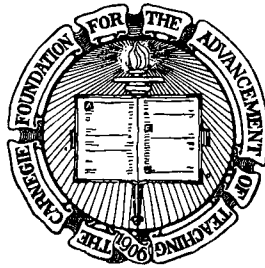


REVIEW OF LEGAL EDUCATION
IN THE
UNITED STATES AND CANADA
FOR THE YEAR 1933

BY
ALFRED Z. REED
STAFF MEMBER IN CHARGE OF THE STUDY OF LEGAL EDUCATION



NEW YORK CITY
522 FIFTH AVENUE
1934

D. B. UPDIKE • THE MERRYMOUNT PRESS • BOSTON

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
INTRODUCTION	1
LEARNED PROFESSIONS AND THEIR ORGANIZATION	3
I. Practitioners Associations	4
II. State Licensing Authorities	8
III. Educational Institutions	16
IV. Associations and Professional Fields of Study	25
CURRENT BAR ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS	
I. Recent Changes	29
II. Source of Authority over Admission to Legal Practice	32
III. Comparative Requirements for Admission to Legal Practice in the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland	33
LAW SCHOOLS	
I. Recent Changes	34
II. Current List of Residential Law Schools in the United States and Canada	35
III. Comparative Figures, 1889-90 to 1933-34	58
LAWYERS IN PROPORTION TO THE POPULATION	60
APPENDIX	
A. Standards of Associations in Force January 1, 1934	61
B. Publications of the Carnegie Foundation dealing with Legal Education	65
INDEX OF STATES AND PROVINCES	67

INTRODUCTION

THE problem of the summer law school was discussed at length in Bulletin Number Twenty-one, *Present-Day Law Schools*, chapter X, pages 179 to 196, and was later touched upon in the Annual Reviews of Legal Education for 1928, 1931, and 1932. As foreshadowed last year, additional information as to the time needed to secure the law degree will henceforth be available in the List of Law Schools. Since 1920, arabic numerals have shown the length of the law course, measured in terms of the conventional "academic year" of approximately nine calendar months. The symbols now show, in addition, those cases in which the calendar interval between admission and graduation may be reduced by attendance at the local summer session.

No attempt is made to indicate the extent of the possible reduction, which varies considerably between school and school. It should be noted also that law schools which either have no summer session, or do not permit local summer work to be credited toward their residential requirement, not infrequently allow credit in the case of students entering from other schools. This aspect of the matter is here entirely ignored; it forms part of the larger and very perplexing problem of the conditions under which "advanced standing" should be granted to students who migrate from one law school to another.

It has been a relief to the writer, and it may be a relief to his readers, to turn from these narrowly technical matters to questions involving learned professions in general. Lawyers, and those who are concerned with the training of lawyers, may be glad to see themselves pictured against a broad background of other professions. American lawyers should be especially interested to discover from section II, pages 13 ff., the influence that they have unwittingly exercised upon the development of state licensing systems for other professions. In England the characteristic method of state control over professions is through their own associations, yet by a curious chain of historical accidents attorneys were the carriers, from England to this country, of the concept of individually licensed practitioners. The part played by practitioners associations in arresting, but also in stimulating, the natural tendency of all professions to split into specialized groups is discussed on pages 5 ff. and on pages 15-16. In section III, which treats of the rise of universities and the relation which this special type of "practitioners association" bears to the state, the specific illustrations are to a large extent drawn from the legal profession.

Suggestions will always be welcomed, both as to the topic or topics that can most profitably receive special attention in subsequent leading articles, and as to the form or content of the statistical and reference portions of this *Annual Review*. Until the time comes when it is practicable to transfer the entire responsibility for this publication to an appropriate professional agency, there will be no relaxation of effort to make it increasingly useful to prospective law students, to law school and bar admission authorities, and to all who are interested in improving our present system of legal education. As a check upon the accuracy of the information currently presented, copies are regularly submitted in confidential proof to bar admission authorities of every state and of every Canadian province, to administrative offices of all American and Canadian law schools, and to officials of other organizations specially mentioned in the text.

LEARNED PROFESSIONS AND THEIR ORGANIZATION¹

IN last year's Annual Report² it was pointed out that among the many organized groups whose coöperation must be sought in professional education are practitioners associations and state licensing authorities. Educational institutions cannot develop satisfactory systems of preparation for professional practice without taking into account the pressure that is, or may be, exerted by these other organized forces. Similarly, professional and state authorities cannot set standards for admission to practice without reference to what associated teachers, and other college and university organizations, can be brought to accept.

The object of the present article is to throw some light upon the process by which learned professions (or their modern successors) come to be organized and recognized as such. The awkward phrase "learned professions (or their modern successors)" is forced upon us by the fact that there is no general agreement as to the meaning of the term "learned profession" to-day. Shall it be restricted to the three that bore the name during the Middle Ages—the professions of theology, of medicine, and of law? Or shall it be extended to cover other occupations which either have developed into an independent status by a process of specialization and segregation (so notably in the case of professions concerned with health), or which represent new, and perhaps equally important, fields of social activity, now organized, for better or for worse, in a somewhat similar way (engineering, journalism, business administration)? Instead of begging controversial questions by an initial arbitrary definition of terms, it would be well momentarily to put aside confusing words such as "learned profession" or—an even more formidable enemy to clear thinking—"profession" in general, and to concentrate upon the exceedingly interesting developing thing. Whatever collective term of description we may finally decide to use, is it true to-day, as it was in the Middle Ages, that certain occupations possess, or show signs of developing, common features, which give to them, more than to other occupations, the general character of intellectual pursuits? And if it is possible, in the multitude of specialized activities which make up our modern economic organization, to identify this particular group, what are its distinguishing features, and to what extent do they appear in specific vocations?

As a first step toward answering these questions, it will be necessary to consider separately each of three general types of organization that are involved: practitioners associations; state licensing authorities; educational institutions. In all three cases we must be on our guard against interpreting these terms in their familiar modern sense. Each of them corresponds to a type of organized social force that is constant only in the sense that in some form or other it seems to be present in all ages. But

¹ This section, lacking slight revisions, appears also in the *Twenty-eighth Annual Report of the President of the Carnegie Foundation* (1933). While it was being printed, A. M. Carr-Saunders' and P. A. Wilson's recent volume, *The Professions*, came to the writer's attention, and was freely used as authority for English dates and titles.

² *Twenty-seventh Annual Report*, p. 95: *Review of Legal Education in the United States and Canada for the year 1932*, p. 11.

between the rudimentary form in which any such social activity is manifested in one age or in one occupation, and the complex organization in which it is embodied at another time or in another field, the gap may be so large as to conceal the essential identity of the two phenomena.

I. PRACTITIONERS ASSOCIATIONS

Although diversification of economic activities undoubtedly proceeds at a varying pace during different periods of the world's history, it seems to be a pretty constant, and on the whole a salutary, process. Despite its danger of narrowed outlook and restricted sympathies, the social justification of this policy is summed up in the adage "Jack of all trades, master of none."

1. Specialization and Diversification

Perhaps the most important division of labor that has occurred in Western Europe was the creation of the clerical class, as distinguished from the reformed war-lords and their families who settled down as hereditary territorial magnates. It was the alliance of certain of these war-lords with able clerics that made possible the gradual transformation of European political organization from a feudalistic quasi-empire to a group of nationally-minded states. In view of the rise of dynastic rivalries, of religious rivalries, and of national rivalries, it would be difficult to demonstrate that there has been less subsequent fighting throughout Christendom than if the earlier organization of political life had survived. However, this much may be said. At least the professed ideal of the cleric was to govern through moral suasion rather than through the use of the mailed hand. In certain sections of Europe—whether because of, or in despite of, the policies pursued by heads of state—there were, as a matter of fact, occasional prolonged periods of peace, which made possible a vigorous growth of industry and commerce.

Manufacturing and commerce mean sheltered urban communities. The artisans and tradesmen who resided in cities may be regarded, from one point of view, as newly born social classes, originating in a conscious effort to satisfy newly developed social needs. But to the extent that they were the product of a migration from country to town, they may also be regarded as an uptilted part of what had once been a totally submerged social stratum. Then, as more recently, small agriculturists appear to have divided themselves into two classes: those who stayed in the country, and those who sought to take advantage of the superior opportunities for economic advancement and of the higher standards of living that existed, or were supposed to exist, in the towns; and once in the towns, they became diversified greatly among themselves. Similarly, the clerical class itself became differentiated into those whose primary occupation was to serve the church, and those who engaged in various secular pursuits. Gradually, the political power of the church diminished, while the importance of secular clerics

steadily increased. It was not merely that they continued to practise professions, like law and medicine, which had been their traditional fields. The bulk of those possessing, at least in England, "benefit of clergy"—the privilege of being tried by ecclesiastical courts—became what we should term to-day the "educated" or "white-collar" class. After the abolition of the clerical privilege, the line of division between this class and prosperous city tradesmen or master-craftsmen tended to disappear of itself, and with the rise of popular education it has ceased to exist. In a word, state and church unconsciously coöperated to produce an organization of society wholly different from the initial distinction between feudal magnates and their rural dependents on the one side, and educated clerics on the other. The original broad divisions can hardly be recognized, the few early dividing lines can with difficulty be traced, in our present enormously variegated economic pattern.

To-day we accept the scheme of a highly diversified social organization as an accomplished fact, and do not bother ourselves with inquiring just how it came into being. Only students of genetics are interested to discover that the historical prototype of our family physician was a Roman ecclesiastic, while our captains of finance trace their main line of descent to enterprising farmers. The purpose of the preceding hasty and highly generalized survey is not to delve into antiquarianism for its own sake, but simply to provide evidence for the proposition with which this section started, namely, that diversification of economic activities—the splitting up of established occupations into specialized divisions—is a normal form of social development. It is a process that always has been, and doubtless always will be, at work. Even when it leads to and is supplemented by an aggregation or integration of units that have split off, the forces that make for specialization are directed, rather than arrested.

2. Association and Integration

Insistence upon this point has seemed necessary in order to prevent confusion between the principle of continued diversification and that of fraternal association. The two are closely related, and yet are fundamentally distinct. Undoubtedly, some specialization of economic activities must have taken place, and—what is by no means the same thing—must be recognized as having taken place, before a self-conscious group of specialists can begin to unite together for their mutual benefit. This organic union is not, however, specialization. Indeed, in a sense, it is just the opposite. It is the coming together, through the discovery of a common bond, of those who, except for this, would be engaged in unrestrained competition among themselves—would represent the most extreme type of specialization, that of individual self-seeking. It is in this sense antithetical, and it is in every sense subsequent, to a previously developed economic specialization.

Whenever a group of individuals become class-conscious—when they realize that they are performing similar economic activities, and that, therefore, whatever be their

mutual rivalries, they have certain interests in common, as against all the rest of the world—then, to the extent that geographical considerations and means of communication permit, an association of some sort is almost certain to be formed. In different ages and in different occupations these associations bear different names. Guilds, misteries, livery companies, royal colleges (not to be confused with similarly named educational institutions), professional societies (as in law and medicine), professional associations, trade unions, and trade associations are among the number in England and America. Possibly we should regard religious orders on the one hand and joint stock corporations on the other as originating in the same qualities of human nature. Municipal corporations and educational organizations, under various names, undoubtedly should be included; the latter, because of their special importance, will be discussed separately below. In one form or another, and under a confusing variety of names, we find operating, among economic workers, an organizing or gregarious instinct which is as fundamental as is the tendency to specialize, and begins to operate among specialists as soon as groups of specialists arise.

Only momentarily, however, does the organized structure of economic associations correspond at all closely to the diversified occupations in which economic workers are engaged. There is an amazing lack of permanence in the pattern of specialization. A group that in its origin constituted one homogeneous occupation rapidly splits up into divisions that have comparatively little in common with one another, and sometimes much in common with members of other groups. Scientific discoveries and engineering inventions accelerate the rate at which the economic pattern changes. On the other hand, although it seems at times astonishingly easy to organize associations, it is equally difficult to disband, or even to reorganize them. England, and to a smaller extent America, contains to-day associations that have long outlived, if not their usefulness, at least their importance. As contrasted with the natural fluidity of the specializing impulse, organizations are relatively rigid, and constitute a stabilizing social force. For a time, this may be an advantage, but it is also a danger. Sooner or later, the lines of organic division cease to coincide with those of the developing economic pattern. Practitioners associations constitute an artificial element that is quite as likely to require reformation itself as it is to serve as our guide to professional betterment.

England and America now contain an enormous number of these practitioners associations. It would lead only to confusion were an attempt made to give even a selected list of contemporary organizations. For reference, however, there are appended a few of the more important historical dates in the English "association" movement.

Guild movement in general

The "guild merchant" dates from the Conquest. As trade and industry developed, specialized groups of practitioners, who had originally been included in the general

organization, organized separate "craft guilds," later known as "misteries" and "companies." These reached their climax in the fourteenth century, and began to be combined with one another in the fifteenth century. After the Reformation, most of them rapidly lost their vitality. In the City of London, however, some eighty "livery companies" have survived to the present day; and, as will be seen later, particular guilds, under different names, have firmly established themselves in their respective fields.

The law

The Inns of Court, which traditionally control one branch of the legal profession, are a federation of genuine guilds, some of which, or their predecessor organizations, were in existence as early as the twelfth century. The Association of Doctors of Law, controlling practice in the ecclesiastical and admiralty courts, was organized in 1511; built its famous "Doctors Commons" in 1567; received a royal charter as a "college" in 1768; and was not disbanded until 1857. During the eighteenth century, the livery company of Scriveners attempted to monopolize the practice of conveyancing in London, but was defeated through the efforts of a "Society of Gentlemen Practisers in the Courts of Law and Equity," organized as early as 1739. London notaries are still obliged to be members of the Scriveners Company. The Society of Gentlemen Practisers was succeeded, in 1825, by the Law Society, incorporated in 1831; previously scattered groups of attorneys and solicitors have been combined and placed under its control to constitute, side by side with the barristers of the Inns of Court, a second main branch of the English legal profession.

Health

The Royal College of Physicians was founded by Linacre in 1518. Its members, being practitioners of physical science, so called, did not engage in those less honored fields of medical practice that demanded primarily not learning, but manual dexterity; these were exercised by the company of Barbers (incorporated 1461), and a later, unincorporated company of Surgeons. In 1540 these two companies were formally united, but two branches of practice were distinguished; the only function common to barbers and surgeons was the drawing of teeth. Two years later, "apothecaries" were recognized as a fourth branch of the medical profession, bearing somewhat the same relation to physicians that barbers bore to surgeons. In 1606 the apothecaries were incorporated as one of the City livery companies, formally united at first with the grocers, but separated in 1617. In 1745 the companies of surgeons and of barbers were again separated, and the latter lost their dental privileges. In 1800 the surgeons finally attained the distinction of being incorporated, like the physicians, as a "Royal College," in time to receive the Hunterian collections.

The oldest of a large number of subsequently organized medical societies or associations is the Medical Society of London, founded in 1773. The British Medical Association dates from 1832. Attempts by the Apothecaries Society to control the dispensing of drugs led to the formation, in 1841, by druggists and chemists, of the Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain, incorporated two years later. The British Dental Association was formed in 1880, the College of Nursing in 1916.

Other fields of activity

- 1660, The Royal Society of London for Improving Natural Knowledge (incorporated 1662).
- 1717, Society of Antiquaries of London (incorporated 1751).
- 1719, Handel's Royal Academy of Music (disbanded 1728).
- 1754, Royal Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures and Commerce (incorporated 1847).
- 1768, Sir Joshua Reynolds' Royal Academy of Arts.
- 1771, Society of Civil Engineers (reorganized 1793).
- 1788, Linnaean Society of London (incorporated 1802).
- 1788, African Association (absorbed by the Royal Geographical Society, incorporated 1830).
- 1804, Royal Horticultural Society (incorporated 1809).
- 1818, Institution of Civil Engineers (incorporated 1828).
- 1820, Royal Astronomical Society (incorporated 1831).
- 1834, Institute of British Architects (incorporated 1837; "Royal" since 1866).
- 1841, Chemical Society (incorporated 1848).
- 1844, Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons.
- 1847, Institution of Mechanical Engineers.
- 1848, Institute of Actuaries (incorporated 1884).
- 1860, Institution of Naval Architects.
- 1868, Institution of Surveyors (incorporated 1881; since 1930, Chartered Surveyors' Institution).
- 1870, Institute of Accountants (Liverpool; merged, 1880, into Institute of Chartered Accountants).
- 1871, Institution of Electrical Engineers.
- 1878, Institute of Chemistry (new charter 1884).
- 1880, City and Guilds of London Institute (for the advancement of technical education).

II. STATE LICENSING AUTHORITIES

The proper relation of the state to the manifold economic activities that are carried on within its borders is not the only problem of government. Because of the great modern expansion of industry and commerce, however, it has become an exceedingly important problem. Its paramount place in contemporary political discussion is analogous to that which was occupied for many centuries by controversy as to the proper relation between church and state.

One possible policy is that of "hands off." And despite an obvious tendency, in all countries, toward increased governmental control, it is impossible to conceive of any state as completely socialized. Some activities will always be left to the free play of individual initiative, whether for reasons of governmental policy, or because of governmental dilatoriness or neglect. Even where prevailing opinion favors a larger measure of governmental control, so rapid is the development of specialized activities that governmental agencies will always lag behind their responsibilities.

In such cases, if there is no practitioners organization, each individual, compet-

ing against every other, endeavors, more or less tactfully, to establish a reputation for providing superior service—something which, as compared with that provided by his competitors, either is of better quality, or costs less, or both. And if, on the other hand, a practitioners association is established—as, in economic fields of any stability will, sooner or later, certainly occur—this association will be as free to determine whom it wishes to admit to membership as individual practitioners will be free to join or not to join. The success of the organization will again depend solely upon its own ability to build up a reputation for providing superior service—including, in case of strike or boycott, the difference between any service and none. Its control over its own field rests upon its own moral prestige, and not upon governmental favor.

Let us assume, however, that it seems best to the government to interfere with the free play of economic and of organizing activity. A variety of policies are still possible. Logically the simplest policy, and the policy that, from our modern point of view, seems most straightforward and direct, is for the government to take over the entire service, and administer it itself. This is not, however, necessarily the best policy. Nor is it always the most practicable. In several ways the operation of the organizing impulse, discussed in the preceding section, greatly complicates the situation. This natural tendency of human nature tends both to prevent the initiation of the policy of immediate governmental administration, and to impair the successful working of this policy even when adopted.

