic of the situation. There is indeed no lack of such effort. But a serious difficulty, calculated to hamper and retard comprehensive reorganization, arises from the absence of sufficient continuous direction centred on the really fundamental factors of the situation. The South desires education; there is comparatively little need of undertaking to convince the people that popular education is essential to their development, though of course certain neighborhoods are backward and require such efforts. Moreover, the South is willing to pay for education more and more liberally, as it becomes able to do so. Finally, the South is struggling to educate itself and to improve its educational machinery and organization—struggling with courage and enthusiasm to overcome obstacles created by poverty and long indifference. But adequate direction is lacking. This is

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the most serious defect, and it is, unfortunately, a defect that the states themselves are not likely to remedy entirely at this time.

RURAL EDUCATION AGENTS

Under these circumstances the General Education Board was convinced that valuable service could be rendered through the establishment of a rural education agent attached to the office of the State Superintendent and holding office continuously. The Board therefore authorized the expenditure of not exceeding \$45,000 during the current year for the salaries and expenses of such officers in eleven Southern states. Inasmuch as rural school conditions are backward in other sections of the country as well, the Board resolved further to offer similar facilities to selected states in the North, East and West.

It was understood that it would be the function of the rural school agent to assist in making a thorough and dispassionate survey of rural education in his state, including laws, organization, finance, equipment, teaching force and methods, etc. On this basis, under the direction of the State Department of Education and in coöperation with other appropriate agencies, organizations, and individuals, an adequate local program was to be worked out. In general, this program should aim to bring about a readjustment, which will substitute the county for the district as the unit of organization, administration, and finance; an appointive superintendent

THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

a proper qualifications was to take the place of the
ted superintendent; local as well as state taxation
to be made possible; consolidated schools to be
ored; the one-room school to be reorganized and de-
oped; facilities to be provided for training teachers
a service rendered more permanent, more attractive,
more fruitful. It was to be the business of the rural
cation agent to aid the superintendent in recommend-
the program agreed on to the people of the state,
ough popular enlightenment and through the organ-
ion of all available forces. His time and energy were
s to be devoted to establishing the fundamental general
ditions necessary to sound development. If improved
ditions and improved facilities are thus provided,
ter schools and better teaching will result; intensive
rovement of the schools, one at a time, may then
fitably be undertaken by local authorities or other-
e.

ubsequent to the passage by the General Education
ard of the resolution above mentioned, the secretaries
he Board met the Southern State Superintendents
onference at Nashville. These officials were unani-
is in seeking the Board's coöperation. In conformity
a the policy which has been repeatedly emphasized
his report, it was made clear that every state must
dle its problem in its own way; that the Board had no
uiled program to propose. This conference, however,
eloped distinct agreement to the effect that the most
ful service that could at this juncture be rendered lay

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VIII. NEGRO EDUCATION

THE improvement of facilities for the education of the Negro was among the first subjects taken up by the General Education Board. In dealing with it, the Board has followed the method already described in connection with other activities: thorough inquiries were made for the purpose of learning the details of the existing status—not only educational, but social and economic; and gifts of a tentative character were made in order that any program ultimately adopted might be the outcome of experiment and demonstration. In determining its successive steps, the Board has drawn on various sources of information and counsel. Its original surveys dealt fully with the conditions of Negro schools in the several states, public and private; special inquiries have from time to time thrown light on particular aspects of the problem; the Secretary of the Board was for several years general agent of the Slater Fund, and in this capacity traveled extensively through the South, visiting Negro schools and conferring with both whites and blacks on the subject of Negro education; and the trustees and the president of the Jeanes Fund have been in close consultation and coöperation with the officers and members of the General Education Board.



A Negro Rural School.



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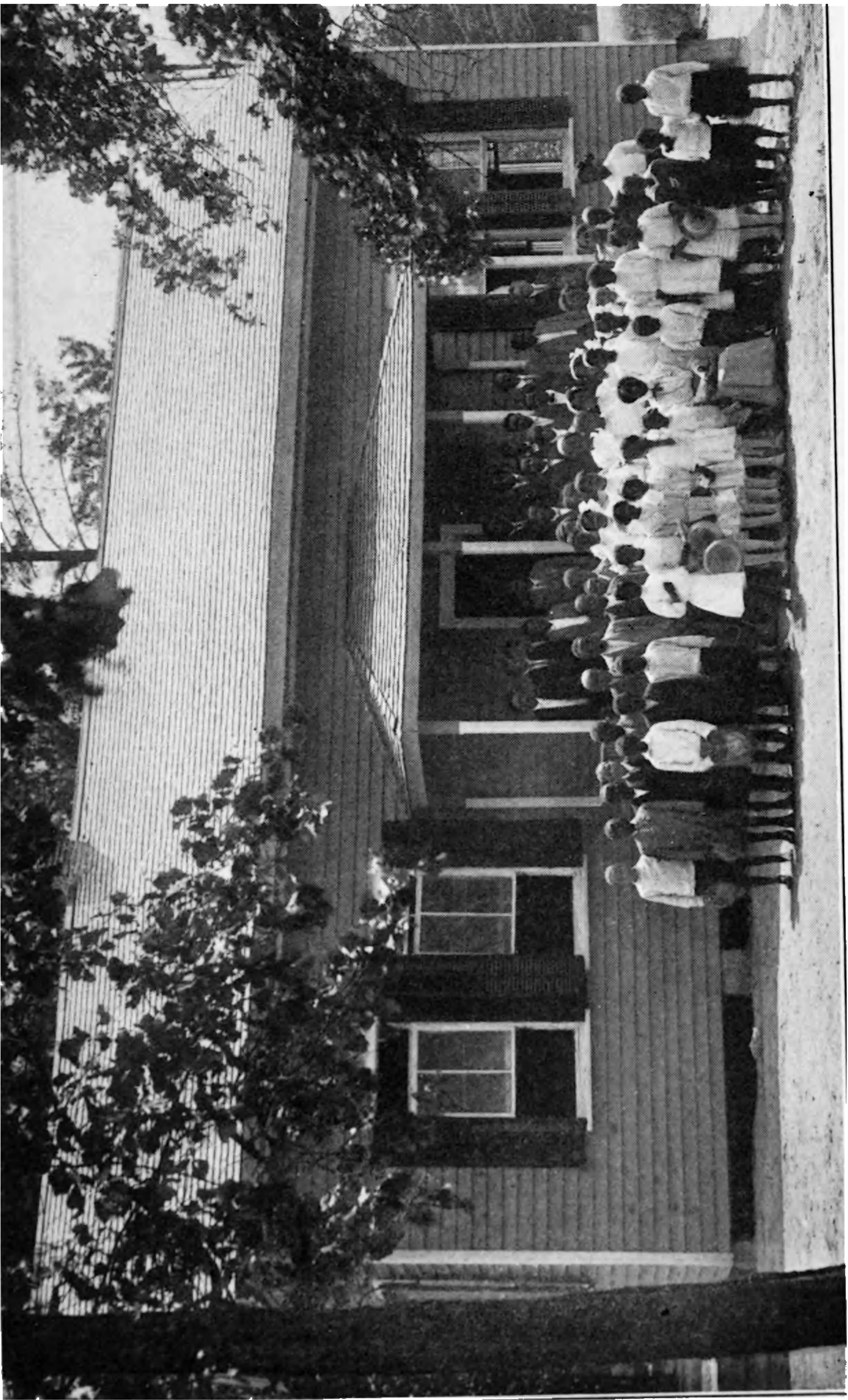
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and Mt. Meigs, Ala.; St. Helena Island, S. C.; Utica, Miss.; and others, which are largely supported by contributions from the North.