1. Regulation of Specially Privileged Associations

The obstacles to the adoption of a policy of direct governmental administration of any particular economic service are, in the first place, the inherent force of the arguments that can be brought against this, as against any other scheme for governmental reform, and, in the second place, the overemphasis that will always be placed, by organized practitioners, on their side of this controversy. The arguments against direct public operation and control are so familiar to the present generation of American citizens through discussion of the problem of public utilities that they need not be here rehearsed; nor is it any reflection upon the sincerity of those who advance these arguments to point out that, necessarily and properly, they approach all such problems from their own predetermined point of view. The tendency of organized minorities honestly to identify their own interests with those of the public at large is an inescapable feature of democratic procedure, and does not deserve the obloquy that is sometimes visited upon it by unorganized individuals who have gone down to defeat. Governmental errors of the day, due to the pressure of organized minorities, can be rectified by the pressure of other organized minorities to-morrow; and while the immediate situation may at times seem black, and this whole procedure of trial and error appears discouragingly slow to those who are impatient to see the millennium realized at once, over a long view the path of democracy can be seen to

be leading us upward. The points that I am here seeking to make are not that organized minorities are either more socially-minded, or less socially-minded, in defense of their own interests, than individual citizens are in defense of theirs, but that inevitably they are more powerful; and that one way in which they often show their power is to block, at least for the time being, efforts to dislodge them from the exercise of functions which are traditionally theirs.

Sometimes organizations that take this attitude are strong enough to maintain themselves free from governmental interference of any sort. In matters of importance, however—matters clearly “affected by a public interest,” to use a vague but convenient formula—what is more likely to occur is that on the one hand, they will be confirmed in the possession of special privileges by the government, and on the other hand, will be subjected to governmental regulation. These two developments need not necessarily both occur. Instances can be found of special privilege without governmental regulation, and of governmental regulation that is not offset by a confirmation, or extension, of privileges already enjoyed. On the whole, however, each of these two developments is likely in time to be purchased or accepted at the expense of the other. Special privilege and governmental regulation are the obverse and the reverse of a rationally defensible policy for which strong practitioners associations provide the starting point. If this policy of governmental organization were exemplified in every field, it would mean that government nowhere acted upon the individual, but always farmed out its functions, so to speak, delegating each one to a suitably regulated association or group. The state would be an aggregate of self-perpetuating governing bodies, operating under a central coördinating and supervising control.

In no country is this picture more fully realized. But many economic activities are organized on this plan—in England and the United States more often than in other countries, and in England more often than in the United States. Although exceptions can be found, this seems to be broadly true even in the large and rapidly expanding fields of business and finance. It is difficult to parallel in any other country the extraordinary special privileges which, in England, one small group of practising financiers—the directors of the Bank of England—enjoy. In our own country, Jackson’s destruction of the Bank of the United States established a tradition to the contrary which will not be easily overturned. The contrast is most marked, however, in the smaller and relatively non-contentious fields of professional service that were discussed in the preceding section.¹ To an extent that it is difficult for us Americans to realize, the state does not, in England, itself issue licenses to individuals to

¹ Persons classified by the United States Census of 1930 as engaged in professional service constituted 6.7 per cent of the total number of gainful workers, as compared with 7.9 per cent engaged in “transportation and communications,” 12.5 per cent engaged in trade, and 28.9 per cent in “manufacturing and mechanical industries.” The corresponding figures for 1910 were 4.4, 6.9, 9.5, and 27.9 per cent. Under a slightly different classification, professional service constituted 3.5 per cent of the total in 1880, “manufacturing and mechanical pursuits” constituted 21.8 per cent. “Trade” and “transportation” combined grew in fifty years from 10.8 to 20.4 per cent. “Agriculture” decreased, during the same period, from 44.4 to 21.4 per cent of the total.

practise different occupations. Practitioners associations (livery companies, royal colleges, societies, inns, institutions, institutes, composite "councils") admit to practice, often under broad governmental regulation or supervision.

The basic reason for the contrast in this respect between England and America is doubtless that England not only possesses long-established organizations of this sort, but also, broadly speaking, tends to cleave to ancient institutions so long as they seem to work reasonably well, while in this country we cherish (except possibly among lawyers who are steeped in English traditions) relatively little affection for even such few links with antiquity as we possess. Our natural tendencies can be well illustrated by developments in the field of medicine. In the older states, we started with the English conception of self-governing practitioners associations—in our case usually termed "medical societies"—and entrusted to them responsibility for the admission of physicians to practice. The pressure of individuals, however, who wished to practise without measuring up to medical-society standards proved to be stronger than the influence of these respectable, but relatively modern, and in a sense artificial, organizations. The result was that in the older states the laws regulating the practice of medicine were so modified as to amount to nothing, and that in the newer states for many years not even formal legislation was enacted. As always under an extreme *laissez-faire* system, properly educated physicians profited by enjoying better general reputations than did quacks, but legally there was no difference. The traditional method of regulating admission through practitioners associations broke down in this country, and for years the practice of medicine was open to anybody.

As will be shown later, this condition of extreme demoralization did not continue indefinitely. Another method of state control, utilizing another type of institution, was eventually built up in the medical field. But before continuing this discussion of a particular profession, a word should first be said as to the different forms that state administration, as distinguished from state regulation, may assume. Here also it will be found that the "associating" tendency of practitioners constitutes an influence with which we must continually reckon.

2. *Direct Governmental Administration*

At the opposite extreme from attempted state control of practitioners through their own already existing associations stands the creation of a body of officials to operate the service in question directly, on behalf of the state. Every government administers many social activities in this manner. The postal service is a convenient illustration. Logically, this is the simplest system of state control. Furthermore, in many cases it seems to work reasonably well, and to lack the particular defects that characterize, or can be plausibly alleged to characterize, the system of governmental supervision. We have, accordingly, a good doctrinaire basis for arguing that the principle of direct governmental administration should be even more widely applied

than it is to-day. The most passionate controversy in regard to this movement arises, of course, in the field of "public utilities," so called. But in the professions, also, similar reforms are discussed. In the field of legal administration, for instance, having already gone far beyond England in the establishment of a system of official prosecuting attorneys, we are now beginning to supplement these by official "public defenders." Whether we should follow the English lead by establishing official bankruptcy receivers is now under consideration. In the field of medical practice, we find an already partly developed system of public health officers and public nurses, and a vigorous movement for extending socialized medical and hospital service much further.

It is impossible to lay down any general rule as to the particular services that can best be administered directly by the state. And it is no argument against the extension of this principle in particular cases to point out that, in its application, certain complications arise. But it is well to realize what these complications are. Whenever an official service is established, the following dilemma arises. The administrative officials must either hold their positions at the pleasure of a superior appointing authority, or they must be given security of tenure; and in either case it will be found that some desirable and expected feature of the service is lost.

If governmental administrators hold their positions at the pleasure of higher officials, we have governmental control indeed, with all its advantages, but also with all its drawbacks, including the likelihood that men of experience will be sacrificed to political exigencies. This evil is doubtless modified under the administrative system that is favored by the Jesuits, and by the Methodists, that we use in our military service, and that has been applied, to a large extent, to the judicial services of Continental Europe: security of tenure in official rank, subject to supervision and shift from post to post. Yet even under this system it is difficult to believe that discipline and promotion are determined always on the basis of individual merit, and are never affected by personal favoritism or partisan calculations.

If, on the other hand, in the effort to take the service "out of politics," security of tenure is given, either to individual officials or to a superior commission or board (so, notably, under the common device of staggering the terms of individual members of a board), then, *pro tanto*, governmental control is sacrificed to the alleged benefits that accrue from long experience in office. Long-continued discharge of official responsibilities undoubtedly does tend to make official administration, if not thoroughly efficient, at least more efficient than one that is shot through with "politics." But for this very reason it may also tend to block the particular policies that are desired by the state. In a word, we have laid the foundations for the development of bureaucratic control. The conferring of an official status upon practitioners does not make them any the less practitioners. If, over a term of years, they continue to discharge their functions in association with one another, they are as likely to develop an *esprit de corps*, or sense of common professional interests, as if they had come together voluntarily in the first place. They are as likely as is any other practitioners association to

identify the public's interest as their own, and to regard this as a justification for exerting, in mooted questions of policy, the enormous power of obstruction which they owe to their contact with detail.

This is not to say that bureaucratic obstruction may not often be well directed. The continuity of foreign policy that England displayed during the nineteenth century has been ascribed to the steady influence exerted upon shifting cabinet officials by the permanent staff of the Foreign Office. The constitutional development of the United States during the same period was vitally, and probably desirably, affected by the operation of this same bureaucratic principle—the power possessed by our judges, because of their protected tenure, to challenge the fluctuating expressions of policy enunciated by Congress and the state legislatures. Bureaucracies are not necessarily evil. But their constant tendency to emerge as instruments of governmental policy, the more powerful because not acting thus in accordance with a predetermined plan or design, is a most important complication in the development of governmental institutions.

3. Licensing of Individual Practitioners

A third system of governmental control over occupations is that of issuing licenses to individual practitioners. This system, which has become especially important in the development of professions in this country, is not to be confused with the license extended to a corporation or to a trade association to engage in a particular business. Although such corporations or associations have been treated, in preceding pages, as being, in a broad sense, "practitioners associations," the restriction of their activities by a form of license is an instance of the method of state control that was first discussed: the regulation of preëxisting associations. On the other hand, included in this term is the process known, in one important profession, as "admission," or even—for this expression was once in vogue—"appointment" to the bar. The feature that distinguishes this system from that of direct governmental administration is that, although in both cases a governmental agency "appoints," "admits," or "licenses" (the precise word that is employed is a matter of historical accident), there is no definite restriction upon the number of practitioners. In lieu of a limited group of officials, each of whom occupies a particular office, an official class or order is created. Incidentally, of the two alternative systems of tenure that have just been discussed, the second is the one that has been adopted here; the members of the class or order serve during good behavior rather than at the pleasure of the appointing (licensing) authority. Finally, although usually—though by no means invariably—officials proper now receive their compensation from the state, as a regular incident of official status, the licensing system, as such, is never fortified in this way. Licensed practitioners look for their financial support to the fees, or to the salaries, paid by such clients, or by such employers—including sometimes the state itself—as they are fortunate enough to secure after they have been admitted to practice.

The manner in which this system developed is of considerable interest. It first appears in connection with the legal profession in England. Transplanted from England into its American colonies, not only did it long continue in the United States to be the only system in force for the legal profession, but it was extended to many other professions and occupations as well. On the other hand, in England itself, this device has been used most sparingly for other professions, and in the early part of the nineteenth century it was abandoned even for the legal profession.

The probable explanation of the early appearance of this device in England is that the English system of judicial and legal administration was organized earlier than the full development of the guild system. The judges were officials in the fullest sense, never acquiring property rights in their offices, as in France; and repeated attempts were also made to limit the number of attorneys whom the judges were ordered to appoint. The failure of this effort to prevent "overcrowding" left numerous scattered branches of attorneys and of solicitors in the status of what we have termed official classes or orders. Meanwhile, within this general mass of legal practitioners there developed the specially privileged guilds that eventually became identified with the Inns of Court. These practitioners associations became so powerful that the original license or permission to practise, given to their members by the higher courts, became a mere formality. Although for many years the judges continued to control the admission of attorneys and solicitors to practice, a model for guild or society organization was provided not only by the socially more honored barristers, but also, as we have seen, by other professions. Finally, under the combined name of "solicitors," the lower branches of the legal profession were united, and received similar, though less complete, powers of self-government.

In all of the American colonies, the prevailing English system of judicial appointment or admission of attorneys was instituted. In the Southern colonies, where connection with England was maintained, a higher "bar" was also recruited by sending young men of good family to the English Inns. New York and New England instituted a somewhat similar system of self-governing county bars, with gradations of rank. After the Revolution, however, the Inns of Court were no longer available to recruit a Southern bar, and the Northern graded bar became so difficult of access as to be out of harmony with the growing spirit of equality and abolition of special privilege. There was nothing left, accordingly, except the system of admission to legal practice by judges.

Although, in most jurisdictions, judicial control over the legal profession amounted to very little, at least it preserved the form of state admission to practice. On this traditional foundation, a more effective system of examination by judicially appointed boards was erected after the Civil War. After the breakdown of the early system of admission to medical practice by medical societies, a somewhat similar state licensing system was extended to this and to other professions. Finally, in the legal profession, there has been an attempt, successful in several states, to institute what is usu-

ally known as a "self-governing bar." The model for this was the Canadian system, which may be roughly described as that of England, simplified by abolishing the division of the legal profession into two branches. This came into conflict with our established practice of judicial control, with the result that, although the bar has received, in several of the states affected by this movement, broad powers of initiative, in all except one instance it operates, like the English Law Society, subject to the control of the higher judges—a feature almost entirely lacking in Canada and surviving for English barristers only as a virtually extinct tradition.

4. Associations under a Regime of Licensed Practitioners

In the preceding section it was seen that hybrid systems are possible. Advocates of a self-governing bar, for instance, have usually been obliged to compromise with the judges' insistence upon preserving their own traditional prerogatives.

Even a forthright licensing system provides abundant opportunities, and powerful incentives, for the play of the associating impulse. In the first place, *esprit de corps*—a bureaucratic or group-conscious spirit—is less likely to affect an official class or order as a whole than a limited body of salaried officials. The naturally progressive subdivision of the occupation is not reflected in a corresponding differentiation of the legally recognized body of practitioners. Each such profession, while regarded in the eyes of the law as a unit, is composed of individuals who more and more tend, as a matter of fact, to pursue a great variety of occupations, many of which have little in common with one another. Furthermore, the low standards of admission or licensure which prevail in many professions greatly accentuate this lack of common aims. Not only are different individuals, within each profession, often trying to do different things, but even when they are trying to do the same thing, they vary greatly in their competence. The more competent naturally look down upon the less competent. Sometimes—so notably in the medical profession—differences of scientific doctrine operate as an additional divisive influence. Always differences in the amount of general or cultural education create social antagonisms that are sometimes quite profound. Finally, the fact that members of these professions look to clients or employers for their remuneration, instead of receiving an assured salary from the state, introduces a rift between those who are actually engaged in practice and those who are only formally privileged to be so.

For all these reasons, if the fundamental object of the associating impulse—the union of the like-minded—is to be realized, it must be through selective associations formed within these vaguely determined classes or orders. Within bureaucracies, both in England and in America, such special associations may or may not be formed, and in any case are of secondary importance. But, under the licensing system, they are organized in profusion. Whatever be their defects in individual instances, they do much to remedy the artificiality of the antiquated classification that forms the basis of most legally organized professions.

In the second place, our federal system of government, under which separate administrative units must be organized in each of the forty-eight states, naturally promotes the formation both of national associations, and of federations of state associations, to overcome, so far as may be, the disadvantages of what are now artificial political divisions. This tendency affects not only the selective practitioners associations, just described, but also state officials of all sorts: governors, attorney-generals, legislators, and many varieties of boards, including boards charged with the administration of licensing requirements. It would lead us too far afield to list any of the many federations or national associations that have been organized, in other fields, but the names and dates of federations of licensing boards are here appended.

1883, National Association of Dental Examiners.

1892, National Confederation of State Medical Examiners and Licensing Boards. About 1902, American Confederation of Reciprocating, Examining and Licensing Medical Boards. In 1912 these two organizations were merged as the Federation of State Medical Boards of the United States.

1904, National Association of Boards of Pharmacy.

1904, an organization composed of State Boards of Health and Embalmers' Associations of North America. In 1927 this was reorganized as the Conference of Embalmers Examining Boards of the United States, Inc.

1920, National Council of Architectural Registration Boards.

1920, National Council of State Boards of Engineering Examiners.

1931, National Conference of Bar Examiners.

III. EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Properly to understand the function of educational institutions in social and economic life, we must first distinguish between this and "education" in general. Education is a much broader concept than the benefits which a pupil gains from contact with individuals, or with organizations, that are specifically dedicated to teaching and scholarship. I do not here intend simply to revive the platitude that life, in a broad sense, is an education which extends from the cradle to the grave. I do not even mean that the formal preparation for any calling must necessarily be supplemented by experience in practice—that the young graduate of a vocational school or college, or the newly admitted member of a profession, is at bottom a mere tyro, whose proficiency is still to be developed through the actual exercise of his responsibilities. I mean something much more concrete than this. I mean that while the distinction between a learner and an adept is fundamental, the distinction between a practitioner and a teacher is not. The simplest and most natural organization of economic life is for the practitioner to be also the teacher. It is a sign of growing complexity in social organization when this process of preparation for certain occupations begins to be taken out of the hands of practitioners and confided, wholly or in part, to educational specialists.

1. Education by the Practitioner-Master

A system of vocational preparation in which there is no teacher other than the employer may be regarded, from our modern point of view, as primitive. And often, in modern times, it is also formless, hardly deserving the name of system. So pronounced has been the movement toward educational specialization that we think of education which lacks this feature as surviving principally in unskilled, or, at most, semi-skilled divisions of industry, trade, or agriculture. The foreman instructs his day-laborers, the floorwalker his cash girls, the small farmer his hired hands, under a procedure that is quite casual, and yet reasonably adequate for developing the simple services that are required. Education within the occupation need not, however, necessarily be thus haphazard. Even in modern times it frequently deserves to be taken seriously. And in the Middle Ages under the guilds it developed into an extremely elaborate and rigid educational system.

The guild system of education had two characteristic features: in the first place, an apprenticeship—usually of seven years—under an individual practitioner; in the second place, at the conclusion of the apprenticeship, an examination by the masters of the craft. This examination had little in common with our modern written examinations, of which no trace has been found, even in the universities, earlier than the eighteenth century. It might consist of, or include, the preparation of a so-called “masterpiece.” In proportion as the apprenticeship features became emphasized, the examination itself doubtless tended to become a rather empty formality. Then, as now, it could not have seemed reasonable to ask a young man to devote many years of his life to preparation for a particular profession, and then exclude him, at the end, except for grave cause. This was not, however, a lenient educational system. When combined with a rigorous limitation upon the number of apprentices whom any master might take, it was a highly effective means for preventing “overcrowding” of the profession. The abuse of this and of other devices for maintaining monopolistic control was one of the causes that finally led to the breakdown of the guild system.

2. Education by Specialists within the Occupation

Discussion of our modern technical trade schools falls outside the scope of this article. It is pertinent to note, nevertheless, that when such schools are conducted, wholly or in part, by trade unions, or by individual employers or associations of employers, within a particular trade, they represent a phase of educational development that appeared first on an entirely different and socially superior economic plane. Cathedral and monastic schools in theology; the early medical school of Salerno and the early law school of Bologna; the various London medical schools that grew out of clinical work in the hospitals, and the famous Inns of Court—all these are instances of educational institutions which developed within the profession. Animated by a purely vocational impulse, they were essentially guilds that possessed two distinguish-

ing characteristics. In the first place, whatever might be their relation to the actual practice of the profession—a topic that can be most conveniently discussed in a subsequent section—they were themselves primarily teaching rather than practising bodies. Instruction might, and commonly did, continue to be given by practitioners, but the concept had arisen of two differentiated types of practitioners: on the one hand, those who are engaged primarily in professional practice as such, and devote little or any of their time to instructing employees or apprentices; on the other hand, those who, whether or not they are (as originally they were) engaged in similar professional pursuits, specialize in the education of students, and form parts of a new kind of guild that is dedicated to this special aim. And, in the second place, they provided early instances of the principle of what we now term “mass production.” The principle, which characterized guilds in general, of limiting the number of apprentices, was abandoned here. In the case of the church, a conviction of the superiority of the ecclesiastical and monastic life—in other cases, love for learning tinged doubtless at times by financial calculations—helped to make of these extremely populous institutions. Centuries later, independent law schools and independent medical schools in the United States owed their origin to a not dissimilar mixture of motives.