Moreover, all the states of the South have founded normal schools for the training of Negro teachers, such, for example, as the well-known institutions at Normal and Montgomery, Alabama; Pine Bluff, Arkansas; Tallahassee, Florida; Frankfort, Kentucky; Baton Rouge, Louisiana; Alcorn, Mississippi; Greensboro and Winston-Salem, North Carolina; Orangeburg, South Carolina; Nashville, Tennessee; Prairie View, Texas; and Petersburg, Virginia.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL FUNDAMENTAL

While fully recognizing the importance of the work above described, and the importance of encouraging private initiative in this as in other educational fields, the Board, nevertheless, has kept steadily in view the obvious fact that in the education of the Negro as of the whites the public school must be the main reliance. An educational agency is needed large enough, well enough supported and organized to train enormous masses in the arts of civilization. The public school is the sole instrumentality equal to a task of such magnitude. Moreover, public schools can be developed only through the leadership of the Southern white. Northern philanthropy may assist, as it has assisted and is assisting, generously, intelligently, and sympathetically. But the main privilege and responsibility necessarily rest at this



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ment, and the prejudices that must be overcome. He profits, however, by the same tendencies that at the moment assist the rural whites: the turning of public sentiment in the direction of the country; the rise in value of farm lands and farm products due to the increased cost of living in towns; the increase in farm productivity by the introduction of machinery and better methods of farming; the general introduction of conveniences and amenities through the telephone, good roads, rapid transit, free delivery, and the parcel post. The data adduced in connection with farm demonstrations¹ prove that the Negro is eagerly taking advantage of his opportunities to attain economic independence in the country; a fact that renders educational improvement at once more necessary, more hopeful, and more certain.

STATE SUPERVISORS OF NEGRO RURAL SCHOOLS

For the purpose of arousing interest and furnishing intelligent and specialized guidance, a state supervisor of Negro schools was supported in Virginia by the Peabody Education Fund and the Southern Education Board. The appointee had already demonstrated the value of such supervision while superintendent of schools in Henrico County, Virginia. The General Education Board, recognizing the importance of this work, decided to extend it throughout the South, as opportunity occurred. The Board offered to coöperate with state departments of education by furnishing funds adequate to pay the

¹ See pp. 54-57.



Poplar Lawn School, Va., "Before and After."

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creasing allotments from public funds, of which, however, the expenditure on the Negro is still disproportionately small. For the support of these agents, the General Education Board appropriates \$2,500 each per year for salary, and a sum not to exceed \$1,000 each for necessary expenses.

COÖPERATION WITH THE ANNA T. JEANES FUND

The effectiveness of this work has been greatly increased by its intimate association with the activities of the industrial supervisors and teachers supported by the Jeanes Fund. These teachers, appointed by the county superintendent and working under his direction, are at the same time in close coöperation with the state agent maintained by the General Education Board. At the present time 128 such teachers are at work. They are for the most part graduates of Hampton, Tuskegee, Petersburg, Fisk, Atlanta, Spelman, and kindred institutions. Each teacher visits a number of the country schools, gives a lesson in some industry, plans with the regular teacher to give additional lessons in her absence, organizes parents' clubs, and starts a movement for better school equipment or longer term, counsels the local teacher about her daily teaching, and stirs the community to united effort to better the school. Many of these teachers are employed for the entire year; when school is no longer in session, they carry on similar work in the community. Wherever the industrial teacher and the rural school supervisor have gone, quick improvement is perceptible in



Old school, Burkeville, Va.



New school, three rooms, Burkeville, Va.

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in September, 1913. "We joined the supervising teacher and the special agent in charge of canning clubs, and drove through the county, visiting the gardens of the various members of the club. Every garden was laid off in straight rows, usually eight, with a walk in the middle. There were two rows of flowers, two rows of cabbage, two rows of snap beans, one early and one late, and two rows of tomatoes. They were well cultivated, clean of weeds. Most of them had resisted the temptation to 'hill' the tomatoes, and cultivated level, as they were directed. In nearly every case the tomatoes were held up by some support.

"On the 8th there was held at Bowling Green the first Conference of the Girls' Canning and Poultry Clubs of Caroline County. Nearly all of the eighty members were present with their parents and other members of their families. They brought exhibits of their vegetables, canned goods, bread, cake, sewing, poultry, etc. Simple prizes given by the county school board were awarded. Girls who had been most successful and those who had overcome unusual difficulties were called on to tell how they cultivated their gardens, how they made fences, how they canned their tomatoes, or baked bread, etc. The prize for the best kept garden was awarded to two motherless girls eleven and twelve years of age, who kept house for their father. Their garden, located in a piece of newly cleared land, was a model of neatness and careful cultivation." Similar experiences can be reported from the other states.

intendent and the State Supervisor of Negro Schools visits Tuskegee Institute in a body and confesses "a new vision in regard to the Negro"; again, the state supervisor addresses the Y. M. C. A. of the State College of Agriculture at Auburn, Alabama, on the Negro problem, and forty-five members subsequently accompany him on a visit of inspection to Tuskegee. At one of the summer institutes held for Negro teachers in Georgia, the work of the Negro industrial teacher was so novel and interesting that the white county superintendent asked her to come over to the white institute in order to give a demonstration of her work. She was kept half a day answering questions and explaining the way she did the work. At other times, white teachers have gone to see what the Negroes were doing in their institute. What they observe surprises the whites, and the experience affords pleasure and stimulation to the Negro teachers. "Shall this not be a mighty entering wedge to reach the prejudices and the sympathies of the white people?" asks the state agent in reporting the incidents. From North Carolina comes an account of a meeting of lead-

ing white citizens at the Slater Normal School for Negroes. Among them were the city and county superintendents of schools and several members of the Board of Trustees. The object of the meeting was to study the condition and needs of the normal school in order to devise means by which it may train more and better teachers and serve the Negro race more effectively. Plans for the erection of a new dormitory for girls, and for improving the teacher training course were discussed.

IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS

By way of improving the quality of the teaching, summer institutes have been widely developed by the state supervisors. In 1913, thirty-seven such institutes were conducted in Alabama, with an attendance of 1,800 teachers, who received instruction in academic, industrial, and domestic branches; of the total expense of \$2,600, the state contributed \$1,500, the teachers themselves \$1,000, and the Slater Board \$100. In Arkansas, five State Industrial Summer Normal Schools were held in June, 1914. The attendance was 935. Meanwhile, county institutes were simultaneously in progress throughout the state. Large summer schools, in which the state supervisors assist, are held regularly at Hampton, Tuskegee, and other institutions. "A spirit of helpfulness and devotion characterized the work of these Negro educators," writes the white supervisor in his account of the summer's efforts. Similar undertakings are in progress in every Southern state.

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County, Kentucky, reports in a single year 13 new buildings, 5 new sites, 7 schools with new furniture, 63 new outbuildings, 2 new fences, 2 new cisterns, 31 new stoves—toward all of which the colored people themselves had subscribed more than half. The whites of Fordyce, Arkansas, donated land and lumber for a new building for the Negro school; the colored people of the town contributed \$150 toward putting it up. In Ben Hill County, Georgia, a \$1,600 schoolhouse and ten acres of land were furnished by the town for an industrial school; the Negroes thereupon raised \$550, which the county duplicated, to add two more rooms and an additional teacher. At Spottsylvania, Virginia, the Negroes had acquired 160 acres of land and \$800 toward a private secondary school; the school board, impressed by their eagerness, took it over as a public graded school to be maintained by the county. In Caroline County, Virginia, whites and blacks have emulated each other in consolidating and reconstructing, largely out of their own pockets, the country schools. The experience of this county, indeed, proves the soundness of the policy that has thus far been pursued. The Negroes had established at Bowling Green an Industrial Academy with ten acres of land and a building costing together \$2,000; this they have offered to turn over to the county school

board to be used as a county training school for teachers—the state contributing \$350, the Slater Fund \$500 annually toward maintenance. Four rural schools, built by the Negroes at a cost of \$5,400, and three others in process of construction, to cost \$4,900, have been donated to the county. These schools all previously had one room and ran for five months: now they have from two to five rooms and run for eight months. The whites of Caroline County look with sympathy and pride on these improvements; the donation of the schools is an evidence of the mutual trust and confidence that has sprung up between the two races. Similar examples can be cited from Amelia County, Charlotte County, Cumberland County, and elsewhere.

THE JEANES FUND OF THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

The income from \$200,000 given to the General Education Board by Miss Anna T. Jeanes¹ has been utilized in stimulating efforts of this kind. Between 1906 and 1912, seventy-four schools in Alabama were thus aided; toward buildings and equipment, costing \$54,153, the Jeanes Fund of the General Education Board contributed \$18,888; Negro patrons of the schools, \$35,265; toward \$17,690 spent in maintenance in the year 1910-11, the Fund gave \$1,068, county boards, \$9,070, and Negro patrons, \$7,552.

¹ See Appendix, pp. 223.

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APPROPRIATIONS TO INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTES

At the present time, schools are fortunate if they obtain as principals and teachers the graduates of one of the better industrial schools for Negroes. The General Education Board has therefore assisted some of the more efficient of these industrial training schools as follows:

Hampton Institute	\$138,000.00
Tuskegee Institute	135,483.48
Spelman Seminary	196,912.88
Other Institutions.	85,384.77
	<hr/>
Total	\$555,781.13

With the same end in view, gifts toward improved physical equipment have been made to a number of secondary schools owned or controlled by Negroes themselves—e. g., Waters Normal Institute (Winton, North Carolina); Thompson Institute (Lumberton, North Carolina); Jeruel Academy (Athens, Georgia); Americus Institute (Americus, Georgia); Howe Institute (Memphis, Tennessee); Florida Baptist Academy (Jacksonville, Florida); and others.

HIGHER EDUCATION OF THE NEGRO

While the main stress has been, and for some time must continue to be, laid on the activities which we have described, it has also been recognized that the higher education of the Negro ought not to be neglected. The reasoning followed in dealing with secondary schools

and colleges for whites is equally valid for Negroes. That is, if primary and secondary Negro schools are to have good teachers, principals, and supervisors, provision must be made for the higher training of these instructors and officers. Moreover, competent Negroes often desire higher education as the basis for some form of specialized or professional training. Personal aspiration and race welfare unite in suggesting the development of suitable academic opportunities for those who are capable.

In the years immediately succeeding the war, many institutions were founded for the higher education of Negroes. In too many instances, however, these well-meant endeavors were entered upon without due consideration of the magnitude of the work and the difficulties involved. Colleges and universities may be never so desirable, but such institutions cannot be created without a competent faculty, a capable student body, suitable facilities, and ample and continuous financial support.

In the period with which we are dealing, none of these essential conditions could be met. A small number of capable teachers were indeed secured—mainly Northern men and women inspired by missionary spirit; but, generally speaking, scholarly faculties could not at that time be recruited for the far too numerous colleges and universities established for the colored race. Again, as is evident from the previous sections of this chapter, there were practically no organized facilities for the preliminary training of a body of college students.

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Finally, funds in sufficient amounts were yet to be raised and plants provided.

In the last few years, however, order has begun to emerge from chaos. Public school systems are beginning to take shape; and though in the main their work is still limited to the elementary grades, nevertheless, here and there—as, for example, at Little Rock—an excellent public high school has been established. Preparatory schools have also been developed—either as the academic departments of industrial institutes, or in connection with the colleges and universities. Thus, in one way or another, fair opportunities for procuring the necessary secondary training are now open to energetic boys and girls who enjoy the necessary support or are willing “to work their way through.”