During the Middle Ages a few, but only a few, professions were organized in this way. There seem to be two principal reasons for this. One is that, however democratic was the spirit occasionally evinced by particular schools, either in their original or in their later university form, the class to whom they made their earliest strong appeal was what we to-day should term the “socially well-connected”—young men who had already established, or had reasonable hopes of being eventually able to establish, satisfactory professional connections. At least as late as the Reformation, the most desirable professional connections were with the dominant powers of church and state. Obvious avenues of preferment were opened by the study of theology and of law. Linacre’s appointment as court physician to Henry VIII and his distinguished list of private patients illustrate the possibility of similar calculations among prospective physicians. But there were not many such occupations.

A second reason for the placing of only a few occupations upon a scholastic basis is that the notion of a period of class or school instruction before actual entrance upon the practice of any vocation arises most easily when an accumulated fund of theoretical knowledge already exists. “Learning by doing” gives way to “learning followed by doing”—education by example is superseded by the notion that knowledge should be acquired in the first instance, and then later applied—in proportion as a body of knowledge is at hand, waiting to be mastered. Traditional bodies of knowledge were early reduced to manuscript form in theology, in medicine, and in law. These were naturally identified, therefore, as three “learned professions.” On the other hand, the manuscript of Vitruvius’ exposition of the principles of classical architecture was not discovered until the fifteenth century—long after the Euro-

pean university system had been crystallized. In view of the subsequent great influence of this treatise in promoting the classical revival in architecture, it is an interesting subject for speculation whether it was not merely the carelessness of a monastic librarian that kept Europe from gaining a fourth standard "learned profession"—and losing all its Gothic cathedrals.

3. University Education

Of the professional schools mentioned in the preceding section, Salerno and Bologna are usually regarded as having been, from their first establishment, "universities," partly because other faculties were later added, and partly because, etymologically, the word "university" means simply "community," and, in early usage, was applied to any community of scholars. Among various words used to designate associations or guilds, this word came to denote that particular type which specialized in teaching. In later usage, however, it became limited to an aggregate of such guilds. It is now generally used to denote a "community of communities" engaged in teaching, or—to include a subsequent differentiation of originally united concepts—engaged either in teaching or in scholarly production.

Europe has seen only one formal addition to the original three fields of medieval university study (or four fields, if canon law be distinguished alike from theology and from civil law). This addition, however—the broadly inclusive field cultivated by the faculty of arts or philosophy—has been of tremendous importance. It has profoundly modified the educational and social significance of the university, by introducing the concept of the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake, rather than for the sake of its practical application.

The University of Paris has been held primarily responsible for this broadening of the originally vocational character of higher learning. Two stages in the process may be distinguished. In the first place, even when practical utility survives as the ultimate justification of learning, this ideal may profitably be combined with breadth of view. It may be recognized that the final goal is most likely to be attained if it is not too consciously sought. Conceding that nothing is so little worth while as mere accumulation of knowledge that is never used, it still remains quite impossible to predict what types of knowledge may eventually be turned to practical account. Mathematics and natural science are perhaps the two subjects which have provided the most conspicuous evidence of this. The pursuit of pure theory has led to totally unexpected practical applications, which have revolutionized social life. But even before the dawn of natural science, those medieval scholars, in what seems to us their dry-as-dust fields, were animated by the basic element of the scientific spirit. Despite their exaggerated respect for authority, they believed in, and practised, intellectual curiosity.

The second stage in the escape from vocationalism occurred when to intellectual curiosity there was added the phenomenon of overcrowded professions. Fields of

learning that were originally cultivated because of belief that they might prove ultimately to have some bearing upon professional practice—even though the connection was not apparent at the time—continued to be cultivated even when there was little hope of entering a profession. There arose the concept of learning, not for the sake of its vocational application, but as a process for recruiting an educated class—an end which, if it needed to be justified at all, was justified on entirely different grounds. The development of cultivated intellectual tastes in the individual came to be a sufficient reason for attending a university. This beginning was certain to lead, in time, to a still further expansion of the educational concept, a still wider dispersion of educational aims. If the years spent in college or university may have, as their object, something outside of the immediate vocational betterment of the student, they may have a great variety of objects. To the individualistic aim of cultivating intellectual tastes we may add education for citizenship, and education for family responsibilities. We may add to things of the mind cultivation of the body and of the soul. Finally, what we attempt in higher education, we may attempt in lower schools also.

This expanding concept of the proper province of formal education has been carried much further in the United States than in Europe. In the universities of Continental Europe and of Latin America it sometimes shows itself principally in a quite restricted form; young men register as students under the law or the medical faculties simply because they have the means and this is the custom of their social class. In England, law and medicine have remained professional specialties, and university education confers the greatest prestige when it is pursued in the general field originally known as “arts.” In the United States, not only do the “college-bred” traditionally occupy a socially privileged position, but the additions that have been made to the college and university curriculum include much that no European educational authority would sanction.

Despite its far wider vocational range, the American type of university has been formed by essentially the same process as its medieval prototype. It is an aggregation of preëxisting units. Its organic development differs, however, in at least two respects.

In the first place, American higher education began after the general, non-vocational, faculty of arts or philosophy had fully established itself in the university scheme. This educational unit occupies an unusually prominent place in the American educational system. Under the name of “college of liberal arts”—or, more simply, “college”—it has been the core of the American university. Usually, professional schools have been added to this preëxisting institution. In the few cases in which universities originated in a simple combination of professional schools, they have promptly organized what has seemed to them this essential department. Although it has itself frequently been shot through with vocationalism, so far as the higher professions are concerned it has been maintained as a relatively independent academic unit. It grants its own degree, while the professional schools grant theirs.

Especially in the field of legal education, this feature of university organization has had important consequences. The English model of a single university degree, covering work pursued both in arts and in law, was indeed copied for a time in Virginia, but was eventually displaced everywhere by the present system, originating at Harvard, of one degree in arts and another in law. Even when, many years later, Harvard took the step, which other universities have recently begun to follow, of admitting to its law school only college graduates, the continued conferring of two separate degrees retained more than a formal significance. It meant the continuance of a peculiarly American tradition—a sharp break between the general or cultural work of the college and the professional or technical work of the law school.

A second distinguishing characteristic of the American university is due to the fact that its form was set before the English examination movement of the nineteenth century. When our first institutions of higher learning were organized, English universities were emphasizing the apprenticeship rather than the examination feature of their guild. Colleges and their tutors represented all that was of any value in Oxford and Cambridge, and were copied here. The examining function of the university was of so little importance that it disappeared from American educational thought. Examinations in the colleges became, especially after the liberalization of the curriculum under the elective system, not even general college examinations, but separate course-examinations conducted by the individual teachers giving the courses. In some professional schools—so notably in the early Harvard Law School—examinations disappeared altogether. Under Langdell's lead, examinations by the individual law professors were restored, and recent years have seen the development of a system of comprehensive university examinations. Applied first to college departments, this movement may eventually spread to the professional schools, and a satisfactory relationship may be established between these comprehensive school examinations and the strengthened licensing and bar admission tests. But, without established traditions to build upon, the development must necessarily be slow.

4. Relation of the University to the State

Before we pursue further the contentious question of what divisions of human activity properly belong to the universities, a word should be said as to the complications produced by these institutions in two phenomena that have already been discussed: the development of state control over admission to practice, and the "associating impulse" in general.

To some extent the universities themselves have been brought under state control. There is a general distinction in this respect between England, where, as in the case of other guilds, companies, and associations, the principle of independent self-perpetuation has been preserved; Continental Europe, where the universities have been largely converted into governmental agencies; and the United States and Canada, where both types of institutions are found. The situation is complicated, however, by the giving

of subsidies and tax-exemptions, even to self-perpetuating institutions, thereby providing a basis for governmental control over policies even here. Furthermore, the notion of state or municipal control over the administration of universities is of relatively recent origin, and, even where it exists, considerable security of tenure is usually enjoyed either by the teachers themselves (under the tradition of academic freedom) or by the members of an intermediate governing board (appointed by the state or municipality for long and staggered terms). For all these reasons, this distinction has not hitherto greatly affected the question with which we are here primarily concerned—the relative control over admission to practice that is exercised by practitioners associations (among whom we must include universities) on the one hand, and by the state on the other. In a preceding section, we saw that there was a marked contrast between England and the United States in the amount of self-government that practitioners associations in general have been permitted to retain. How has this situation been affected by the rise of this specialized type of practitioners association, this community of teachers and of students, that has come to be known as a “university”?

Different countries, at different times, have approached this problem from, broadly speaking, five different points of view.

In Continental Europe the notion of guild control was at first preserved, but within the three professional fields that were concerned—theology, law, and medicine—this particular type of guild displaced all others. The graduate of a university was not assured of a livelihood until he had received an official appointment as a member of the ecclesiastical or secular bureaucracy, or, in default of this, had secured individual clients or patients. But for evidence that one was qualified to practise one of these three professions, the simple university degree sufficed. Technically, this device was a license to teach, rather than to practise, in the modern significance of this term. But in a “learned profession,” the qualifications for teaching, and the qualifications for engaging in other forms of professional practice, were assumed to be the same; or if not precisely identical, then the teacher was regarded as the better qualified. To be a learned doctor, a master of the theory of one’s art, stamped one, without more to-do, as genuinely expert in one’s calling.

In England, it may be argued that a similar tradition persisted in theology, and survived even the Reformation, as regards the Established Church. In the United States, qualifying certificates for public-school teachers are sometimes based on similar ideas.

In the development of the English legal professions, on the other hand, the conflict between ecclesiastical and temporal pretensions had among other consequences this: that the Roman or civil law cultivated in the universities was not accepted, as on the Continent, as the basic unifying element for the law of the state. Except in the ecclesiastical and admiralty courts—an important exception—the bureaucratic precedents of the judges themselves—from whose ranks ecclesiastics were gradually

excluded—constituted the foundation of English law. This “common law” of the realm was taught, at first, not in the universities but in the Inns of Court. Although, after the Reformation, these degenerated as educational institutions, they retained their original guild powers, as admitting or licensing bodies for the bar; and although, in the eighteenth century, the universities finally opened their curriculum to the study of the common law, this development came too late to dislodge the Inns from their licensing control. The nineteenth century witnessed a widespread movement to rely to a great extent upon final examinations as a test of educational proficiency. This consolidated the English system of admission to the bar into its present form. University instruction in law still constitutes merely an alternative avenue that is open to the student in preparing himself for his licensing test. This is also the situation in the majority of American states, where, however, as previously explained, the licensing or admitting body is usually an arm of the state government.

Great Britain, during the nineteenth century, developed a third system for physicians, surgeons, and dentists. The universities, the Royal Colleges, so called, and the Apothecaries Society, together with similar organizations in Scotland and Ireland, continue as coördinate licensing bodies, under the supervision of a Council composed mainly of their own representatives but including a few members appointed directly by the government.

A fourth method of inserting the university, or the professional school which has not yet become part of a university, into the general educational scheme is to recognize that such schools, or some of them, presumptively provide better training than that which other avenues of admission provide; and to encourage them by exempting their graduates from the state licensing tests required of other applicants. This is the so-called “diploma privilege,” which, once rampant and greatly abused in the United States, has disappeared from medical licensure provisions, and survives in the bar admission rules of only a few states. Usually, but by no means invariably, it is restricted to the law school of the local state university. An allied but more readily defensible practice is the acceptance, both in England and in the United States, of university degrees or certificates of general study as sufficient evidence that the applicant possesses certain preliminary qualifications which otherwise must be proved by examination.

Finally, a fifth method of approach is positively to require scholastic preparation of a certain type, but to retain, in all cases, the device of a subsequent qualifying examination as a check, not merely upon the competence of individual applicants, but also upon the adequacy of the professional courses of study that are provisionally approved. This is the system that is now usually in force for the medical profession in the United States. A start in the same direction has recently been made in the rules for the English solicitors examinations and in the bar admission rules of a few American states. The rules for admission to several of the Canadian law societies exemplify a similar principle, though in some of these cases the university law degree is accepted as sufficient evidence of that entire part of the applicant’s preparation, and

the purpose of the law society's examination is to test the presence of additional qualifications not covered by university study. Frequently, also, in Canada, and occasionally in the United States, a development which was noted in discussing the fourth method has been carried to its logical conclusion. In satisfaction of general educational qualifications, preceding the applicant's course of professional study, actual attendance at a college or university is required; the equivalent of such study may not be shown by examination.

5. The University as affected by the Tendency to form Associations

The colleges and universities of the United States have developed so rapidly, and in the main so freely, that they are naturally of very unequal merit. This forms the occasion for a type of association that is not without its dangers—standardizing bodies, composed of or dominated by institutions that are or regard themselves as superior to others and have as their object the elevation of these others to the level which they have themselves attained.

This is by no means the only way, however, and on the whole it is not the most important way in which what I have termed the “associating impulse” has been aroused. The very great number even of respectable colleges and universities, and the prevailing hospitality of even the better institutions to new professions or vocations, has itself been a tremendous stimulus. If the authorities or teachers of a very few institutions wish to discuss matters of common concern, no elaborate formal organization is required. But to bring together like-minded men who are widely dispersed over an enormous geographical area is a very different matter.

This seems to be the explanation for the plague of associations of various sorts that infests American higher education. Different types of universities are associated together in nationwide organizations. Colleges and universities of different types unite in state or regional associations. Different elements in the university world combine—presidents, registrars, financial officers, teachers as a whole, teachers in particular scientific, vocational, or professional fields. Clubs and associated clubs of university alumni and associations of alumni of professional schools endeavor to render assistance, educational and otherwise, to their respective *almae matres*, and chapters of inter-collegiate fraternities extend the good work. Finally, so great is the number of associations of all sorts, within and without the universities, that coördinating associations have perforce arisen, designed to pool the activities of their constituent or associated members and prevent interested parties from being bewildered by the organization maze. The purpose of such associations is praiseworthy, and their own special activities frequently yield valuable results, but, speaking to the single question of bewilderment, they constitute just so many new organized forces with which responsible authorities are obliged to reckon. Up to date, the coördinating movement, so far from simplifying, has introduced additional complications into an already overorganized educational system.

IV. ASSOCIATIONS AND PROFESSIONAL FIELDS OF STUDY

It would be a dreary task to list, by name, the numerous associations which are interested, directly or indirectly, in professional education in the United States. Those who wish to perform, for purpose of reference, this useful work¹ may find suggestions in the preceding pages as to how these organizations may be classified. The main heads are:

- Associations, local, state, regional, and national, of practitioners who are not individually licensed by the state.
- Associations of practitioners formed within the broader groups of those whom the state licenses.
- Associations of state officials who are concerned with licensing practitioners.
- Associations, state, regional, and national, of colleges and universities which prepare for professional practice.
- Associations of administrative officials of such colleges and universities.
- Associations of teachers, in general, in such colleges and universities.
- Associations of teachers in special professional fields.
- Associations of associations, formed for the purpose of coördinating scattered activities.

It would also be a task of considerable difficulty to list the many vocational fields in which American colleges and universities now prepare students for practice; and it would be a task of some delicacy to try to determine which of these many vocations may properly be termed "learned professions"—professions, that is to say, preparation for which not merely is offered, but ought to be offered, by American universities.

This detailed task is not attempted in this article. We may conclude, however, by stating a point of view.

We certainly ought to regard the term "learned profession"—the proper field of university activity—as a developing concept. Our new country—our land of courageous innovations—ought to be able to bring within the university sphere callings which in other countries traditionally stand outside. That it has done so is not to be regarded as an unfortunate break with the past. Rather, it is evidence that we do not intend to let an inherited mechanism restrict the free development of social and economic activities. We prefer to adjust the educational system to modern conditions.

Not only is it futile to rail at American colleges and universities because they break with tradition. It is equally futile to condemn particular so-called institutions of higher learning for not conforming even to the requirements of pure reasoning—for not fitting in with well-grounded ideas as to what higher learning ought to be. We should not be the slaves of words. In the future, as in the past, the terms "university," "learned profession," will doubtless often seem to some of us to be misused. Perhaps, once, it would have been worth while to try to protect these honored expressions from being exploited. But to-day, to devote much time and energy to such matters, includ-

¹ The Public Administration Clearing House of Chicago, affiliated with the American Legislators' Association, has already begun to render valuable service of this general character, in an even wider field.

ing the whole apparatus of university degrees, would be to sacrifice substance to form. The educational work that is being carried on—not what this work and its human products are called—is the matter of importance.

It is proper to approach this work critically, not in the spirit of denouncing part of it as in the nature of a moral wrong, but in the spirit of classifying part of it as work with which some of us have chosen not to be identified. There are three groups who ought to be, and in most cases are, specially interested in finding their way through the educational labyrinth. There are the authorities who are immediately responsible for the conduct of particular universities. There are the sources to which they must look for financial support: state legislatures on the one hand; foundations and individual benefactors on the other. There are finally the young men and women, and their families and personal advisers, who try to make an intelligent choice among the many educational opportunities that are open to them. In this large world, others may prefer, or may be compelled, to pursue different avenues, and these avenues may lead to other equally desirable, or even to more desirable, goals. But they are not the avenues which the devotees of higher learning wish to follow. How to find these avenues is a task that cannot be delegated to practitioners associations or coördinating associations, for they are likely to be almost as much in the dark as are we. The conclusions of bodies which have given such matters special study should indeed always be listened to with respect, but they should never be treated as final authorities. That would simply be a reversion to the least admirable trait of medieval scholasticism. In a healthily developing organization of society, the presidents and trustees of universities, the financial supporters of universities, and the students who enter universities must rely, finally, upon their own judgment.

It follows from the foregoing that even the general principles on which judgments may be formed cannot be stated dogmatically by anyone. They can merely be cautiously hazarded as suggestions. Those to whom they appeal will use them as an experimental clue, and try to discover whether they are of assistance in reducing, to a logically consistent whole, the varied educational activities which any one university may pursue. Those to whom these suggestions do not make even a *prima-facie* appeal will not even try them out. Two principles which, to the writer, seem fruitful, are the following.

In the first place, professional work, in the group of universities that we have in mind, should embrace all those callings—neither more nor less—in which (as originally was true only in the case of theology, law, and medicine) a substantial body of higher learning already exists, or is in the process of being accumulated. It should be open to all such callings, but also it should be restricted to these. By higher learning is meant, of course, learning that is accumulated and taught, on the university plane, to mature students who could not do full justice to it if they had not already passed through lower colleges and schools. Learning of this sort is, to use a figure frequently employed, rooted in the purely scientific studies which the university, in

accordance with a now long-established tradition, fosters in addition to its professional activities.