Meanwhile, the formation of a better teaching staff has become feasible. A small number of colored men and women have been graduated by Oberlin, Amherst, Brown, Harvard, and other institutions, a large proportion of whom have from the outset had college teaching definitely in view; in addition, many of the most capable graduates of the Negro colleges, keenly realizing the deficiencies of their training, have from time to time sought the larger opportunities offered by the summer schools or extension courses at Columbia, the University of Chicago, and elsewhere.

Nevertheless, the situation still abounds in difficulties. Pure and high motives led religious and philanthropic organizations, white and colored, to establish their so-

called colleges and universities. But, as there was no coöperation at the outset, so there has been no coöperation since. Each of the interested bodies went, and has continued to go, its own way, with little regard to what other similar bodies had undertaken or were intending. The number of institutions now struggling for existence is out of all relation to the number of qualified teachers and students procurable, the financial resources available for support, and the service to be performed.

Inevitably, therefore, internal college conditions are bound to be unsatisfactory. A college consists essentially of an adequate and homogeneous student body, and a competent staff occupied with their training. But the aggregate number of competent students is so small that there are colleges with as few as eight or ten collegiate students. In consequence of this scarcity of students trained up to college level, secondary and even elementary instruction forms the main activity of most Negro colleges and universities. In only one institution is it claimed that as many as one half the students are above the high school level; in most institutions the number of college students is less than 10 per cent. of the total enrolment. Besides, limited as it is, the student body is far from being sufficiently uniform in training or capacity. Under these circumstances the college teachers are required to do an inordinately large amount of non-collegiate teaching; and their college instruction is addressed to an unduly small and a distinctly uneven student body.

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if so, whether the tasks in question subserve their intended purpose. As conditions change, particularly as elementary and secondary training improves, corresponding readjustments can be made. The entire procedure must, however, be tentative and critical, rather than cut-and-dried or imitative. Obviously, the organization and management of Negro colleges at this juncture call for educational initiative and resourcefulness in unusual measure.

It is clear that under existing conditions only a few efficient colleges for Negroes can or ought to be maintained. The organizations engaged in promoting the higher education of the race should therefore concentrate on a reduced number of institutions. In order to obtain a sufficiently large number of qualified students more feeding schools should be developed; indeed, some of the so-called colleges might well be converted into secondary schools for this purpose. For the system thus created, consisting of several preparatory schools and a few colleges, larger financial support should then be arranged.

Finally, for each of the few colleges thus reorganized, highly intelligent educational direction is required. The function of the head of a Negro college is necessarily somewhat different from that of the usual college or university president. He must, of course, be a good administrator; but a very large part of his energy must be devoted to outright pedagogical effort. He must not only select, but assist in training, his teachers; and he must by observation and conference assure himself that

the instruction offered is calculated to achieve the end in view. For some time to come he will resemble a principal or director rather than a university president, as that officer is usually conceived.

The General Education Board has made appropriations to Negro colleges and universities as follows:

Atlanta University	\$ 8,000
Florida Baptist Academy	13,000
Fisk University	70,000
Lane College	7,000
Livingstone College	12,500
Shaw University	18,000
Virginia Union University	<u>11,500</u>
Total	\$140,000

In Memoriam

JABEZ LAMAR MONROE CURRY

WILLIAM HENRY BALDWIN, JR.

WILLIAM RAINEY HARPER

MORRIS KETCHUM JESUP

DANIEL COIT GILMAN

ROBERT CURTIS OGDEN

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APPENDIX I

AN ACT TO INCORPORATE THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

Be it Enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress Assembled, That William H. Baldwin, Jr., Jabez L. M. Curry, Frederick T. Gates, Daniel C. Gilman, Morris K. Jesup, Robert C. Ogden, Walter H. Page, George Foster Peabody, and Albert Shaw, and their successors, be, and they hereby are, constituted a body corporate of the District of Columbia; that the name of such body corporate shall be GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD and that by such name the said persons and their successors shall have perpetual succession.

Sec. 2. That the object of the said corporation shall be the promotion of education within the United States of America, without distinction of race, sex, or creed.

Sec. 3. That for the promotion of such object the said corporation shall have power to build, improve, enlarge, or equip, or to aid others to build, improve, enlarge, or equip, buildings for elementary or primary schools, industrial schools, technical schools, normal schools, training schools for teachers, or schools of any grade, or for higher institutions of learning, or, in connection therewith, libraries, workshops, gardens, kitchens, or other educational accessories; to establish, maintain, or endow, or aid others to establish, maintain, or endow,

elementary or primary schools, industrial schools, technical schools, normal schools, training schools for teachers, or schools of any grade, or higher institutions of learning; to employ or aid others to employ teachers and lecturers; to aid, coöperate with, or endow associations or other corporations engaged in educational work within the United States of America, or to donate to any such association or corporation any property or moneys which shall at any time be held by the said corporation hereby constituted; to collect educational statistics and information, and to publish and distribute documents and reports containing the same, and in general to do and perform all things necessary or convenient for the promotion of the object of the corporation.

Sec. 4. That the said corporation shall further have power to have and use a common seal and to alter and change the same at its pleasure; to sue or be sued in any court of the United States or other court of competent jurisdiction; to make by-laws for the admission or exclusion of its members, for the election of its trustees, officers, and agents, and otherwise; for the casting of votes by its members or trustees by proxy; for the purchase, management, sale, or transfer of its property; the investment and control of its funds and the general transaction of its business; to take or receive, whether by gift, grant, devise, bequest, or purchase, any real or personal estate, or to hold, grant, convey, hire, or lease the same for the purposes of its incorporation; to accept and administer any trust of money or of real or personal estate for any educational purpose within the object of the corporation as aforesaid; to prescribe by by-laws or otherwise the terms and conditions upon which money, real estate, or personal estate shall be acquired or received by the said corporation, and for the grant, trans-

fer, assignment, or donation of any or all property of the said corporation, real or personal, to any society or corporation for any of the said purposes for which the said corporation is hereby incorporated, and otherwise generally for the management of the property and the transaction of the business of the corporation.