This principle would not exclude from the university such supplementary instruction in practical technique as is appropriate to that particular profession, and can conveniently be supervised by university authorities. If a course of professional preparation is started in a university because it contains an important element of pure theory, there is no need to insist that it cannot be completed there simply because it involves also non-theoretical training. On the other hand, this principle does exclude fields of vocational activity which contain no important element of pure theory, or which involve theory that can be adequately mastered on a lower educational plane. To attach organized instructional units of this sort to a university as a convenient means of vouching for their respectability, or in order to save overhead expense, reduces the university ideal to the level of the market place.

To be concrete, so long as adequate contact with practical or clinical work forms part of the actual preparation of lawyers or of physicians, it is a matter of little moment whether participation in such activities is, or is not, made one of the requirements for the university's professional degree. If, in some other occupation, such as architecture, or one of the many branches of engineering, there is a similar accumulated fund of specialized higher learning, which can profitably be transmitted to professional students, the university may properly assume this responsibility, irrespective of the fact that theoretical studies alone will never make accomplished practitioners. On the other hand, music and painting would seem, to most laymen, good illustrations of occupations in which constant practice under masters of the art or craft far overbalances book work, as the appropriate educational method. Theories of harmony and of design constitute valuable subjects of study for professional musicians and artists, and stimulating subjects of study for scholars; but are they, like certain branches of law and medicine, subjects to which justice can be done only by those who are highly educated in other respects? Similar questions, the answers to which are not always clear, arise in connection with many other occupations, including those which are currently grouped under the general heads of "journalism" and "business administration."

In the second place, even though a particular calling satisfies these criteria, and preparation for it is properly offered by a school that moves on the university plane, it does not necessarily follow that this school should be admitted to the educational brood that is cherished under any particular university wing. It is doubtless as true now as it ever was that distinct fields of learning are mutually fructified when their respective teachers and students are congregated in one place, and in personal intercourse exchange ideas with one another. Furthermore, it is as true now as it ever was that the benefits which result from close association cannot always be foreseen. It shows breadth of view to follow the ancient university model of an association of guilds quite blindly up to a certain point. If we are sure that we have actually secured a genuine

close association of persons, we can be confident that benefits will ensue. But are we sure that simply banding together numerous professional schools, under the aegis of a single greatly expanded university, will give us what we want? Notably when these schools are located in large cities, their faculties and students may each revolve in their separate orbits, and see practically nothing of one another until commencement day.

A university of the kind described has the advantages, and the disadvantages, of a huge industrial organization. Its size possesses great advertising value, and promotes certain economies of administration. But it is also likely to be an unwieldy aggregation of units, formally connected with one another but not possessing the self-conscious unity of a living whole. Our modern enormously diversified scientific and economic activities have perhaps brought with them this consequence. In place of the ancient concept of "a university," dedicated to the advancement of knowledge and the learned professions, it should now be our aim to develop distinct types of universities.

CURRENT BAR ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS

I. RECENT CHANGES

SINCE the last issue of this *Annual Review*, changes in the rules for admission to legal practice, or in the organization of the admitting authority, have been reported in twenty-two American jurisdictions.¹ This enumeration does not include changes taking effect after the beginning of the current academic year, 1933-34; these will be discussed in next year's issue.²

1. General Education

Washington has increased its requirement, for applicants not graduating from an approved law school, to two years of college. Pennsylvania publishes a revised statement of regulations applicable to candidates who seek to meet its preliminary requirements by taking College Entrance Board examinations. Among the non-preliminary states (here classified, for this reason, in a so-called "Intermediate" group) Nebraska has increased its requirement to the equivalent of a completed high-school course, and Idaho has weakened its former requirement of two college years by accepting "equivalent" qualifications. Oregon maintains its former indefinite standard but has adopted an administrative rule under which applicants may be excluded from the bar examination on the basis of deficiencies in this, as in other, respects.

2. Period and Location of Law Study

Washington has reduced the period of law study, for applicants not graduating from approved law schools, to four years (the maximum found in any other state); it has also revised the prescribed course of study that such applicants must pursue, and it has fortified its requirement of annual reports by the attorneys who employ them. Delaware has fixed October 1, 1932, as the date after which beginning law students must do all their law school work in schools approved by the American Bar Association. New York has abolished the obligatory clerkship rule in the case of college graduates, and mitigated its severity in other cases. Nebraska specifies the minimum number of hours and weeks that law office applicants must devote to their studies. Tennessee has postponed the effective date of the rule, reported last year, lengthening the minimum period of law study to two years.

¹ Classified as in section II below (on the basis of technical merit rather than ostensible severity), these jurisdictions were:

"Advanced" both last year and this: Arizona, Connecticut, Delaware, Kansas, Minnesota, New York, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Washington (9 out of 17);

"Intermediate" both years: California, Idaho, Nebraska, Oklahoma, Oregon, Texas, Wisconsin, Wyoming (8 out of 20);

"Primitive" both years: Arkansas, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, North Dakota (5 out of 12).

² At the time of going to press, such changes have been reported for Alabama (two years college, three to four years law school), California (revision of examination results and partial suspension of rules), Delaware (addition to list of approved schools), New Mexico (adoption of American Bar Association standards), New York (liberalization of rules affecting law school study and clerkship), Pennsylvania (strengthened office study and clerkship requirements), British Columbia (only residents of Vancouver need attend the law school), and Nova Scotia (obligatory clerkship after graduation from law school).

3. Registration Provisions

Pennsylvania has for some years required all applicants, except non-residents studying in out-of-state schools, to register at the beginning of their period of law study. This requirement has now been strengthened by an announcement that the preceptor, with whom the applicant registers, must be approved by his local county board. A Kansas registration provision, criticized in a previous issue of this *Review* as so broadly phrased as to be unenforceable,¹ has now been made applicable only to students in law offices. On the other hand, in Connecticut and Nebraska registration provisions previously applying only to law office students have now been extended to cover—in Connecticut, the same categories as in Pennsylvania—in Nebraska, students attending the local evening law school.

4. Exemption from Bar Examination

In 1859 graduates of the Lumpkin Law School, affiliated with the University of Georgia, were accorded the privilege of being admitted to legal practice without taking the regular bar examination. The privilege was eventually extended to four other law schools, but in March, 1933, was abolished for all. This is the normal sequence of events as shown by the experience of several other states, including Missouri, Michigan, Minnesota, and California. Wisconsin, which since 1870 has accorded the privilege to law graduates of its State University, has now taken the second step by extending the privilege to the law school of Marquette University.

As a result of these changes, the “diploma privilege,” as it is usually termed, is now enjoyed, so far as concerns the local bar examination, by twenty-two schools in eleven states. Although the American Bar Association has repeatedly condemned this practice, sixteen of these law schools, including three in Texas, are on its approved list. Texas is peculiar in extending the privilege to graduates of all sixteen, in addition to five local schools not approved by the American Bar Association.

5. Organization and Powers of Examining Boards

The Washington State Bar Act authorizes the board of governors, subject to the approval of the supreme court, to control the entire matter of admission to practice, including the appointment of examining boards or committees. The rules adopted under this act transfer administrative responsibility from the clerk of the supreme court to the executive secretary of the state bar, and commit the conduct of examinations to a committee of three holding at the pleasure of the board of governors. In the case of those applying for admission on motion, a favorable recommendation by the board of governors is essential, though not conclusive; the court retains, however, power to admit or to reject any applicant who has taken the examination. An inter-

¹ *Annual Review of Legal Education* for 1928, p. 18. The criticism formed part of a general discussion of this intricate technical problem.

esting addition to the rules makes clear that the act of registration confers upon an applicant no vested rights as against the board.

The North Carolina State Bar Act sets up a permanent board of law examiners composed of six members elected by the council (the governing body) together with the chief justice and the secretary of the state bar as *ex-officio* chairman and secretary. This board controls admission to the bar, subject to three checks: (1) Its rules must be approved by the council. (2) They need not be recorded and promulgated by the supreme court if, in the opinion of the chief justice, they are inconsistent with the State Bar Act. (3) Changes in educational requirements shall not take effect until two years after adoption (thus giving the legislature power to act adversely at any regular biennial session).

The Arizona State Bar Act follows the prevailing policy¹ of authorizing the board of governors, with the approval of the supreme court, to fix and determine qualifications for practice, and to conduct examinations through a committee of not more than a stated number (in this case, five); applicants who fulfill the requirements are recommended to the supreme court for admission. The act specifically authorizes the supreme court, however, in its discretion, to admit on motion (to general practice) applicants who have practised law in other jurisdictions for at least five years, and a clause has been inserted safeguarding "the supreme court's common law jurisdiction" over its own bar.

In Nebraska, the clerk of the supreme court has been made *ex-officio* member and secretary of the bar commission, whose rule-making and administrative powers have been increased. In Oregon, the membership and the activities of the board of bar examiners have been enlarged. In Idaho and in Oklahoma the supreme court has consented to limit the exercise of its power to review the recommendations of the board.² In Arkansas the conditions under which applicants are examined by the central board, rather than by district boards, have been changed in the manner described in section 7, below.

6. Conduct of Examinations

Minnesota has reduced the number of examinations held each year from three to two, held at dates convenient for law school students. Washington has changed the dates and place of its semi-annual examinations. In the case of applicants claiming physical incapacity to take the single regular annual examination held in Oregon, the board may, in its discretion, give special examinations. The rules affecting re-examination have been changed in Connecticut, Delaware, Mississippi, Nebraska, Texas, and Washington. The Nebraska bar commission is authorized to institute a system of intermediate examinations, on a prescribed course of study, for its newly defined category of "registered" law students.

¹ See *Annual Review of Legal Education*, 1930, pp. 16, 20.

² The Oklahoma change—the only one reported for this state—should have been noted in the *Annual Review of Legal Education* for 1932.

7. *Miscellaneous*

Changes affecting permanent admission to practice of attorneys already admitted in another jurisdiction have been inaugurated in Arizona, California, Connecticut, Georgia, and Washington. Oregon has transferred from the attorney general to the board of bar examiners responsibility for investigating the applications of such attorneys for the provisional two-year license peculiar to this state. Arkansas no longer permits applicants who have only recently come into the state to be examined for a permanent license; those who have lived in the state for less than six months are now examined, by its central board, for a temporary one-year license. Washington has curtailed the privileges formerly extended, by statute, to non-resident counsel. In order to conform to the language of the North Dakota statute, the state bar board has omitted a rule, adopted last year, fortifying its residential requirement. Arizona has inaugurated a similar rule. The fees paid by applicants have been changed in Kansas and Wyoming. Texas has amplified and strengthened its application forms.

II. SOURCE OF AUTHORITY OVER ADMISSION TO LEGAL PRACTICE

The changes described in the preceding section were made by the following governmental agencies:

Georgia, Arizona, North Carolina, Wyoming: The legislature.

North Dakota: The state bar board, acting under the authority of the supreme court, in order to conform to the statutory requirements.

Mississippi: The board of bar admissions, appointed by the governor, under a statute conferring limited powers.

Connecticut, New York, Oregon, Tennessee; Minnesota, Pennsylvania; Idaho, Washington: The supreme court or the superior court or the court of appeals; or the state board of law examiners acting under the authority of the supreme court; or the governing board of the state bar acting with the approval of the supreme court—in all cases, under statutes conferring broad powers.

Arkansas, Kansas, Nebraska, Texas; California: The supreme court or the board of legal examiners acting under its authority; or the committee of bar examiners of the state bar acting under the authority of the board of governors and of the supreme court—in all cases, consistently with statutes conferring limited powers.

Delaware; Oklahoma: The board of bar examiners acting under the authority of the supreme court; or the board of governors of the state bar acting with the approval of the supreme court—in both cases without explicit warrant in constitutional provisions or in statutes.

Wisconsin: The legislature, by a statute respected only in part by the supreme court.¹

¹ See *In re Admission of Certain Persons to the Bar*, 247 N.W., 877 (April 19, 1933). For another recent expression of judicial opinion on the vexed question of the extent to which the courts may be deprived of their common-law powers over admission to legal practice, see *In re Richards*, 63 S.W., 2d Ser., 672 (Missouri, October 16, 1933), and compare summary in 20 *A. B. A. Journal* (January, 1934), 1.

CARNEGIE FOUNDATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF TEACHING, 622 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK CITY
MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO LEGAL PRACTICE IN THE UNITED STATES, CANADA,
AND NEWFOUNDLAND AT THE BEGINNING OF THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1933-34