Sec. 5. That the members of the corporation shall be not less than nine in number and not more than seventeen, as may be prescribed by the by-laws of the corporation: *provided, however*, That if and when the number of members shall be less than nine, the members remaining shall have power to add and shall add to their number until the number shall be not less than nine: *and provided* That no act of the corporation shall be void because at the time such act shall be done the number of the members of the corporation shall be less than nine; that all the members of the corporation shall be its trustees; that no member of the said association shall, by reason of such membership or his trusteeship, be personally liable for any of its debts or obligations; that each member of the corporation shall hold his membership for a term of three years and until his successor shall be chosen: *provided, however*, That the members shall be at all times divided into three classes numerically, as nearly as may be, and that the original members shall, at their first meeting, or as soon thereafter as shall be convenient, be divided into three classes, the members of the first class to hold their membership and office until the expiration of one year from the first day of January next after the enactment of this law, the members of the second class until the expiration of two years thereafter, and the members of the third class until the expiration of three years thereafter, and that in every case the member shall hold office after the expiration of his term

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APPENDIX II

LETTERS ANNOUNCING GIFTS TO THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD AND REPLIES THERETO

(a) Correspondence with Mr. Rockefeller

“March 1, 1902.

“*Dear Mr. Baldwin:*

“My father understands that William H. Baldwin, Jr., Jabez L. M. Curry, Frederick T. Gates, Daniel C. Gilman, Morris K. Jesup, Robert C. Ogden, Walter H. Page, George Foster Peabody, Albert Shaw, have formed themselves into an association called the ‘General Education Board,’ pending the formalities necessary to incorporate themselves into a corporation which shall be known as the ‘General Education Board’;

“That the object of this Board is to promote education in the United States of America without distinction of sex, race, or creed;

“That the immediate intention of the Board is to devote itself to studying and aiding to promote the educational needs of the people of our Southern States.

“Upon this understanding my father hereby pledges to the Board the sum of One Million Dollars (\$1,000,000) to be expended at its discretion during a period of ten years, and will make payments under such pledges from time to time as requested by the Board or its Executive Committee through its duly authorized officers.

“Very truly,

“(Signed)

JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, JR.

“*Mr. William H. Baldwin, Jr., Chairman of the General Education Board, New York City.*”

To this letter the following reply was sent:

“March 8, 1902.

“*Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., 26 Broadway, New York.*

“MY DEAR MR. ROCKEFELLER: On behalf of the Trustees of the General Education Board, I beg to acknowledge receipt of your letter dated March 1st, in which pledge is made, in behalf of Mr. John D. Rockefeller, of one million dollars to be expended at the discretion of the General Education Board during a period of ten years.

“I beg to confirm your understanding that William H. Baldwin, Jr., Jabez L. M. Curry, Frederick T. Gates, Daniel C. Gilman, Morris K. Jesup, Robert C. Ogden, Walter H. Page, George Foster Peabody, Albert Shaw have formed themselves into an Association to be called the ‘General Education Board,’ with temporary Articles of Association pending the formalities necessary to incorporate themselves into a corporation under Special Charter from the United States Congress; and, further, that the object of the Board is to promote education in the United States of America, without distinction of sex, race, or creed, and that immediate attention is to be given to the promotion of the educational needs of the people in the Southern States.

“I beg further to state that immediate steps were taken through eminent counsel, Mr. Edward M. Shepard, to prepare a charter, which has met with the approval of the members of the Board, and that the charter is now in the hands of United States Senator Aldrich, to be presented to Congress at a favorable moment.

“In accepting this munificent gift on behalf of the Board, I wish to assure you of the cordial and loyal support which has been shown by each Trustee. I believe

that no set of men could have been selected to represent more fully the advanced movement of the education of the Southern people. It is our belief that never in the past has the time been so opportune as this moment for an active and aggressive movement in the Southern States, and especially it is to be noted that the educational point of view of the Trustees of the General Education Board is in perfect harmony with that of the Southern men who represent the intelligent opinion of the South.

“In return for your generous offer, we pledge our devoted support to the principles which have been laid down in our Statement of Policy, and it will be our chief aim to prove ourselves worthy of the great responsibility which you have placed upon us.

“I enclose you herewith a copy of our Statement of Policy, together with a copy of the temporary Articles of Association, and a copy of the proposed Act to Incorporate the General Education Board.

“This letter has been approved by the Executive Committee of the Board, at a meeting held on Monday, March 17th, 1902.

“Very respectfully,
 “(Signed) W. H. BALDWIN, JR.,
 “Chairman.”

On June 30, 1905, the Board received the following communication:

*“To Messrs. Wallace Buttrick and Starr J. Murphy,
 Secretaries and Executive Officers, General Education
 Board.”*

“DEAR SIRs: I am authorized by Mr. John D. Rockefeller to say that he will contribute to the General Education Board the sum of ten million dollars (\$10,000,000),

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“New York, February 7, 1907.

“*Mr. John D. Rockefeller, New York City.*

“DEAR SIR: The General Education Board acknowledges the receipt of the communication of February 5th, 1907, from Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., a member of this body, announcing your decision to give to the Board, for the purpose of its organization, securities of the current value of thirty-two million dollars (\$32,000,000). The General Education Board accepts this gift with a deep sense of gratitude to you and of responsibility to society. This sum, added to the eleven millions (\$11,000,000) which you have formerly given to this Board, makes the General Education Board the guardian and administrator of a total trust fund of forty-three million dollars (\$43,000,000).

“This is the largest sum ever given by a man in the history of the race for any social or philanthropic purposes. The Board congratulates you upon the high and wise impulse which has moved you to this deed, and desires to thank you, in behalf of all educational interests whose development it will advance, in behalf of our country whose civilization for all time it should be made to strengthen and elevate, and in behalf of mankind everywhere in whose interest it has been given and for whose use it is dedicated.

“The administration of this fund entails upon the General Education Board the most far-reaching responsibility ever placed upon any educational organization in the world. As members of the Board we accept this responsibility, conscious alike of its difficulties and opportunities. We will use our best wisdom to transmute your gift into intellectual and moral power, counting it a

supreme privilege to dedicate whatever strength we have to its just use in the service of men.

“Very respectfully yours,

“(Signed)

FREDERICK T. GATES

DANIEL C. GILMAN

MORRIS K. JESUP

ROBERT C. OGDEN

WALTER H. PAGE

GEORGE FOSTER PEABODY

ALBERT SHAW

JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, JR.