	Minimum amount of general education required before:		Duration and distribution of period of law study if pursued:			System of examination in legal attainments
	Beginning period of law study	Taking final examination	Wholly outside of a law school	Partly in a law school	Wholly in a law school	
UNITED STATES American Bar Association Recommendations of 1921	"Two years of study in a college"	-----	Not permitted	At least the law school study recommended in the next column. No recommendation as to supplementary office work	Three years of full-time or a longer course, equivalent in the number of working hours, of part-time study	"Graduation from a law school should not confer the right of admission to the bar. Every candidate should be subjected to an examination by public authority to determine his fitness"
Washington Conference Recommendations of 1922	American Bar Association recommendations endorsed with the explanation: "Educational experience other than that acquired in an American college may, in proper cases, be accepted as satisfying the requirement of the rule, if equivalent to two years of college work."	-----	Not permitted	At least the law school study recommended in the next column. No recommendation as to supplementary office work	Three years of full-time or a longer course, equivalent in the number of working hours, of part-time study	"Graduation from a law school should not confer the right of admission to the bar. Every candidate should be subjected to an examination by public authority to determine his fitness"
American Bar Association Recommendation of 1927	"No legal examinations (should) be held by the university of the state or by the Board of Law Examiners thereof, for those applying for admission to the Bar, obliged to make up their preliminary qualifications outside of accredited institutions of learning."	-----	Not permitted	At least the law school study recommended in the next column. No recommendation as to supplementary office work	Three years of full-time or a longer course, equivalent in the number of working hours, of part-time study	"Graduation from a law school should not confer the right of admission to the bar. Every candidate should be subjected to an examination by public authority to determine his fitness"
Alabama	None	Equivalent of high school	No rule	No rule	No rule	Final examination, conducted by a central board, but graduates of the law school maintained by the State University take its examinations only
Arizona	Equivalent of high school, prior to registration	-----	8 years full-time (under supervision of a lawyer). Registration required	3 years or more. Registration required for law school study	3 years full-time, required for law school study	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Arkansas	None	None	No rule	No rule	No rule	Final examinations, conducted in one district by a central board and in seventeen other districts by local boards on questions prepared by the central board, which also examines applicants lacking six months' residence for license pool for one year; but graduates of the law school maintained by the State University take its examinations only
California	None	Equivalent of high school	4 years (48 months, 386 hours)	4 years (48 months, 386 hours)	3 years of full-time sessions yielding a degree; otherwise 4 years	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Colorado	2 years college or examination conducted by the State University	-----	Not permitted	3 years school and office, of which at least 2 must be in a law school. Registration required for office work	3 years, or 4 years if in an out-of-state evening school	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Connecticut	2 years college or College Entrance Board examination	-----	4 years full-time (office only, 6 hours daily, 5 days each week, 40 weeks each year, semi-annual reports). Registration required	3 to 4 years. Registration required as in next column	3 years of full-time or 4 years of part-time sessions. Registration required except for non-residents studying in out-of-state schools	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Delaware	Degree in approved course of approved college, or examination conducted by faculty of the State University, prior to registration. Law school graduates need not register until beginning of supplementary office work, but must begin law study with 2 years college or special admission to law school approved by A. B. A.	-----	3 years (under direction of a local lawyer). Registration required	3 years, including at least six months of office work, which may be interpolated into the law school vacations. Registration required for office work	Not permitted	Oral examination on prescribed textbook, prior to registration, and final examination, conducted by a central board
District of Columbia	None	Equivalent of high school	3 years (office only)	3 years	3 years	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Florida	None	None	No rule	No rule	No rule	Final examination, conducted by a central board, but graduates of the three local law schools take law school examinations only
Georgia	None	None	No rule	No rule	No rule	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Idaho	2 years college or special admission to law school approved by A. B. A. (for those preparing entirely in such schools)	2 years college or equivalent (for applicants preparing outside of law schools approved by A. B. A.)	4 years full-time (office only)	3 to 4 years	3 years, full-time, of daytime or 4 years of evening sessions	Final examination, conducted by the Board of Commissioners of the State Bar
Illinois	2 years college or examination conducted by the State University	-----	4 years (office only, 120 hours of instruction annually)	4 years	3 years	Three intermediate examinations and one final, conducted by a central board, but for study pursued in a law school the final examination only
Indiana	None	None	No rule	No rule	No rule	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Iowa	None	Equivalent of high school	3 years (office only). Registration required	3 years. Registration required for office work	3 years	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Kansas	2 years (or for those examined after June 1, 1928, 3 years) college or equivalent, prior to registration	-----	3 years full-time (office only, 30 hours weekly, 36 weeks each year, semi-annual reports). Registration required	3 to 4 years. Registration required for office work	3 years of daytime or 4 years of evening sessions	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Kentucky	None	Eligibility to take entrance examination of a college requiring for entrance equivalent of high school	Not permitted	No credit for office work	2 years	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Louisiana	None	Equivalent of high school	3 years (under supervision of a local lawyer). Registration required	3 to 4 years. Registration required for office work	3 years; or 4 years if in a four-year school	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Maine	None	Equivalent of high school	3 years full-time (office only)	3 to 4 years	3 years, full-time, of daytime or 4 years of evening sessions	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Maryland	Equivalent of high school, prior to registration	-----	3 years (office only). Registration required	3 years. Registration required of all except students in out-of-state schools	3 years. Registration required of all except students in out-of-state schools	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Massachusetts	None	Equivalent of 2 years evening high school	3 years full-time (under proper direction)	3 to 4 years	3 years, full-time, of daytime or 4 years of evening sessions	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Michigan	2 years college or, in the case of special students in local law schools, equivalent of high school, prior to registration	-----	4 years (office only, 40 hours daily, 5 days each week, 40 weeks each year). Registration required	4 years. Registration required	3 years of full-time or 4 years of part-time sessions. Registration required	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Minnesota	2 years college, or examination conducted by the State University, prior to registration	-----	4 years (office only, 18 hours weekly, 36 weeks each year). Registration required	4 years. Registration required for office work	3 years of daytime or 4 years of evening sessions	Three intermediate examinations and one final, conducted by a central board, but for study pursued in a law school the final examination only
Mississippi	None	Equivalent of high school	No rule	No rule	No rule	Final examination, conducted by a central board, but graduates of the law school maintained by the State University take its examinations only
Missouri	None	Common school education and fair knowledge of civil government, literature, and history	No rule	No rule	No rule	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Montana	2 years college or specified equivalent	-----	Twenty-four months	Twenty-four months	Twenty-four months	Final examination, conducted by a central board, but graduates of the law school maintained by the State University take its examinations only
Nebraska	None	Equivalent of high school	3 years (office only, 20 hours weekly, 40 weeks each year). Registration required	3 years. Registration required of those studying in a local law office or in one of the three local law schools	3 years	Final examination, which in the case of registered students may be supplemented by intermediate examinations, conducted by a central board, but graduates of two of the three local law schools take law school examinations only
Nevada	None	None	No rule	No rule	No rule	Final examination, conducted by a central board
New Hampshire	None	Equivalent of high school	3 years (office only)	3 years	3 years	Final examination, conducted by a central board
New Jersey	2 years college or equivalent approved academic courses	-----	3 years full-time (office only, 6 hours daily, 5 days each week). Registration required	3 years, including at least twelve months of office work which may be interpolated into the law school vacations. Registration required for office work	Not permitted	Final examination, conducted by a central board, for admission as a attorney; after at least three years in local practice, additional examination for admission as counselor
New Mexico	None	Equivalent of high school	3 years (office only, semi-annual reports). Registration required	3 years. Registration required for office work	3 years	Final examination, conducted by a central board
New York	2 years college, or examination conducted by a college authorized for this purpose by the State Department of Education	-----	For college graduates, 4 years full-time (office only). Registration required. For non-college graduates there is a clerkship requirement, the details of which vary	For college graduates, 4 years. Registration required for office work	For college graduates, 3 years in a successfully completed course. For others, the same followed by 1 year in a successfully completed graduate course or, by special permission, as graduate research student or instructor	Final examination, conducted by a central board
North Carolina	None	None	2 years	2 years	2 years	Final examination, conducted by a central board
North Dakota	None	None, but for those examined after July 1, 1928, 2 years college including specified subjects	3 years (office only). Registration required	3 years. Registration required for office work	3 years	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Ohio	2 years college or examination conducted by the Entrance Examiner of the State University, prior to registration	-----	4 years (office only, 200 hours of instruction annually). Registration required	4 years. Registration required of residents	3 years of full-time or 4 years of part-time sessions. Registration required of residents	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Oklahoma	None	Graduation from high school or teacher's certificate	3 years full-time (office only). Registration required	3 to 4 years. Registration required	3 years of full-time or 4 years of part-time sessions. Registration required	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Oregon	None	Indefinite	4 years	4 years	3 years	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Pennsylvania	Non-scientific degree, or scientific degree representing two years of Latin or French and sufficient percentage of cultural subjects, from an approved college; or College Entrance Board examination, largely in prescribed subjects; prior to registration	-----	3 years full-time (office only). Registration required	3 years of full-time or 4 years of part-time sessions, including at least six months of office work, which may be interpolated into the law school vacations, or in the case of applicants with two years of college training, 3 years. Registration required for office work	Not permitted	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Rhode Island	2 years college or equivalent	-----	4 years full-time (office only). Registration required	3 years in and graduation from an approved full-time law school, otherwise 4 years, including at least six months of office work, which may be interpolated into the law school vacations. Registration required for office work	Not permitted	Final examination, conducted by a central board
South Carolina	None	Equivalent of high school	2 years (under direction of a local lawyer)	2 years	2 years	Final examination, conducted by a central board, but graduates of the law school maintained by the State University take its examinations only
South Dakota	None	Equivalent of high school	3 years (office only). Registration required	3 years. Registration required of residents	3 years. Registration required of residents	Final examination, conducted by the law school maintained by the State University
Tennessee	Equivalent of high school	-----	1 year (office only). But for those examined after January 1, 1926, 2 years	1 year	1 year	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Texas	None	Equivalent of high school	2 years. Registration required	2 years. Registration required	2 years. Registration required	Final examination, conducted by a central board, but graduates of 8 local law schools, and of 13 other schools, take law school examinations only
Utah	None	Indefinite	3 years	3 years	3 years	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Vermont	None	Equivalent of high school	4 years, or in the case of applicants with two years of college training, 3 years (office only). Registration required	4 years; or 3 years, including graduation from a three-year law school and at least six months of office work, which may be interpolated into the law school vacations, or in the case of applicants with two years of college training, 3 years. Registration required for office work	3 years	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Virginia	None	None	No rule except as to resident applicants aged 19 to 21 at time of examination (2 years local)	No rule except as to applicants aged 19 to 21 at time of examination (2 years local)	No rule except as to applicants aged 19 to 21 at time of examination (2 years local)	Final examination, conducted by a central board
Washington	2 years college or special admission to law school approved by A. B. A.	-----	4 years (office only, 30 hours weekly, 40 weeks each year, annual reports). Registration required	3 to 4 years law school work, satisfactorily completed but not yielding a degree, followed by 1 year office; or 4 years school and office. Registration required for office work	3 years of full-time or 4 years of part-time sessions, yielding a degree	Final examination, conducted by a central committee
West Virginia	None	2 years college or examination conducted by the Registrar of the State University	Not permitted	No credit for office work	3 years	Final examination, conducted by a central board, but graduates of the law school maintained by the State University take its examinations only
Wisconsin	2 years college or special admission to law school approved by A. B. A. (for law school students)	2 years college or examination conducted by any approved university or college (for office students)	4 years (office only, quarterly reports). Registration required	4 years. Registration required for office work	3 years of full-time or 4 years of part-time sessions	Final examination, conducted by a central board, but graduates of the two local law schools take law school examinations only
Wyoming	2 years college or special admission to law school approved by A. B. A. (for those preparing entirely in a law school)	2 years college or special admission to law school approved by A. B. A. (for those preparing partly in a law school)	Not permitted	3 years school and office, of which at least 1 must be in a school	3 years of full-time or 4 years of part-time sessions	Final examination, conducted by a central board
CANADA						
Alberta	2 years college, prior to registration	-----	6 years, or in the case of college graduates, 3 years (office only). Registration required	3 years local school, followed by 1 year office. Registration required for office work	Not permitted	Two intermediate and two final examinations, conducted jointly by the Law Society and the local university, but graduates of the law school maintained by the local university take its examinations only
British Columbia	Graduation from college, subject to certain exceptions, prior to registration	-----	Not permitted in or near Vancouver; elsewhere 5 years, or in the case of college graduates, 3 years (office only). Registration required	6 years, or in the case of college graduates, 3 years, including 3 years concurrent local school, or 3 years extra-provincial school, interpolated into the office work. Registration required	Not permitted	Two intermediate and separate Solicitor and Barrister examinations, conducted by the Law Society
Manitoba	2 years college supplemented by oral and written examination, prior to registration	-----	Not permitted in or near Winnipeg; elsewhere 4 years, or in the case of college graduates, 4 years (office only). Registration required	5 years, or in the case of college graduates, 4 years, including 4 years concurrent local school and office. Registration required	Not permitted	Three intermediate examinations and one final, conducted by the law school maintained jointly by the Law Society and the local university
New Brunswick	2 years college or examination, prior to registration	-----	4 years, or in the case of college graduates, 3 years (office only). Registration required	3 years concurrent local school and office, or 3 years extra-provincial school with office work interpolated into the law school vacations. Registration required	Not permitted	Two intermediate examinations and one final, conducted by the Barristers' Society, but graduates of the law school maintained by the local university take its examinations only, and graduates of other law schools the final examination only; interval of one year before call to the Bar
New Scotland	2 years college including specified subjects, or examination, prior to registration	-----	4 years, or in the case of college graduates, 4 years (office only). Registration required	3 years school, with office work interpolated into the law school vacations. Registration required	Not permitted	Two intermediate examinations and one final, conducted by the Barristers' Society, but graduates of the law school maintained by the local university take its examinations only, in which the Barristers' Society participates
Ontario	1 year college or equivalent in specified subjects, prior to registration	-----	Not permitted	3 years concurrent local school and office, or 3 years concurrent local school and office, except in the case of college graduates, by 2 years office. Registration required	Not permitted	Two intermediate examinations and one final, conducted by the law school maintained by the Law Society
Prince Edward Island	Graduation from college, or examination equivalent to 2 years college including specified subjects, prior to registration	-----	5 years, or in the case of college graduates, 4 years (office only). Registration required	5 years, or in the case of college graduates, 4 years, with office work during non-attendance at law school and during entire final year. Registration required	Not permitted	Two intermediate examinations and one final, conducted by the Law Society, but in any subject the corresponding examination of any one of 3 Canadian law schools may be substituted; unless a certain standard of excellence is displayed, interval of one year before call to the Bar
Quebec: Notaries	Complete course of classical and scientific studies, prior to registration	-----	5 years (office only). Registration required	3 years concurrent local school and office, or 4 years office including 2 years concurrent local school. Registration required	Not permitted	One final examination, conducted by the Chamber of Notaries
Bar	College degree, or examination under authority of the Bar, prior to registration	-----	4 years (office only). Registration required	3 years concurrent local school and office, or 3 years local school followed by 1 year office. Registration required for office work	Not permitted	One final examination, conducted by the Bar
Saskatchewan	2 years college, prior to registration	-----	Not permitted	3 years school, followed by 2 years, or in the case of college graduates by 1 year, office. Registration required for office work	Not permitted	One final examination in statutes and court procedure, conducted jointly by the Law Society and the university maintaining the local law school
NEWFOUNDLAND	1 year college, prior to registration	-----	5 years, or in the case of college graduates, 3 years, including 3 years law school interpolated into the office work. Registration required	4 years, or in the case of college graduates, 3 years, including 3 years law school interpolated into the office work. Registration required	Not permitted	Four intermediate examinations and one final, conducted by the Law Society

III. COMPARATIVE REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO LEGAL PRACTICE IN THE UNITED STATES, CANADA, AND NEWFOUNDLAND

The salient features of the sixty state or provincial bar admission systems of the United States and Canada are exhibited on the inserted sheet. The rules are those in force at the beginning of the current academic year, for applicants beginning to study law then or later; in several instances, applicants who have already begun their law studies are admitted under earlier rules. The table is confined to educational requirements affecting those first admitted to practice. It does not include provisions designed to test moral character, nor special rules affecting war veterans or attorneys already admitted to practice in another jurisdiction.

For convenience of reference, the corresponding recommendations of the American Bar Association are shown in summary form. The table makes clear that no state has followed these recommendations as a whole. If a much less rigorous test be applied, it will be found that seventeen states are more advanced than the rest, in that

BAR ADMISSION SYSTEMS OF A TECHNICALLY ADVANCED TYPE

Arizona ¹	Kansas	Montana	Pennsylvania
Colorado	Maryland ¹	New Jersey	Rhode Island
Connecticut	Michigan	New York	Tennessee ¹
Delaware	Minnesota	Ohio	Washington State
Illinois			

at least they require all applicants to have secured a specified amount of general education, however small, and, following this, to study law during some definitely prescribed period, long or short.

Twenty jurisdictions resemble the above group in demanding both a specific amount of general education and a definite period of law study, before the bar examination. They do not insist, however, in all cases, that the general education be

BAR ADMISSION SYSTEMS OF A TECHNICALLY INTERMEDIATE TYPE

California	Louisiana	New Mexico	Texas
District of Columbia	Maine	Oklahoma	Vermont
Idaho	Massachusetts	Oregon	West Virginia
Iowa	Nebraska	South Carolina	Wisconsin
Kentucky	New Hampshire	South Dakota	Wyoming

secured before the period of law study begins. This technical defect in the rules encourages the diversion of time, that is really needed for legal study, to concurrent "cram work," that is a most inadequate substitute for a sound preliminary education.

Finally, the remaining twelve states have systems of a still more primitive type, in that reliance is placed solely upon the bar examination to test, in some cases general education, in other cases legal attainments, often both. This failure to winnow out the

¹ These three states have the lowest requirements, of this group, as to general education (equivalent of high school). In addition, Tennessee requires law study during only one year, or for those examined after Jan. 1, 1935, two years.

BAR ADMISSION SYSTEMS OF A TECHNICALLY PRIMITIVE TYPE

Alabama	Georgia	Missouri	North Dakota ¹
Arkansas	Indiana	Nevada	Utah
Florida	Mississippi	North Carolina	Virginia

applicants before they come up for examination not only adds needlessly to the bar examiners' labors, but also exaggerates the possible efficacy of any unsupported examination.

LAW SCHOOLS

I. RECENT CHANGES

SINCE last year, two full-time schools have been closed,² and one has been opened,³ reducing the total number of such institutions to 83. The Catholic University of America now requires candidates for the degree to have completed three years of college prior to admission, and the Dickinson School of Law requires a third college year prior to the conferring of the degree; the number of full-time law schools that require, after the high school, in college and law school work combined, a total of more than five "academic years" is thereby increased to 29. The Indiana Law School of Indianapolis (three-year law course) and three schools situated in Tennessee (one-year law course) are the only full-time institutions that require less than five academic years after the high school.

Of degree-conferring schools that do not offer exclusively full-time work, four have suspended operations,⁴ while eight have been newly opened,⁵ and two have recently begun to announce the law degree.⁶ The total number of such law schools that offer part-time work has been increased, accordingly, from 101 to 107; this figure includes, however, five schools that no longer accept new students⁷ and probably several others that are in a precarious condition. The number that announce, in addition, morning divisions is 23. The San Francisco Law School and the Kansas City School of Law and, among new schools, the Miami College of Law have begun to require two college years for admission in the case of regular students, candidates for the degree.

¹ Legislation taking North Dakota out of this group goes into force July 1, 1936.

² The College of St. Thomas, The School of Law, St. Paul, Minnesota; Keystone College of Technology, School of Law (*colored*), Memphis, Tennessee.

³ The Midsouth College of Law, Paris, Tennessee.

⁴ Lincoln College of Law, Bakersfield, California; the Providence (Rhode Island) Y. M. C. A. Division of Northeastern University School of Law; Southeastern University School of Law, Memphis, Tennessee; and Jefferson University School of Law, Fort Worth, Texas.

⁵ Miami College of Law, Miami, Florida (four-year evening course); Woodrow Wilson College of Law, Atlanta, Georgia (two-year afternoon and two-year evening course may be covered in one year); Winder Law School, Winder, Georgia (two-year day and two-year evening course); Lincoln College of Indiana, Department of Law, Indianapolis, Indiana (evening course covering two years of eleven months each); South Bend University Law School, South Bend, Indiana (three-year evening course); Kent College of Law, Nashville, Tennessee (three-year evening course); North Texas School of Law, Fort Worth, Texas (three-year evening course); Houston Law School, branch at Huntsville, Texas (equivalent of three-year evening course), opened 1932, admitting no new students 1933.

⁶ Jones Law School, Montgomery, Alabama (three-year evening course), opened 1928, announced degree 1933; Balboa Law College, San Diego, California (four-year evening course may be covered in three years), opened 1926, announced degree 1933.

⁷ New York Law School; Xavier University, Law Department; University of Dayton, College of Law; Rio Grande Valley School of Law, Brownsville Branch; Houston Law School, Huntsville Branch.

II. CURRENT LIST OF RESIDENTIAL LAW SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA

The following list of law schools is not a selective list of "recognized" institutions. It covers every degree-conferring law school in the United States and Canada (other than correspondence schools) which gives the Foundation information as to important features of its work. The form in which the material is presented differs only slightly from that previously used in this *Annual Review*, beginning with the issue for 1920. Canadian schools were first included in 1925, tuition fees in 1927, and autumn attendance figures in 1928. In that year, the law schools were also for the first time divided so as to occupy parallel positions on opposite pages.

In the explanatory matter that appears at the head of the list, attention is particularly directed to the limited significance of the roman numerals denoting the number of college years that are required, *prima facie*, for admission. This information may be most misleading if it is not clearly understood to represent merely the major differences between law schools in this respect, and to be subject to many qualifications in detail, as regards any particular institution.

The left-hand pages list, for each state or Canadian province, schools that offer exclusively "full-time" work—the purely "M" schools, in the language of the technical symbols. At the beginning of the current academic year there were 83 such law schools in the United States, of which all but three require, for their first law degree, residence during at least three "academic years," or their assumed equivalent, after admission, and all but four have in addition at least a nominal entrance requirement of two college years or more. The appended symbols show that 73 of these law schools, or 88 per cent of the whole group, have been certified by the Council on Legal Education as complying with the standards of the American Bar Association in this and in other respects; and that 69 (83 per cent) are, in addition to this, members of the Association of American Law Schools.

The right-hand pages list, in a similar way, law schools that schedule classroom work at hours, usually in the evening or in the late afternoon, that are specially convenient for most self-supporting students. The total number of such schools that confer a law degree is 107, including 8 that have law courses covering less than three academic years, and 23 that maintain separate divisions for full-time students. Of these schools, only 11 (invariably of the "mixed" type) have been certified by the Council on Legal Education, and only 7 are members of the Association of American Law Schools.

A few of the longer-established part-time law schools that do not possess power to confer degrees are also shown on these right-hand pages, but are not included in the subsequent comparative tables. Owing to the difficulty of drawing an objective line between a "law school" and a fleeting "law class" conducted by one or more attorneys, no attempt has been made to construct a comprehensive list of such institutions. Of these schools, 1 (part-time) has been certified by the Council on Legal Education.

Explanation of Symbols

The symbols attached to each school measure roughly the extent of its *prima-facie* compliance with three standards, affecting the amount of time devoted by students to their work, that have been formulated by the American Bar Association.

The roman numerals show the minimum number of college years, or their alleged equivalent, that are required for admission to regular standing as candidate for a degree, without close inquiry as to what is accepted as "college work," and without regard to the important complications produced by the admission of special students, etc., or of regular students with entrance conditions. An asterisk means that a college degree is required for admission; in the case of the two French-speaking Canadian schools, this symbol is included in parentheses to indicate that an examination may be substituted.

The letter M (morning, including early afternoon) denotes that classroom sessions preëempt the best working hours of the day, and that therefore students are, or may be, required to devote to their studies all of their time not needed for necessary recreation; while the letters A (late afternoon, early morning, or a very few weekly daytime hours), E (evening), and AE (sessions beginning in the late afternoon and continuing into the evening) denote that instruction is conducted at other hours, more generally convenient for self-supporting students. C denotes that, under the rules of a Canadian Law Society, an office clerkship must be served concurrently.

The arabic numerals show the minimum number of "academic years," of approximately nine months each, that are required to complete the law course after admission. (Parentheses) indicate that the calendar interval between admission and graduation may be reduced by attendance at the local summer session.

FULL-TIME LAW SCHOOLS, 1933-34

UNITED STATES

ALABAMA

Tuscaloosa	University of Alabama, School of Law	IIM(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$136.50; Degree, \$15</i>	c, 1926
	<i>Autumn attendance: 248</i>	s, 1928

ARIZONA

Tucson	University of Arizona, College of Law	IIM(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$35 for residents, \$185 for non-residents; Degree, \$5</i>	c, 1930
	<i>Autumn attendance: 120</i>	s, 1931

ARKANSAS

Fayetteville	University of Arkansas, School of Law	IIM(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$95 for residents, \$125 for non-residents; Degree, \$10</i>	c, 1926
	<i>Autumn attendance: 106</i>	s, 1927

When separate divisions are conducted at different hours of the day, the requirements for each are stated in full, separated by commas. In all cases the symbols denote the requirements in force for those who entered the regular first-year class at the beginning of the autumn term of 1933. Courses recently abandoned as a matter of policy, but continued temporarily for the benefit of students already enrolled, are not noted. Announcements of subsequent changes are occasionally mentioned in footnotes. When no degree is conferred at the completion of the course, the set of symbols is enclosed in [brackets].

Schools members of the Association of American Law Schools at the conclusion of its annual meeting held in December, 1933, are marked (s); schools certified by the Council on Legal Education as complying with the standards of the American Bar Association at, or immediately after, the same meeting, are marked (c). The dates show when either relationship began.

Fees

The information as to fees combines, under a single head, all charges that must be paid annually by students taking the full course; when each subject or credit-hour is charged separately, the total payments needed to secure the required number of credits have been averaged. Matriculation and Degree fees are additional payments made only once, at entrance and at graduation.

Attendance Figures

Except as otherwise stated, the figures refer to the autumn of the current year. Owing to the considerable number of failures to supply information promptly, the subsequent comparative tables for the United States lag in this respect a year behind the other data.

PART-TIME AND "MIXED" LAW SCHOOLS, 1933-34

UNITED STATES

ALABAMA

Birmingham	Y. M. C. A., Birmingham School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$102; Degree, \$7.50</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 126</i>	E4
Montgomery	Jones Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$120; Matriculation, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 90</i>	E3

ARKANSAS

Little Rock	Arkansas Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$155; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1932 (75)</i>	E2
-------------	--	----

FULL-TIME LAW SCHOOLS, 1933-34

CALIFORNIA

Berkeley	University of California, School of Jurisprudence <i>Fees: Annual, \$102 for residents, \$227 for non-residents</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 292</i>	*IIM3 s, 1912 c, 1923
Los Angeles	University of Southern California, The School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$300; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 345</i>	IIM(3) s, 1907 c, 1924
Palo Alto	Stanford University, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$357; Application, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 174</i>	* IIM(3) or ¹ IIM(4) s, 1901 c, 1923
San Francisco	University of California, Hastings College of the Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$100</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 279</i>	IIM3
Santa Clara	University of Santa Clara, College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$280; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 22</i>	IIM3

¹ For students taking an approved combined course in this or another University.

CALIFORNIA

Long Beach	Southwestern University, School of Law, Long Beach Branch <i>Fees: Annual, \$210 for Day students, \$160 for Evening students; Degree, \$15</i> <i>Autumn attendance: Day, 30; Evening, 49; Total, 79</i>	M(3), E(4)
Los Angeles	American University, College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$187.50 for Day students, \$115.50 for Evening students</i> <i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1932 (Day, 15; Evening, 48; Total, 63)</i>	M3, E4
	California Associated Colleges, College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$204 for Day students, \$148 for Evening students</i> <i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1931 (Evening, 60)</i>	¹ A(3), E(4)
	Loyola University, College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$265 for Day students, \$215 for Evening students; Ma-</i> <i>triculation, \$5; Degree, \$15</i> <i>Autumn attendance: Day, 53; Evening, 84; Total, 137</i>	IIM(3), IIE(4)
	Metropolitan University, Law College <i>Fees: Annual, \$145 for Day students, \$106 for Evening students; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1932 (69)</i>	¹ A(3), E(4)
	Pacific Coast University, College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$175; Degree, \$20</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 45</i>	E4
	Southwestern University, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$210 for Day students, \$160 for Evening students; Degree, \$15</i> <i>Autumn attendance: Day, 156; Evening, 207; Total, 363</i>	M(3), E(4)
	University of the West, Los Angeles College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$196.67 for Day students, \$150 for Evening students; De-</i> <i>gree, \$25</i> <i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1932 (Day, 78; Evening, 138; Total, 216)</i>	¹ A(3), E(4)
Oakland	The Oakland College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$135; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 60</i>	E4
Sacramento	McGeorge College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$125; Degree, \$15</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 50</i>	E4
San Diego	Balboa Law College <i>Fees: Annual, \$81³</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 65</i>	E3 ²
San Francisco	Lincoln University, The Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$200 for Day students, \$150 for Evening students; Ma-</i> <i>triculation, \$10; Degree, \$15</i> <i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1927</i>	¹ A(3), E(4)
	University of San Francisco, The Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$160; Matriculation, \$2</i> <i>Autumn attendance: Day, 47; Evening, 136; Total, 183</i>	*IIM3, IIE4
	San Francisco Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$178.50; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 127</i>	IIE4
	Y. M. C. A., Golden Gate College, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$140</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 91</i>	⁴ IE4 ¹

¹ Provisionally listed as having part-time day division. Schedule of classroom hours not received.² A four-year course may be completed, under certain conditions, in three years.³ To be increased to \$100 for students registering after January 1, 1934.⁴ Applicants under 23 years of age must have two years of college.

FULL-TIME LAW SCHOOLS, 1933-34

COLORADO

Boulder	University of Colorado, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$117 for residents, \$165 for non-residents; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 78</i>	IIM(3) s, 1901 c, 1923
Denver	University of Denver, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$198; Degree, \$12</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 64</i>	IIM3 s, 1901-21; 1929 c, 1928

CONNECTICUT

New Haven	Yale University, The School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$460; Degree, \$20</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 338</i>	*IIM3 s, 1900 c, 1923
-----------	---	-----------------------------

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Washington	The Catholic University of America, The School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$375 for students residing on the campus, \$360 for Day students; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 64</i>	¹ IIM3 s, 1921 c, 1925
	Howard University, School of Law (<i>colored</i>) <i>Fees: Annual, \$134.50; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$7</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 37</i>	IIM3 s, 1931 c, 1931

FLORIDA

DeLand	John B. Stetson University, College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$230; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 41</i>	IIM3 c, 1930 s, 1931
Gainesville	University of Florida, College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$55 for residents, \$255 for non-residents; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 224</i>	IIM(3) s, 1920 c, 1924
Miami	University of Miami, The School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$225; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 26</i>	IIM(3)

GEORGIA

Athens	The University of Georgia, Lumpkin Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$162 for residents, \$262 for non-residents</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 69</i>	IIM3 c, 1929 s, 1931
Atlanta	Emory University, The Lamar School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$225; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 62</i>	² IIM(3) s, 1920 c, 1923
Macon	Mercer University, Law School (Mercer Law School) <i>Fees: Annual, \$228</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 32</i>	IIM(3) s, 1923 c, 1925

IDAHO

Moscow	The University of Idaho, The College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$36 for residents, \$96 for non-residents; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 49</i>	IIM3 s, 1914 c, 1925
--------	---	----------------------------

¹ Beginning September, 1934, a college degree will be required.² Beginning September, 1934, three years of college will be required.

COLORADO

Denver	Westminster Law School	IIE3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$145; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$15</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 75</i>	

CONNECTICUT

Hartford	The Hartford College of Law	[IIE4]
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$160</i>	c, 1933
	<i>Autumn attendance: 73</i>	

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Washington	Georgetown University, School of Law	IIM3, IIA4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$305 for Morning students, \$205 for Afternoon students; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$15</i>	s, 1902-07; 1925
	<i>Autumn attendance: Morning, 201; Afternoon, 273; Total, 474</i>	c, 1925
	The George Washington University, The Law School	IIM(3), IIA(4)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$229.33 for Morning students, \$176 for Afternoon students; Degree, \$20</i>	s, 1900
	<i>Autumn attendance: Morning, 192; Afternoon, 546; Total, 738</i>	c, 1925
	K. of C., Columbus University, School of Law	E3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$110; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$10</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 465</i>	
	National University Law School	E(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$166.50 for LL.B. or B.C.L., \$198 for J.D.; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$15</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 712</i>	
	Washington College of Law	M(3), A(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$123; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$15</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: Morning, 55; Afternoon, 236; Total, 291</i>	
	Y. M. C. A., Southeastern University, School of Law	M(3), AE(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$103 for first year, \$123 for each upper year; Degree, \$15</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1932 (286)</i>	

FLORIDA

Miami	Miami College of Law	IIE4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$80; Matriculation, \$2; Degree, \$10</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 15</i>	

GEORGIA

Athens	Southern Law School	A2, E2
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$150</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance not reported since school was opened</i>	
Atlanta	The Atlanta Law School	E2 ¹
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$152.50; Degree, \$15</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1926</i>	
	Woodrow Wilson College of Law	A1 ² , E1 ²
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$220; Degree, \$5</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 45</i>	
Winder	Winder Law School	A2, E2
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$125</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance not reported</i>	

¹ A three-year course, with annual charges of \$102.50, may be completed in two years. The school offers, in addition, a one-year evening course preparing only for the bar examination.

² A two-year course, with annual charges of \$110, may be completed in one year.

FULL-TIME LAW SCHOOLS, 1933-34

ILLINOIS

Chicago	Northwestern University, School of Law	* IIM(3) or IIM(4)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$408; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$20</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 301</i>	s, 1900 c, 1923
	The University of Chicago, The Law School	IIM(3) or IIM(4) ¹
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$375; Matriculation, \$20; Degree, \$20</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 340</i>	s, 1902 c, 1923

Urbana	University of Illinois, College of Law	² IIM3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$100 for residents, \$150 for non-residents; Matriculation, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 280</i>	s, 1900 c, 1923

INDIANA

Bloomington	Indiana University, School of Law	IIM(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$92 for residents, \$127 for non-residents; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 211</i>	s, 1900 c, 1923
Indianapolis	University of Indianapolis, Butler University, Indiana Law School	M3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$150; Degree, \$15</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 134</i>	
Notre Dame	The University of Notre Dame, The College of Law	IIM(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$250; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 110</i>	s, 1924 c, 1925
Valparaiso	Valparaiso University, The School of Law	IIM3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$200; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 43</i>	c, 1929 s, 1930

IOWA

Des Moines	Drake University, The Law School	IIM(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$266; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 90</i>	s, 1900 c, 1923
Iowa City	The State University of Iowa, College of Law	³ IIM(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$128 for residents, \$168 for non-residents; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$15</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 220</i>	s, 1901 c, 1923

KANSAS

Lawrence	The University of Kansas, School of Law	⁴ IIM(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$66 for residents, \$86 for non-residents; Matriculation, \$10 for residents, \$15 for non-residents; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 131</i>	s, 1901 c, 1923
Topeka	Washburn College, School of Law	IIM3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$198.50; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 143</i>	s, 1905 c, 1923

¹ The work of the first law school year is non-professional, partly prescribed.² College degree required except for students taking the combined course in this University.³ College degree required except for students taking an approved combined course in this or another University.⁴ After November 1, 1933, IIM3 or IIM4.

ILLINOIS		
Chicago	Chicago-Kent College of Law	IIA(3), IIE(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$156; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$15</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 612</i>	
	Chicago Law School	IIA(3), IIE(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$130; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$10</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1931 (160)</i>	
	De Paul University, College of Law (Illinois College of Law)	IIM(3), IIE4 s, 1902-06; 1924 c, 1925
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$240 for Day students, \$175 for Evening students; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$10</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: Morning, 417; Evening, 233; Total, 650</i>	
	The John Marshall Law School	IIE3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$140; Degree, \$10</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1932 (438)</i>	
	Loyola University, School of Law	IIM(3), IIE(4) s, 1924 c, 1925
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$240 for Day students, \$180 for Evening students; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$15</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: Morning, 139; Evening, 153; Total, 292</i>	
Springfield	The Lincoln College of Law	IIE4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$120; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$10</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 49</i>	
INDIANA		
Indianapolis	Benjamin Harrison Law School	E3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$90; Degree, \$10</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 264</i>	
	Lincoln College of Indiana, Department of Law	E3 ¹
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$112.50; Matriculation, \$1; Degree, \$10</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 31</i>	
South Bend	South Bend University Law School	E3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$150; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$20</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 14</i>	
IOWA		
Des Moines	Des Moines College of Law	[E4]
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$130; Matriculation, \$2</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1932 (30)</i>	

¹ Two-year course covering two years of eleven months each, credited as equivalent to three academic years.

FULL-TIME LAW SCHOOLS, 1933-34

KENTUCKY

Lexington	University of Kentucky, College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$100 for residents, \$126 for non-residents; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 106</i>	IIM(3) s, 1912 c, 1925
Louisville	University of Louisville, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$159; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 44</i>	IIM3 c, 1931 s, 1933

LOUISIANA

Baton Rouge	Louisiana State University, The Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$100 for residents of Louisiana, \$220 for other citizens of the United States, \$250 for others; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 114</i>	IIM3 s, 1924 c, 1926
New Orleans	Tulane University of Louisiana, College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$230 for residents, \$235 for non-residents; Degree, \$16</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 109</i>	IIM3 s, 1909 c, 1925

MASSACHUSETTS

Boston	Boston University, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$265; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 454</i>	IIM3 s, 1900-08; 1916 c, 1925
--------	---	-------------------------------------

Cambridge	Harvard University, The Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$410</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 1,462</i>	*IIM3 s, 1900 c, 1923
-----------	---	-----------------------------

KENTUCKY		
Louisville	Jefferson School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$125; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 159</i>	E2
	The Central Law School (<i>colored</i>) <i>Fees: Annual, \$80; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1932 (15)</i>	A3
LOUISIANA		
New Orleans	Loyola University, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$170; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$25</i> <i>Autumn attendance: Day, 42; Evening, 42; Total, 84</i>	IIM3, IIE4 c, 1931
MAINE		
Portland	Peabody Law Classes <i>Fees: Annual, \$150</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 49</i>	[M3]
MARYLAND		
Baltimore	University of Baltimore, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$177; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 380</i>	E3
	The University of Maryland, The School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$202 for resident Day or \$152 for resident Evening students, \$252 for non-resident Day or \$202 for non-resident Evening students; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$15</i> <i>Autumn attendance: Morning, 97; Evening, 98; Total, 195</i>	IIM3, IIE4 c, 1929 s, 1930
MASSACHUSETTS		
Boston	Boston College, The Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$210 for Day students, \$160 for Evening students; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$15</i> <i>Autumn attendance: Morning, 106; Evening, 152; Total, 258</i>	IIM3, IIE4 c, 1932
	Northeastern University, School of Law, Boston Y. M. C. A. <i>Fees: Annual, \$155; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 760</i>	E4
	Portia Law School (<i>for women</i>) <i>Fees: Annual, \$150; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 278</i>	A4, E4
	Suffolk Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$140; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 692</i>	A4, E4
Springfield	Northeastern University, School of Law, Springfield Y. M. C. A. Division <i>Fees: Annual, \$155; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 103</i>	E5
Worcester	Northeastern University, School of Law, Worcester Y. M. C. A. Division <i>Fees: Annual, \$155; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 105</i>	E4 ¹

¹ A five-year course may be completed, under certain conditions, in four years.

FULL-TIME LAW SCHOOLS, 1933-34

MICHIGAN

Ann Arbor	University of Michigan, Law School	¹ IIM(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$123 for resident men, \$128 for resident women; \$143 for non-resident men, \$148 for non-resident women; Matriculation, \$10 for residents, \$25 for non-residents; Degree, \$10</i>	s, 1900 c, 1923
	<i>Autumn attendance: 508</i>	

MINNESOTA

Minneapolis	University of Minnesota, The Law School	IIM3 or IIM4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$138 for residents, \$168 for non-residents; Degree, \$10</i>	s, 1900 c, 1923
	<i>Autumn attendance: 294</i>	

MISSISSIPPI

Oxford	University of Mississippi, School of Law	IIM(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$132 for residents, \$182 for non-residents; Degree, \$5</i>	c, 1929
	<i>Autumn attendance: 95</i>	s, 1929-30; 1932

MISSOURI

Columbia	The University of Missouri, School of Law	² IIM3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$100 for residents, \$150 for non-residents; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$5</i>	s, 1900 c, 1923
	<i>Autumn attendance: 194</i>	
St. Louis	St. Louis University, The School of Law	IIM3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$250; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$10</i>	s, 1924 c, 1925
	<i>Autumn attendance: 96</i>	
	Washington University, The School of Law	IIM3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$262; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$3</i>	s, 1900 c, 1923
	<i>Autumn attendance: 144</i>	

MONTANA

Missoula	University of Montana, The School of Law	IIM(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$87 for residents, \$162 for non-residents; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$5</i>	s, 1914 c, 1923
	<i>Autumn attendance: 68</i>	

NEBRASKA

Lincoln	The University of Nebraska, College of Law	IIM3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$110 for first year, approximately \$102 for each upper year, and for non-residents, \$50 additional, or more, according to the amount charged Nebraska students by their own State University; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$5</i>	s, 1905 c, 1923
	<i>Autumn attendance: 179</i>	
Omaha	The Creighton University, School of Law	IIM3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$200; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$15</i>	s, 1907 c, 1924
	<i>Autumn attendance: 147</i>	

¹ College degree required except for students taking the combined course in this University.

² Beginning September, 1935, three years of college will be required.

PART-TIME AND "MIXED" LAW SCHOOLS, 1933-34

47

MICHIGAN

Detroit	Colleges of the City of Detroit, Law School	IIE4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$112.50 for residents, \$152.50 for non-residents; Degree, \$10</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 187</i>	
	University of Detroit, School of Law	IIM(3), IIA(4) c, 1933
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$215 for Morning students, \$165 for Afternoon students; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$10</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: Morning, 132; Afternoon, 54; Total, 186</i>	
	Y. M. C. A., Detroit College of Law	IIA4, IIE4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$115; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$17.50</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 489</i>	

MINNESOTA

Minneapolis	The Minneapolis College of Law	IIE4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$100; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$10</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 115</i>	
	Minnesota College of Law	IIE4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$100; Degree, \$5</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 120</i>	
	Minneapolis YMCA Schools, College of Law	IIE4
	<i>Fees: \$360 for the four years; Degree, \$5</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 42</i>	
St. Paul	St. Paul College of Law	IIE4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$125; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$10</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 115</i>	

MISSISSIPPI

Jackson	Jackson School of Law	E2 ¹
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$117.50</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 32</i>	

MISSOURI

Kansas City	The Kansas City School of Law	IIAE4, IIE4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$160; Degree, \$10</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 530</i>	
St. Joseph	Y. M. C. A., Saint Joseph Law School	E4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$60; Degree, \$10</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 54</i>	
St. Louis	Benton College of Law	E4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$170; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$12</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1927</i>	
	City College of Law and Finance, School of Professional Law	E4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$125 for first three years, \$150 for fourth year</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1932 (249)</i>	
	Missouri Institute of Accountancy and Law, Law Department	E5 ²
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$135 for first three years, \$150 for last two; Degree, \$15</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1932 (91)</i>	

NEBRASKA

Omaha	The University of Omaha Law School	E4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$100; Degree, \$10</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 165</i>	

¹ To complete the course, one summer session is required in addition to two academic years.² The first three years include work in accounting, economics, and English.