WALLACE BUTTRICK

E. BENJAMIN ANDREWS

HUGH H. HANNA

STARR J. MURPHY

EDWIN A. ALDERMAN

HOLLIS B. FRISSELL

HARRY PRATT JUDSON”

On July 7, 1909, the Board received the following communication:

“June 29, 1909.

“*The General Education Board, 2 Rector Street, New York.*

“GENTLEMEN: My father authorizes me to say that on or before August 1, 1909, he will give to the General Education Board income bearing securities, as per the accompanying memorandum, the present market value of which is about ten million dollars (\$10,000,000) to be added to the permanent endowment of the Board.

“He, however, authorizes and empowers you and your successors, whenever in your discretion it shall seem wise, to distribute the principal or any part thereof, provided the same shall be authorized by a resolution passed by the affirmative vote of two thirds of all those who shall at the time be members of your Board at a special meeting held on not less than thirty days' notice given in writing, which shall state that the meeting is called for the purpose of considering a resolution to authorize the distribution of the whole or some part of the principal of said

fund. Upon the adoption of such resolution in the manner above described, you and your successors shall and are hereby released from the obligation thereafter to hold in perpetuity or as endowment such portion of the principal of such fund as may have been authorized to be distributed by such resolution.

“Very truly,
 “(Signed) JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, JR.”

“June 29, 1909.

“The General Education Board.

“GENTLEMEN: I have heretofore from time to time given to your Board certain property, the principal of which was to be held in perpetuity, or as endowment. I now authorize and empower you and your successors whenever in your discretion it shall seem wise, to distribute the principal or any part thereof, provided the same shall be authorized by a resolution passed by the affirmative vote of two thirds of all those who shall at the time be members of your Board, at a special meeting held upon not less than thirty days’ notice given in writing, which shall state that the meeting is called for the purpose of considering a resolution to authorize the distribution of the whole, or some part of the principal of said fund. Upon the adoption of such resolution in the manner above prescribed, you and your successors shall be and are hereby released from the obligation thereafter to hold in perpetuity or as endowment such portion of the principal of such funds as may have been authorized to be distributed by such resolution.

“The provisions of this letter shall not modify the rights reserved to myself and my son in the letter of pledge of February 5, 1907, to direct to what specific objects, within the corporate purposes of the Board, two thirds of the

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ization. The members of the General Education Board, as a body-corporate and as individuals, are like-minded in their understanding and in their own determination to use the power you have given them for the public welfare, with patience, judgment, and justice.

“Very respectfully yours,
“(Signed) WALLACE BUTTRICK.”

(b) Correspondence with Miss Jeanes.

“George Foster Peabody, Treasurer, General Education Board:

“I enclose my cheque for two hundred thousand dollars (\$200,000) as Special Fund for assistance of the Negro ‘Rural Schools’ in the South.

“(Signed) ANNA T. JEANES.”

The following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Be it resolved, That this Board accepts with gratitude the gift of Miss Anna T. Jeanes of the sum of “two hundred thousand dollars (\$200,000) as a special fund for assistance of the Negro ‘Rural Schools’ in the South.”

Resolved, That this fund be named the Anna T. Jeanes Fund for the Assistance of Negro Rural Schools in the South.

APPENDIX III

CONTRACT BETWEEN WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY AND BARNES HOSPITAL

This agreement made and entered into this 28th day of October, A. D. 1911, by and between Samuel M. Kennard, Samuel Cupples, and Murray Carleton, Trustees of the Barnes Hospital, under and by the virtue of the will of Robert A. Barnes, deceased, for themselves and their successors in trust, hereinafter styled the Trustees, and the Washington University, a corporation existing under special charter under the laws of the State of Missouri, hereinafter styled the University, witnesseth:

That whereas the Trustees have become satisfied, after a thorough examination conducted by them, that the efficiency of a hospital depends, in large part, upon the ability of its medical staff, and that a hospital can render better service to its patients when it has associated with it an organized medical school and scientific staff, laboratories, and dispensary:

And whereas the University realizes from actual experience that a medical department of a university is greatly benefited by having a hospital connected with it in which it can teach its students, from actual observation of the sick, by the student observing the treatment of the sick and injured at the bedside and in the operating room:

Now, therefore, the Trustees, for and in consideration of the University fulfilling its agreements hereinafter

made by it in this agreement as to building a medical school, a dispensary, equipping and maintaining the same, and treating the sick and injured in the hospital, hereby agrees that it will, within twelve months after this agreement is signed, start to build, and with all reasonable dispatch have built for them a first class hospital at a cost of not, less than six hundred thousand dollars (\$600,000) upon the ground now owned by them, or which may be hereinafter acquired by them, between Kingshighway on the west, West Kingshighway on the south, Euclid on the east, and the Wabash Railroad on the north, and, after the said hospital is erected, to thereafter, during the life of this agreement, maintain and operate the same, according to the best-known methods of running a hospital, within the limitation of their means or income.

And the Trustees further agree that the medical staff of the hospital shall consist solely of the teaching corps of the Medical Department of the University, but in any instance where the Trustees shall object for good and sufficient cause, in writing delivered to the University, to the attendance at the hospital of any member of the said teaching corps, he shall be withdrawn from the medical staff of the hospital and the University shall appoint in his stead some other doctor, but no objection shall be made to any member of the teaching corps becoming or remaining a member of the medical staff of the hospital on account of his practising the theory of medicine and practice taught by the University for the time being, as long as the Medical Department of the University continues to teach the theory of medicine and practice most prevailing in the medical schools connected with the leading universities of the United States. This clause is not to be understood to give the University

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The Trustees further agree that they will nominate a man for superintendent, and appoint him upon the approval of the University. If the first man nominated by the Trustees does not meet with the approval of the University, then the Trustees shall nominate another man and submit his name for approval to the University. If the second man does not meet with the approval of the University, then the University shall nominate a man and submit his name for approval to the Trustees, and, if he shall not receive the approval of the Trustees, the University shall submit the name of another for the approval of the Trustees. If the second name so submitted shall not be approved by the Trustees, the Trustees shall then proceed to appoint a superintendent without submitting his name for approval, but the Trustees shall not so appoint any man as superintendent whom they have submitted for approval and such approval been refused.

The nurses shall be employed, controlled, paid, and discharged by the Trustees, but when in actual attendance upon a patient they shall be under the direction of the member of the medical staff attending such patient, and, if such member objects to a nurse, she shall be withdrawn from attendance of such patient.