NEW YORK

Albany	Union University, Department of Law (Albany Law School) <i>Fees: Annual, \$310; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 201</i>	IIM3 c. 1930
Buffalo	The University of Buffalo, The School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$272; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 171</i>	IIM3
Ithaca	Cornell University, The Cornell Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$426 for men, \$422 for women; Matriculation, \$11; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 185</i>	¹ IIM3 s. 1900 c. 1923
New York City	Columbia University, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$400; Entrance examinations, \$10; Degree, \$20</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 641</i>	IIM(3) s. 1900 c. 1923

Syracuse	Syracuse University, College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$335; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$13</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 124</i>	IIM3 s. 1900 c. 1923
----------	--	----------------------------

NORTH CAROLINA

Chapel Hill	The University of North Carolina, The School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$157.50 for residents, \$257.50 for non-residents</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 124</i>	² IIM(3) s. 1920 c. 1925
Durham	Duke University, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$265; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 90</i>	IIM3 s. 1930 c. 1931
Wake Forest	Wake Forest College, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$185; Degree, \$7</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 67</i>	IIM3

¹ College degree required except for students taking the combined course in this University.

² Three years of college required except for students who entered this University prior to January 1, 1932.

NEW JERSEY

Camden	South Jersey Law School	IIE4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$160; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$15</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 124</i>	
Jersey City	John Marshall College of Law	IIA3, IIE3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$220; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$15</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance not reported since school was opened</i>	
Newark	The Mercer Beasley School of Law	IIA3, IIE3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$205; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$15</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 210</i>	
	New Jersey Law School	IIM3, IIA3, IIE3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$206; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$15</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: Morning, 253; Afternoon, 126; Evening, 205;</i>	
	<i>Total, 584</i>	

NEW YORK

New York City	St. Lawrence University, The Brooklyn Law School	IIM(3), IIA(3), IIE(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$181; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$15</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: Morning, 305; Afternoon, 89; Evening, 985; Total, 1,379</i>	
	Fordham University, School of Law	IIM3 ¹ , IIE3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$210; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$20</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: Morning, 309; Afternoon, 149; Evening, 608; Total, 1,066</i>	
	New York Law School ²	IIA3, IIE3
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$180; Examinations for Degree, \$30</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: Afternoon, 37; Evening, 61; Total, 98</i>	
	New York University, School of Law	IIM3 ¹ , IIE4
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$246.50 for Full-time students, \$206.50 for Part-time students; Degree, \$20</i>	c, 1930 s, 1932
	<i>Autumn attendance: Morning, 719; Afternoon, 134; Evening, 397; Total, 1,250</i>	
	St. John's University, School of Law	IIM(3), IIA(3), IIE(3)
	<i>Fees: Annual, \$180; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$15</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: Morning, 550; Afternoon, 190; Evening, 1,436; Total, 2,176</i>	

NORTH CAROLINA

Wilmington	Wilmington Law School	E3
	<i>Fees: Monthly, \$12; Degree, \$5</i>	
	<i>Autumn attendance: 14</i>	

¹ In addition to an evening division, separate divisions meet respectively in the morning and in the early afternoon.

² Beginning 1932, no first-year students admitted.

FULL-TIME LAW SCHOOLS, 1933-34

NORTH DAKOTA

Grand Forks	University of North Dakota, The School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$80 for residents, \$120 for non-residents; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 77</i>	IIM3 s, 1910 c, 1923
-------------	--	----------------------------

OHIO

Ada	Ohio Northern University, College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$195; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 62</i>	IIM(3)
-----	--	--------

Cincinnati	University of Cincinnati, College of Law (Cincinnati Law School) <i>Fees: Annual, \$200 for college graduates, \$210 for others, plus a health fee of \$10 for non-residents of Cincinnati or \$1 for local students; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 182</i>	IIM3 s, 1900 c, 1923
------------	--	----------------------------

Cleveland	Western Reserve University, The Franklin Thomas Backus Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$315; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 221</i>	¹ IIM3 s, 1900 c, 1923
-----------	---	---

Columbus	The Ohio State University, College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$114 for residents, \$264 for non-residents; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 234</i>	IIM3 s, 1901 c, 1923
----------	---	----------------------------

OKLAHOMA

Norman	The University of Oklahoma, The School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$16 for residents, \$66 for non-residents; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 309</i>	IIM3 s, 1911 c, 1923
--------	---	----------------------------

OREGON

Eugene	The University of Oregon, School of Law <i>Fees: \$96 for residents, \$246 for non-residents; Degree, \$6.50</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 107</i>	IIM(3) s, 1919 c, 1923
--------	--	------------------------------

¹ College degree required except for students taking the combined course in this University.

OHIO

Akron	Akron Law School (affiliated with the Cleveland Law School) <i>Fees: Annual, \$143.50; Matriculation, \$10; Registration, \$1; Degree, \$10; Graduation, \$25</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 116</i>	IIE(4)
Canton	The William McKinley School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$100; Matriculation, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 45</i>	[IIE4]
Cincinnati	Xavier University, Law Courses ¹ <i>Fees: Annual, \$125</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 17</i> The Cincinnati YMCA Schools, The YMCA Night Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$132; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 171</i>	[IIE4] IIE4
Cleveland	The Cleveland Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$125; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 185</i> The John Marshall School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$122.50; Registration, \$1; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1930 (153)</i>	IIE4 IIE4
Columbus	Y. M. C. A., Franklin University, The Columbus College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$152; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 121</i>	IIE4
Dayton	University of Dayton, College of Law ² <i>Fees: Annual, \$195 for three-year students, \$135 for four-year students; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$15</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 55</i>	IIA3, IIE4
Toledo	The University of the City of Toledo, Law Department <i>Fees: Annual, \$9, plus \$7 for each year-hour for residents, or \$10 for non-residents; Matriculation, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 86</i>	[IIE4]
Youngstown	Y. M. C. A., Youngstown College, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$160; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 30</i>	IIE5 ³

OKLAHOMA

Oklahoma City	The Oklahoma City School of Law <i>Fees: Monthly, \$7.50; Matriculation, \$2.50; Graduation fee</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 94</i>	[E4]
Tulsa	Tulsa Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$160; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 85</i>	IIE4

OREGON

Portland	Northwestern College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$110; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1932 (262)</i>	E4
Salem	Willamette University, College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$154; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 81</i>	IIA3

¹ Closing when present students complete the course. Senior class only, 1933-34.² Beginning 1933-34, no new students admitted.³ Five-year course covering five calendar years.

FULL-TIME LAW SCHOOLS, 1933-34

PENNSYLVANIA

Carlisle	Dickinson College, The Dickinson School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$250; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 157</i>	¹ IIM3 c, 1931
Philadelphia	University of Pennsylvania, The Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$410; Matriculation, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 416</i>	*IIM3 s, 1900 c, 1923

Pittsburgh	University of Pittsburgh, The School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$300; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 289</i>	*IIM3 ² s, 1900 c, 1923
------------	--	--

SOUTH CAROLINA

Columbia	University of South Carolina, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$135 for residents, \$235 for non-residents; Degree, \$4</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 95</i>	IIM3 s, 1924 c, 1925
----------	---	----------------------------

SOUTH DAKOTA

Vermillion	University of South Dakota, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$120 for residents, \$170 for non-residents; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1932 (67)</i>	IIM3 s, 1907 c, 1923
------------	--	----------------------------

TENNESSEE

Knoxville	The University of Tennessee, College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$146; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 72</i>	IIM(3) s, 1900-06; 1912 c, 1925
Lebanon	Cumberland University, Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$245 for first year, \$240 for second year; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 299</i>	M1
	Lebanon College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$160; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 19</i>	M1

Nashville	Vanderbilt University, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$233; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 61</i>	IIM(3) s, 1910-26; 1929 c, 1925
Paris	Midsouth College of Law ³ <i>Fees: Annual, \$145; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 26</i>	M1

¹ College work beyond the second year may be taken concurrently with law work.² Separate divisions meet respectively in the morning and in the early afternoon.³ Not expected to reopen next year.

PENNSYLVANIA

Philadelphia	Philadelphia College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$243 for Day students, \$183 for Evening students ; Matriculation, \$3 ; Degree, \$15 Autumn attendance : 31</i>	IIM3, IIE4
	Temple University, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$250 for Morning students, \$215 for Afternoon or Evening students ; Matriculation, \$5 ; Degree, \$15 Autumn attendance: Day, 60 ; Evening, 409 ; Total, 469</i>	¹ M3, ¹ A4, ¹ E4 ² c, 1933
Pittsburgh	Duquesne University, The School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$225 ; Matriculation, \$5 ; Degree, \$13 Autumn attendance : 164</i>	IIE4

TENNESSEE

Chattanooga	Chattanooga College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$100 ; Degree, \$5 Autumn attendance : 95</i>	E3
Knoxville	The John Randolph Neal College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$75 ; Degree, \$5 Autumn attendance : 112</i>	A1 ³ , E1 ³
Memphis	University of Memphis, Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$130 ; Matriculation, \$5 ; Degree, \$10 Autumn attendance not reported since 1932 (139)</i>	E3
	Southern Law University ⁴ <i>Fees: Monthly, \$10 Autumn attendance : 25</i>	E3
Nashville	Andrew Jackson University, School of Law <i>Fees: Monthly, \$10 ; Degree, \$5 Autumn attendance : 96</i>	E3 ⁵
	Kent College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$75 Autumn attendance : 14</i>	E3
	Nashville Y. M. C. A. Night Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$50 ; Degree, \$5 Autumn attendance : 102</i>	E3

¹ In the case of applicants intending to practise in New Jersey, the equivalent of two college years is required for admission. All other applicants must meet the rigorous Pennsylvania bar admission requirements.

² Except as to those students in the afternoon and evening schools who matriculated prior to January 1, 1934. The Council certified the school on the basis of a change in entrance requirements made after the beginning of the current academic year.

³ A two-year course may be completed, under certain conditions, in a single year.

⁴ Discontinued during the year.

⁵ Two-year course covering two calendar years, credited as equivalent to three academic years.

TEXAS

Austin	The University of Texas, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$50 for residents, \$200 for residents of foreign countries other than Canada and Mexico. Other non-residents pay the same amount that Texas students are charged in the corresponding state, territory, or country, but not less than \$50</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 459</i>	IIM(3) s, 1906 c, 1923
Dallas	Southern Methodist University, The School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$241; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 72</i>	IIM(3) c, 1927 s, 1929
Waco	Baylor University, The School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$237; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$25</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 62</i>	IIM(3) c, 1931

UTAH

Salt Lake City	University of Utah, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$161 for residents, \$186 for non-residents; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 86</i>	IIM(3) c, 1927 s, 1929
----------------	--	------------------------------

VIRGINIA

Charlottesville	The University of Virginia, Department of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$250 for residents, \$270 for non-residents</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 258</i>	IIM3 s, 1916 c, 1923
Lexington	Washington and Lee University, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$260; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 83</i>	IIM3 s, 1920 c, 1923
Williamsburg	The College of William and Mary in Virginia, The School of Jurisprudence <i>Fees: Annual, \$174 for residents, \$324 for non-residents; Degree, \$7.50</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 43</i>	¹ IIM3 c, 1932

WASHINGTON

Seattle	University of Washington, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$118 for residents, \$223 for non-residents; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 335</i>	² IIM(3) s, 1909-10; 1919 c, 1924
---------	--	--

WEST VIRGINIA

Morgantown	West Virginia University, The College of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$115 for residents, \$365 for non-residents; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 141</i>	IIM3 s, 1914 c, 1924
------------	--	----------------------------

WISCONSIN

Madison	The University of Wisconsin, Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$80 for residents, \$280 for non-residents; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 365</i>	IIM(3) + ³ s, 1900 c, 1923
Milwaukee	Marquette University, Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$225; Matriculation, \$10; Degree, \$12.50</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 263</i>	⁴ IIM(3) s, 1912 c, 1925

WYOMING

Laramie	University of Wyoming, The Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$60 for residents, \$82.50 for non-residents; Matriculation, \$2; Degree, \$6</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 51</i>	IIM3 s, 1923 c, 1923
---------	--	----------------------------

¹ College work beyond the second year may be taken concurrently with law work.

² Beginning September, 1934, a three-year prescribed pre-law course will be required.

³ Ten additional weeks of law school or six months of office study are also required.

⁴ After September 1, 1935, three years of college will be required.

TEXAS

Beaumont	East Texas College of Law <i>Fees: Monthly, \$10; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 83</i>	E4 ¹
Brownsville	Rio Grande Valley School of Law, Brownsville Branch ² <i>Fees: Monthly, \$7.50; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 7</i>	E4 ¹
Dallas	Jefferson University, The School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$135; Registration, \$10; Degree, \$15</i> <i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1929 (122)</i> YMCA Schools, Dallas School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$96; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 120</i>	E3 E(4)
Fort Worth	North Texas School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$90</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 45</i>	E3
Harlingen ³	Rio Grande Valley School of Law <i>Fees: Monthly, \$7.50; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 27</i>	E4 ¹
Houston	Houston Law School <i>Fees: Monthly, \$7.50; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 255</i> Texas College of Law <i>Fees: Monthly, \$7.50; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 3</i> Y. M. C. A., South Texas School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$85; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 243</i>	E3 ⁴ E3 ¹ E4
Huntsville	Houston Law School, Huntsville Branch ² <i>Fees: Monthly, \$7.50; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 20</i>	E3 ⁴
San Antonio	The San Antonio Public School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$26, plus \$1 for each examination</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 154</i> San Antonio Bar Association, The San Antonio School of Law <i>Fees: Monthly, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 81</i>	E3 [E4 ¹]

VIRGINIA

Norfolk	Norfolk College, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$100</i> <i>Autumn attendance not reported since 1932 (21)</i>	[E2]
Richmond	University of Richmond, The T. C. Williams School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$215; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: Morning, 51; Evening, 28; Total, 79</i>	IIM(3), IIE(4) c. 1928 s. 1930

WASHINGTON

Spokane	Gonzaga University, School of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$165; Matriculation, \$5; Degree, \$5</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 82</i>	IIE4
---------	--	------

¹ So credited because the academic year extends through the summer.² In the autumn of 1933 no first-year students admitted.³ First-year class at Weslaco.⁴ Under certain conditions two years' work may be taken simultaneously, but the academic year extends through the summer. The School has no warrant for advertising that its course of two years and nine months is recognized by the Carnegie Foundation as equal to a full four-year course.

FULL-TIME LAW SCHOOLS, 1933-34

CANADA

ALBERTA

Edmonton

University of Alberta, Faculty of Law

*Fees : Annual, \$161 ; Degree, \$10**Autumn attendance : 59*

IIM3

NOVA SCOTIA

Halifax

Dalhousie University, Faculty of Law

*Fees : Annual, \$225 for residents, \$375 for non-residents ; Degree, \$20**Autumn attendance : 75*

IIM3

QUEBEC

Montreal

McGill University, Faculty of Law

*Fees : Annual, for British, \$252 for men, \$246 for women — for non-British, \$301 for men, \$301 for women ; Degree, British, \$10 — non-British, \$15**Autumn attendance : 100*

IIM3

SASKATCHEWAN

Saskatoon

University of Saskatchewan, College of Law

*Fees : Annual, \$133 ; Degree, \$5**Autumn attendance : 35*

IIM3

CANADA

BRITISH COLUMBIA

Vancouver	Law Society of British Columbia, Vancouver Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$25</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 32</i>	*IIC3
-----------	---	-------

MANITOBA

Winnipeg	University of Manitoba and the Law Society of Manitoba, The Manitoba Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$126, or for extra-mural students, \$136; Matriculation for the LL.B., \$2; Degree, \$10</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 72</i>	IIC4
----------	--	------

NEW BRUNSWICK

St. John	University of New Brunswick, Faculty of Law <i>Fees: Annual, \$122; Degree, \$12</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 26</i>	IIC3
----------	---	------

ONTARIO

Toronto	The Law Society of Upper Canada, The Osgoode Hall Law School <i>Fees: Annual, \$160 for the first year, \$135 for each of the two upper years</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 311</i>	IC3
---------	---	-----

QUEBEC

Montreal	Université de Montréal, Faculté de Droit <i>Fees: Annual, \$175; Degree, \$15</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 210</i>	(*) C3
Quebec	L'Université Laval, Faculté de Droit <i>Fees: Annual, \$132 for college graduates, \$157 for others; Degree, \$15</i> <i>Autumn attendance: 110</i>	(*) C3

III. COMPARATIVE FIGURES, 1889-90 TO 1933-34

TABLE 1. UNITED STATES DEGREE-CONFERRING LAW SCHOOLS SINCE 1890, GROUPED ACCORDING TO THE AMOUNT OF TIME REQUIRED AFTER THE HIGH SCHOOL TO COMPLETE THE COURSE

	1889- 1890	1899- 1900	1909- 1910	1919- 1920	1924- 1925	1925- 1926	1926- 1927	1927- 1928	1928- 1929	1929- 1930	1930- 1931	1931- 1932	1932- 1933	1933- 1934
Full-time schools requiring														
More than five academic years (I)	0	2	5	10	11	12	14	14	15	18	19	24	27	29
Five academic years (II)	0	0	3	18	35	53	55	56	60	60	60	57	53	50
Three or four academic years (III)	6	24	35	34	27	10	7	6	2	2	2	1	1	1
Part-time schools having a law course of three or more academic years (IV)	1	19	32	57	64	67	68	71	68	69	68	69	70	76
Mixed full-time and part-time schools (V)	0	2	9	8	15	17	20	19	21	23	23	23	24	23
Schools having a law course of less than three academic years (VI)	54	55	40	19	10	9	10	10	7	8	8	8	10	11
Total	61	102	124	146	162	168	174	176	173	180	180	182	185	190

Percentage of Total Number of Law Schools

Full-time schools requiring														
More than five academic years (I)	0	2.0	4.0	6.8	6.8	7.1	8.0	8.0	8.7	10.0	10.6	13.2	14.6	15.3
Five academic years (II)	0	0	2.4	12.3	21.6	31.5	31.6	31.8	34.7	33.3	33.3	31.3	28.6	26.3
Three or four academic years (III)	9.8	23.5	28.2	23.3	16.7	6.0	4.0	3.4	1.2	1.1	1.1	0.5	0.5	0.5
Part-time schools having a law course of three or more academic years (IV)	1.6	18.6	25.8	39.0	39.5	39.9	39.1	40.3	39.3	38.3	37.8	37.9	37.8	40.0
Mixed full-time and part-time schools (V)	0	2.0	7.3	5.4	9.3	10.1	11.4	10.8	12.1	12.8	12.8	12.6	13.0	12.1
Schools having a law course of less than three academic years (VI)	88.5	53.9	32.3	13.0	6.2	5.4	5.7	5.7	4.0	4.4	4.4	4.4	5.4	5.8
Total	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLE 2. UNITED STATES LAW SCHOOL ATTENDANCE SINCE 1890, CLASSIFIED BY TYPE OF SCHOOL