All the agreements herein stated shall continue and remain in force for the term of fifty (50) years from the date hereof.

Either party to this agreement may abrogate the same at the end of thirty (30) years from the date hereof by giving to the other party notice in writing not less than three (3) years prior thereto of their or its intention to abrogate the same. Any party giving such notice shall not have a right to withdraw the same without the consent of the other party.

provisions of this contract.

Now therefore the University, for and in consideration of the Trustees fulfilling their agreements hereinbefore set forth, hereby agrees that it will, within twelve months after the signing of this agreement, start to build and with all reasonable dispatch have built for it a first class dispensary at a cost of not less than one hundred thousand dollars (\$100,000) on the ground now owned by it, or which may hereafter be acquired by it, within the boundaries as hereinbefore set out for the hospital site.

And it further agrees that it will, within twelve months after the signing of this agreement, start to build and with all reasonable dispatch have built for it first class medical school buildings at a cost of not less than two hundred thousand dollars (\$200,000) on or near Euclid Avenue between the Wabash Railroad right of way and Chouteau Avenue in the City of St. Louis.

The University further agrees that it will equip and maintain in the dispensary and medical school buildings all the necessary and usual laboratories that are found in well-recognized dispensaries, medical school buildings, and hospitals, and that such of these laboratories as are necessary and useful to a hospital shall be open at such times as such laboratories are usually open in first class hospitals for the use of the medical staff of the hospital. And it further agrees that it will employ all necessary scientists for the operating of its laboratories, and that

those so employed shall do the laboratory work incidental and necessary to the hospital, free of charge to the hospital or its ward patients.

The University further agrees to have only among its teaching corps, and for its scientists working in its laboratories, doctors and scientists who are learned in their profession.

The University further agrees that the medical staff shall treat all patients in the wards of the hospital free of charge, and shall give to such patients all proper medical attention.

It is further agreed and understood by both the Trustees and the University that reasonable and customary charges for professional services shall be made by the staff to pay patients occupying private rooms.

The Trustees shall have nothing to do with the collecting of fees due doctors for any services rendered within the hospital. If any patient or his representatives shall object to and dispute the charge made by any member of the medical staff for services rendered in the hospital, the same shall be submitted to the Trustees who shall determine what the charge shall be, and the finding of the Trustees shall be binding on the physician.

The University further agrees that the medical staff shall teach and give the necessary instruction in the hospital, or any other nearby place designated by the Trustees, to the nurses and those who are training to become nurses in the hospital, free of charge to the hospital and to the nurses in the hospital.

In testimony whereof the Trustees have hereunto set their hands and seals and the University has caused these presents to be signed, in duplicate, in its corporate name by Robert S. Brookings, its President, and its corporate

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connected with the training of their nurses, except such teaching service as is rendered by the said University's medical staff, but had expected to house and board all of its own nurses pending the expected gift of a Nurses' Home; and

WHEREAS no such gift has as yet been realized, and it is evident that the Barnes Hospital will not be able, with its present accommodations, to properly care for said nurses;

NOW, THEREFORE, in consideration of the facts above recited, the Trustees, parties of the second part, hereby agree that if the University, party of the first part, will proceed to erect a part of the proposed Nurses' Home, and furnish the same and build fence, the University may charge as rent for said Home five per cent. (5%) on the cost of building, furnishings, and fence (no charge to be made for the building lot), and the said Trustees will pay their proportion of said rent, and the maintenance of said Home, in the ratio the number of nurses working in the Barnes Hospital shall bear to the total number of nurses housed in the Nurses' Home above referred to.

In testimony whereof, the University has caused these presents to be signed, in duplicate, in its corporate name by Robert S. Brookings, its President, and its corporate seal duly attested to be hereunto attached, and the Trustees have hereunto set their hands and seals, the day and year first above written.

CONTRACT BETWEEN YALE UNIVERSITY AND NEW
HAVEN HOSPITAL

This agreement, between Yale University, a corporation existing under the laws of the State of Connecticut,

and located in the City of New Haven, in said State, hereinafter called "The University," and The General Hospital Society of Connecticut, a corporation also existing under the laws of said State and located in said City, hereinafter called "The Hospital," Witnesseth, that,

Whereas, the Hospital maintains, and has for many years maintained a general hospital situated in said City of New Haven, on a tract of land bounded northerly by Davenport Avenue, easterly by Cedar Street, southerly by Congress Avenue, and westerly by Howard Avenue; and

Whereas, the University maintains, and has for many years maintained, in said city a department of medicine known as the Yale Medical School, in which instruction is given to students in the theory and practice of medicine and surgery; and

Whereas, the parties hereto are united in the belief that a closer alliance between them will render the Hospital more useful to its patients and to the community, and will benefit said University by enabling it to give the best clinical instruction to its students, and afford the best opportunities for advanced study and scientific research; and

Whereas, it is deemed necessary by both parties hereto that the sum of at least six hundred thousand dollars (\$600,000) be raised and used for the purposes hereinafter expressed, and said University has not available the necessary funds for such purposes, but is endeavoring to raise the same as part of a comprehensive plan to increase the endowment and efficiency both of the Hospital and of the Medical School; and

Whereas, in the opinion of the parties hereto, it will materially aid in obtaining such sum of money by gift

or otherwise that the agreement of the parties hereto be reduced to writing, as hereinafter expressed; and

Whereas, this agreement is not to become operative and effective unless and until said University gives the written notice hereinafter stated:

Now, therefore, the parties hereto, in consideration of the mutual covenants hereinafter expressed, do hereby agree as follows:

First: This agreement shall take effect and become operative upon receipt prior to July 1st, 1914, by the President of the Hospital, of written notice from the University, that the University has acquired or set apart not less than six hundred thousand dollars (\$600,000) which it agrees to use for the purposes hereinafter stated. If such notice is not received by said President, prior to July 1st, 1914, then this agreement shall be null, void, and of no effect.

Second: Upon and after the giving and receiving of such notice prior to said date:

(1) The University agrees to pay to the Hospital, as hereinafter stated, such amount as shall be required to completely erect and fully equip in a workmanlike and proper manner, and with all suitable technical and other apparatus, on said land belonging to the Hospital, a fire-proof building, similar in character, design, and standard of construction and equipment to the new administration building to be built by the Hospital, to be used as a clinical and pathological laboratory, to be known by such name as the University may direct, and pursuant to plans and specifications to be approved by the Corporation of Yale University, or some agent appointed by said Corporation for that purpose, and by the Directors of the Hospital. The cost of said building shall not exceed \$115,000 and the cost of said equipment shall

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come of the balance of said fund or its equivalent calculated as aforesaid, together with any additional sum or sums of money that may be needed from time to time, for the payment of salaries and other expenses hereinafter agreed to be paid by the University. If the income of said balance or its equivalent calculated as aforesaid shall be more than sufficient to pay said salaries and expenses, said excess shall be applied by the University for such purposes of the Medical School in connection with the Hospital as the Executive Committee of the Hospital and the Executive Board of said Medical School shall agree, or, failing such agreement, such excess shall be added to the principal of said fund.

(4) The University hereby further agrees to pay from time to time out of the income of said fund or its equivalent calculated as aforesaid, or out of other moneys belonging to the University, if said income or its equivalent is not sufficient for such purposes, for all proper and necessary repairs on all technical apparatus used in said building and for the replacement of such apparatus as may be worn out or destroyed and reasonably necessary to be replaced, including the expense of all chemicals and destructible supplies, and to pay the salaries of all needed scientific and educational workers in said laboratory, including a resident pathologist and bacteriologist, an assistant, a technician in pathology, a technician in surgery, a technician in medicine, a radiographer, a historian, head internes in medicine, surgery, and pathology, who shall each render his appropriate service to the Hospital and its patients, and the University shall also pay the salaries of a janitor or janitors, if more than one is reasonably necessary, to be employed in or about said laboratory, and to be appointed by the University; provided, however, that said appointees named in this paragraph

shall be acceptable to the Hospital and subject to all reasonable rules and regulations of the Hospital.

Third: Upon and after the giving and receiving of such notice prior to said date:

(1) The Hospital agrees to completely erect and fully equip, in a workmanlike and proper manner, and with all suitable technical and other apparatus, on said land, a fireproof building of the character hereinbefore specified, to be used as a clinical and pathological laboratory to be known by such name as the University may direct, and pursuant to plans and specifications to be approved as aforesaid, and to pay for the same out of said fund to be provided by the University as hereinbefore stated, and the Hospital agrees to keep and maintain said building in good repair during the continuance of this agreement.

(2) The Hospital hereby further agrees to permit the Corporation of Yale University to nominate, as vacancies occur, suitable persons for the positions of attending physicians, surgeons, and specialists in medicine and surgery on the staff of the Hospital, also for the positions of resident bacteriologist and pathologist, an assistant, a technician in pathology, a technician in surgery, a technician in medicine, a radiographer, a historian, head internes in medicine, surgery, and pathology above mentioned; it being agreed that the University shall appoint one or more janitors, if more than one is reasonably necessary to be employed in or about said laboratory. And the Hospital further agrees that all of said positions, except the position of janitor of said laboratory, shall be filled by election by the Directors of said Hospital upon such nominations and not otherwise, it being agreed, however, that the physicians, surgeons, and specialists connected with the Hospital at the time this

agreement becomes effective shall continue in the service of the Hospital until each shall respectively resign his position, or until the term of service of each shall terminate pursuant to the present regulations of the Hospital. If any such nomination is objected to by vote of the Directors of the Hospital duly passed at a meeting duly held, such nomination shall be withdrawn upon the written request of said Directors, or a majority of them, stating the grounds of their objections thereto, and another nomination shall be promptly substituted therefor until a nomination satisfactory to said Directors shall be made; it being the intent of this agreement that the Hospital shall secure for the treatment of its patients the greatest degree of medical and surgical skill that can be furnished by said Medical School. It is further agreed that in case of failure to secure a nomination or nominations satisfactory to the Hospital Directors after six months from the time when any vacancy shall occur, and after three nominations for said vacancy shall have been made by said Corporation, the names of such nominees shall be submitted to the arbitrators hereinafter mentioned, who shall report upon the fitness or unfitness of such nominees and their relative standing and merits. Thereafter such vacancy shall be filled by the Directors of the Hospital from the nominees approved by the arbitrators as fit for said vacancy, and if none is so approved the Corporation shall submit additional nominations.

The Hospital further agrees to suffer and permit the physicians, surgeons, and others elected by the Hospital as aforesaid to use the public wards, laboratories, and other buildings of the Hospital, wherever located, for teaching purposes, according to the most approved practice, consistent always with the welfare of patients and under the reasonable rules and regulations of the Hospital,

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by the Senior Associate Justice in case of vacancy in the office, and said arbitrators shall thereupon proceed to determine all differences and disputes submitted to them, in writing, by said parties, in such way and manner as to them, or a majority of them, may seem best, with or without notice or hearing, and upon principles of justice and equity. The decision of said arbitrators, or a majority of them, shall be reduced to writing, and duplicate originals thereof shall be signed by said arbitrators, or a majority of them, and delivered one to the Hospital and one to the University, and such decision shall be final and conclusive upon the parties hereto.

(5) This agreement may be terminated by mutual consent; or, after ten years, by either party under and pursuant to the conditions hereinafter provided. If two-thirds of the members of the Corporation of Yale University or two-thirds of the Directors of the Hospital shall, at two meetings, with an intervening interval of not less than six or more than nine months, vote in favor of terminating the agreement, the Secretary of said Corporation or the Secretary of the Hospital, as the case may be, shall give written notice to the other of said action, and said agreement shall terminate five years after the receipt of said written notice or earlier if the parties shall so agree or if the arbitrators shall so order. If the agreement shall be terminated by the University the laboratory building to be built on said Hospital grounds shall be and remain the property of the Hospital, and the balance of said fund shall be and remain the property of the University, and in such case the income thereof or its equivalent shall thereafter be used for the purposes of the Medical School. If the agreement shall be terminated by the Hospital the balance of said fund shall be and remain the property of the University as aforesaid and the

Hospital shall pay to the University the then fair value of said laboratory building and its equipment, which value shall be determined by agreement of the parties, or failing such agreement, the question of said value shall be submitted to the determination and award of the three arbitrators appointed under the provision of the fourth section of this agreement. The decision of said arbitrators shall be final and conclusive upon the parties hereto.

In witness whereof, the parties hereto have caused to be subscribed their names, and their corporate seals affixed, this 29th day of May, 1913, and to a duplicate hereof, of like tenor and date.

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