	1889- 1890	1899- 1900	1909- 1910	1919- 1920	1928- 1929	1929- 1930	1931- 1932	1928- (aut.)	1929- (aut.)	1930- (aut.)	1931- (aut.)	1932- (aut.)
Full-time schools requiring												
More than five academic years (I)	0	761	1,741	3,407	6,796	7,770	8,220	6,072	6,987	6,923	7,453	7,752
Five academic years (II)	0	0	751	2,326	9,129	8,284	7,539	8,454	7,729	7,384	6,917	6,716
Three or four academic years (III)	1,192	3,992 ²	5,946 ¹	4,799	349	283	168	339	283	296	156	168
Part-time schools having a law course of three or more academic years (IV)	108	2,275 ¹	4,787 ⁶	9,338	16,669 ¹	16,235 ¹	14,366 ¹	16,086 ¹	15,473 ¹	13,842 ¹	13,405 ¹	12,653 ²
Mixed full-time and part-time schools (V)	0	704	1,963 ¹	3,087	15,229 ²	13,418 ²	11,145 ²	14,804 ²	12,917 ²	11,822 ²	10,771 ²	10,242
Schools having a law course of less than three academic years (VI)	3,186 ⁸	4,676 ⁵	4,310 ⁵	1,546	770 ²	761 ³	727 ²	642 ²	641 ³	657 ³	625 ²	729 ²
Total	4,486 ⁸	12,408 ⁸	19,498 ¹³	24,503	48,942 ⁵	46,751 ⁶	42,165 ⁵	46,397 ⁵	44,030 ⁶	40,924 ⁶	39,417 ⁶	38,260 ⁴

Percentage of Total Law School Attendance

Full-time schools requiring												
More than five academic years (I)	0	6.1	8.9	13.9	13.9	16.6	19.4	13.1	15.9	16.9	18.9	20.3
Five academic years (II)	0	0	3.9	9.4	18.7	17.7	17.9	18.2	17.6	18.0	17.5	17.6
Three or four academic years (III)	26.6	32.2	30.4	19.6	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.4	0.4
Part-time schools having a law course of three or more academic years (IV)	2.4	18.3	24.6	38.1	34.1	34.7	34.1	34.7	35.1	33.8	34.2	33.1
Mixed full-time and part-time schools (V)	0	5.7	10.1	12.6	31.1	28.7	26.4	31.9	29.3	28.9	27.3	26.8
Schools having a law course of less than three academic years (VI)	71.0	37.7	22.1	6.3	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.9
Total	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

¹, ², ³, etc., denote the number of schools at which the attendance for that year is not known.

COMPARATIVE FIGURES

59

TABLE 3. CANADIAN LAW SCHOOLS SINCE 1890, GROUPED ACCORDING TO THE AMOUNT OF TIME REQUIRED AFTER THE HIGH SCHOOL TO COMPLETE THE COURSE

	1889-1890	1899-1900	1909-1910	1919-1920	1924-1925	1925-1926	1926-1927	1927-1928	1928-1929	1929-1930	1930-1931	1931-1932	1932-1933	1933-1934
Full-time schools requiring														
More than five academic years (I)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
Five academic years (II)	0	0	0	0	2	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Three or four academic years (III)	0	0	0	1	3	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Part-time schools having a law course of three or more academic years (IV)	5	6	6	12	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	6
Mixed full-time and part-time schools (V)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Schools having a law course of less than three academic years (VI)	$\frac{0}{5}$	$\frac{0}{6}$	$\frac{0}{6}$	$\frac{0}{13}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$
Total	$\frac{0}{5}$	$\frac{0}{6}$	$\frac{0}{6}$	$\frac{0}{13}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$	$\frac{0}{10}$

Percentage of Total Number of Law Schools

Full-time schools requiring														
More than five academic years (I)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	10	10	10	0	0	0
Five academic years (II)	0	0	0	0	20	30	30	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
Three or four academic years (III)	0	0	0	7.7	30	20	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Part-time schools having a law course of three or more academic years (IV)	100	100	100	92.3	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	60	60	60
Mixed full-time and part-time schools (V)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Schools having a law course of less than three academic years (VI)	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$
Total	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLE 4. CANADIAN LAW SCHOOL ATTENDANCE SINCE 1890, CLASSIFIED BY TYPE OF SCHOOL

	1889-1890	1899-1900	1909-1910	1919-1920	1928-1929	1929-1930	1931-1932	1932-1933	1928-1929 (aut.)	1929-1930 (aut.)	1930-1931 (aut.)	1931-1932 (aut.)	1932-1933 (aut.)
Full-time schools requiring													
More than five academic years (I)	0	0	0	0	54	64	0	0	54	64	77	0	0
Five academic years (II)	0	0	0	0	196	209	219	235	200	209	218	218	234
Three or four academic years (III)	0	0	0	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Part-time schools having a law course of three or more academic years (IV)	407 ¹	440	540	1,255	674	650	672	693	664	645	586	669	761
Mixed full-time and part-time schools (V)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Schools having a law course of less than three academic years (VI)	$\frac{0}{407}$	$\frac{0}{440}$	$\frac{0}{540}$	$\frac{0}{1,305}$	$\frac{0}{924}$	$\frac{0}{923}$	$\frac{0}{891}$	$\frac{0}{928}$	$\frac{0}{918}$	$\frac{0}{918}$	$\frac{0}{881}$	$\frac{0}{887}$	$\frac{0}{927}$
Total	407	440	540	1,305	924	923	891	928	918	918	881	887	927

Percentage of Total Law School Attendance

Full-time schools requiring													
More than five academic years (I)	0	0	0	0	5.8	6.9	0	0	5.9	7.0	8.7	0	0
Five academic years (II)	0	0	0	0	21.2	22.6	24.6	25.3	21.8	22.8	24.7	24.6	25.2
Three or four academic years (III)	0	0	0	3.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Part-time schools having a law course of three or more academic years (IV)	100	100	100	96.2	72.9	70.4	75.4	74.7	72.3	70.3	66.5	75.4	74.8
Mixed full-time and part-time schools (V)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Schools having a law course of less than three academic years (VI)	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$	$\frac{0}{100}$
Total	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

¹ For the largest school, figures of 1891-92 are used for 1889-90.

LAWYERS IN PROPORTION TO THE POPULATION¹

CENSUS figures showing the number of lawyers in the United States were first compiled in 1850. During the next half-century the number relative to the population increased at each decennial interval, except in 1870; in this year an apparent decrease, which was more than made up in 1880, may be due merely to the acknowledged deficiencies of that particular enumeration. In 1910, and again in 1920, there was a pronounced decrease, which brought the proportion down below the level of 1880. The 1930 enumeration shows a sharp increase, which still leaves the number of lawyers relative to the population well below the peak attained in 1900. Meanwhile, the progressive shift of the working population from agricultural into industrial and commercial pursuits has presumably increased the demand for lawyers.

These general trends are clear, despite the fact that changes in the census classification of occupations make it difficult to tabulate the development with the pseudo-precision of "statistics." In 1910, the census authorities distinguished, for the first time, between "lawyers, judges, and justices," and a semi-professional group described as "abstractors, notaries, and justices of the peace." Although this change increases the significance of recent figures, it complicates comparison with previous years. Fortunately, the second group is a small one—between 8 and 9½ to each hundred thousand of the population in the three decennial enumerations that have since then been made. If it be assumed, arbitrarily, that in each of the three preceding enumerations 7 per centmil of the population fell within this semi-professional classification, the following comparative table may be constructed.

COMPARATIVE NUMBER OF LAWYERS IN CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES²
(EXCLUDING ALASKA AND INSULAR POSSESSIONS)

	1880	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930
Population	50,155,783	62,947,714	75,994,575	91,972,266	105,710,620	122,775,046
Number of practitioners:						
Lawyers, judges, and justices	60,626 ³	85,224 ³	109,140 ³	114,704	122,519	160,605
Abstractors, notaries, and justices of the peace	3,511 ³	4,406 ³	5,320 ³	7,445	10,071	11,756
Total	64,137	89,630	114,460	122,149	132,590	172,361
Per centmil of population:						
Lawyers, judges, and justices	121 ³	135 ³	144 ³	125	116	131
Abstractors, notaries, and justices of the peace	7 ³	7 ³	7 ³	8	9½	9½
Total	128	142	151	133	125	140

The precise figures should not be pressed too hard. Social phenomena do not readily lend themselves to the system of exact measurements which is appropriate to physical science. Statistical tables are to scientific truth what scaffolding is to a building; if they sometimes have to be erected in order that the truth may be ascertained, they need also to be torn down in order that the truth may be revealed. The best that can be said for this particular table is that, for those who are constrained to express themselves on this topic in mathematical terms, these data are slightly better than simple census figures.

¹ This page was not submitted in confidential proof to bar admission and law school officials.

² Unamended census figures (corresponding to the total lines in the table) for 1850 were 23,939 (103 per centmil of the population); for 1860, 34,839 (111 per centmil); for 1870, 40,736 (105 per centmil).

³ Estimated.

APPENDIX

A. STANDARDS OF ASSOCIATIONS IN FORCE JANUARY 1, 1934

RESOLUTIONS OF THE AMERICAN BAR ASSOCIATION WITH RULINGS THEREON BY THE COUNCIL ON LEGAL EDUCATION AND ADMISSIONS TO THE BAR¹

*The American Bar Association is of the opinion that every candidate for admission to the bar should give evidence of graduation from a law school complying with the following standards:*²

(a) *It shall require as a condition of admission at least two years of study in a college.*

An approved school shall require of all candidates for any degree at the time of the commencement of their law study the completion of one-half of the work acceptable for a Bachelor's degree granted on the basis of a four-year period of study either by the state university or a principal college or university in the state where the law school is located.

Each school shall have in its records, within twenty days after the registration of a student, credentials showing that such student has completed the required pre-legal work.

Students who do not have the required preliminary education shall be classed as special students, and shall be admitted to approved schools only in exceptional cases.

The number of special students admitted in any year shall not exceed ten per cent of the average number of beginning law students admitted during each of the two preceding years.

No student shall be admitted as a special student except where special circumstances such as the maturity and the apparent ability of the student seem to justify a deviation from the rule requiring at least two years of college work. Each school shall report to the Council the number of special students admitted each year, with a statement showing that the faculty of the school has given special consideration to each case and has determined that the special circumstances were sufficient to justify a departure from the regular entrance requirements.

The following classes of students are to be considered as special students unless the law school in which they are registered has on file credentials showing that they have completed the required pre-legal work:

(a) Those transferring from another law school either with or without advanced standing in law;

(b) Those doing graduate work in law after graduation from an unapproved school;

(c) Those taking a limited number of subjects either when registered in another department of the University or when on a purely limited time basis.

(b) *It shall require its students to pursue a course of three years duration if they devote substantially all of their working time to their studies, and a longer course, equivalent in the number of working hours, if they devote only part of their working time to their studies.*

A law school which maintains a course for full-time students and a course for part-time students must comply with all the requirements as to both courses.

The curriculum and schedule of work of a full-time course shall be so arranged

¹ Resolutions of the American Bar Association are in *italics*, rulings by the Council in roman.

² "Resolution (1)," adopted in Cincinnati, September 1, 1921.

that substantially the full working time of students is required for a period of three years of at least thirty weeks each.

A part-time course shall cover a period of at least four years of at least thirty-six weeks each and shall be the equivalent of a full-time course.

Adequate records shall be kept of all matters dealing with the relation of each student to the school.

The conferring of its degree shall be conditioned upon the attainment of a grade of scholarship ascertained by written examinations in all courses reasonably conformable thereto.

A school shall not, as a part of its regular course, conduct instruction in law designed to coach students for bar examinations.

(c) *It shall provide an adequate library available for the use of the students.*

An adequate library shall consist of not less than seventy-five hundred well selected, usable volumes, not counting obsolete material or broken sets of reports, kept up to date and owned or controlled by the law school or the university with which it is connected.

A school shall be adequately supported and housed so as to make possible efficient work on the part of both students and faculty.

(d) *It shall have among its teachers a sufficient number giving their entire time to the school to ensure actual personal acquaintance and influence with the whole student body.*

The number of full-time instructors shall not be less than one for each one hundred students or major fraction thereof, and in no case shall the number of such full-time instructors be less than three.

The American Bar Association is of the opinion that graduation from a law school should not confer the right of admission to the bar, and that every candidate should be subjected to an examination by public authority to determine his fitness.¹

The Council on Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar is directed to publish from time to time the names of those law schools which comply with the above standards and of those which do not and to make such publications available so far as possible to intending law students.²

Schools shall be designated "Approved" or "Unapproved."

A list of approved schools shall be issued from time to time showing the schools that have fully complied with the American Bar Association standards.

No school shall be placed upon the approved list without an inspection prior to such approval made under the direction of the Council.

All schools, in order to be upon the approved list, are required to permit full inspection as to all matters when so requested by any representative acting for the Council, and also to make such reports or answers to questionnaires as may be required.

The president of the Association and the Council on Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar are directed to cooperate with the state and local bar associations to urge upon the duly constituted authorities of the several states the adoption of the above requirements for admission to the bar.³

In compliance with the policy announced by The American Bar Association in 1921,

¹ "Resolution (2)," adopted in Cincinnati, September 1, 1921.

² "Resolution (3)," adopted in Cincinnati, September 1, 1921.

³ "Resolution (4)," adopted in Cincinnati, September 1, 1921.

*we recommend the establishment in each state, where none now exist, of opportunities for a collegiate training, free or at moderate cost, so that all deserving young men and women seeking admission to the Bar, may obtain an adequate preliminary education; and, that the several states be urged through the Council of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar, to provide at stated times and places, for pre-legal examinations to be held by the university of the state or by the Board of Law Examiners thereof, for those applicants for admission to the Bar, obliged to make up their preliminary qualifications outside of accredited institutions of learning.*¹

*Law schools shall not be operated as commercial enterprises, and the compensation of any officer or member of its teaching staff shall not depend on the number of students or on the fees received.*²

*It is the sense of this Association, and it so places itself on record, that a compulsory course in and the teaching of professional ethics be a part of the curriculum of all law schools.*³ *The Association approves the action taken by the Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar and its Council in conducting negotiations with representatives of the law schools and with the Boards of Bar Examiners of the several states looking toward the giving of adequate instruction in professional ethics and the examination of applicants for admission to the Bar in this subject, and directs such Section to continue its efforts toward the accomplishment of these objectives.*⁴

SIXTH AND SEVENTH ARTICLES OF ASSOCIATION OF THE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN LAW SCHOOLS

Sixth. Law schools may be elected to membership at any meeting by a vote of the Association, but no law school shall be so elected unless for at least two years immediately preceding its application it has complied with the following requirements:

1. It shall be a school not operated as a commercial enterprise, and the compensation of any officer or member of its teaching staff shall not depend on the number of students, nor on the fees received.

2. It shall require of all candidates for any degree at the time of the commencement of their law study the completion of one-half of the work acceptable for a Bachelor's degree granted on the basis of a four-year period of study by the state university or the principal colleges or universities in the state where the law school is located.

3. A school whose curriculum and schedule of work are so arranged that, in the opinion of the Executive Committee, substantially the full working time of its students is required for the work of the school, shall be considered a full-time school. A full-time school shall require of its candidates for the first degree in law resident study of law during a period of at least ninety weeks and the successful completion of at least ten hundred and eighty hours of classroom instruction in law.

¹ Resolutions adopted in Buffalo, September 2, 1927. This weakening of Standard (a), above, was foreshadowed by "Resolutions 5-8," adopted by a Special Conference of Bar Association Delegates on Legal Education, held under the auspices of the American Bar Association in Washington, D. C., February 23 and 24, 1922.

² Resolution adopted in Memphis, October 24, 1929. The language follows "Resolution 3," adopted by the Washington Conference on Legal Education, February 24, 1922. This recommendation has been inserted by the Council on Legal Education, as "Standard (e)," in its official publications.

³ Resolution adopted in Memphis, October 25, 1929.

⁴ Resolution adopted in Atlantic City, September 17, 1931. Consistently with this resolution, this recommendation is not included by the Council among the "standards" compliance with which is essential for certification as an approved law school.

A school whose curriculum and schedule of work are so arranged that, in the opinion of the Executive Committee, substantially the full working time of its students is not required for the work of the school, shall be considered a part-time school. A part-time school must maintain a curriculum which, in the opinion of the Executive Committee, is the equivalent of that of a full-time school. The action of the Executive Committee under this paragraph shall in each instance be reported to the Association at its next annual meeting and shall stand as the action of the Association until set aside by a vote of a majority of all the members of the Association.

Any school now or hereafter a member of the Association, that conducts both full- and part-time curricula, must comply as regards each with the requirements therefor as set forth in the preceding paragraphs.

No school shall be or remain eligible to membership if the institution of which it is a part shall through any other agency conduct instruction in law designed to prepare students for admission to the Bar or for Bar examinations, save in conformity with the provisions of the preceding paragraphs.

4. The conferring of its degree shall be conditioned upon the attainment of a grade of scholarship ascertained by examination.

5. Students with less than the academic credit required of candidates for the law degree by Section 2 of this article, may be admitted as "specials" provided

a. They are at least twenty-three years of age, and

b. There is some good reason for thinking that their experience and training have specially equipped them to engage successfully in the study of law, despite the lack of the required college credits, and

c. The number of such "specials" admitted each year shall not exceed ten per cent of the average number of students admitted by the school as beginning regular law students during the two preceding years.

6. Commencing September 1, 1932, it shall own a law library of not less than ten thousand volumes, which shall be so housed and administered as to be readily available for use by students and faculty.

Commencing September 1, 1932, for additions to the library in the way of continuations and otherwise there shall be spent over any period of five years at least ten thousand dollars, of which at least fifteen hundred dollars shall be expended each year.

7. Commencing September 1, 1932, its faculty shall consist of at least four instructors who devote substantially all of their time to the work of the school; and in no case shall the number of such full-time instructors be fewer than one for each one hundred students or major fraction thereof.

8. Each member shall maintain a complete individual record of each student, which shall make readily accessible the following data: Credentials for admission; the action of the administrative officer passing thereon; date of admission; date of graduation or final dismissal from school; date of beginning and ending of each period of attendance, if the student has not been in continuous residence throughout the whole period of study; courses which he has taken, the grades therein, if any, and the credit value thereof, and courses for which he is registered; and a record of all special action of the faculty or administrative officers.

9. It shall be a school which possesses reasonably adequate facilities and which is conducted in accordance with those standards and practices generally recognized by member schools as essential to the maintenance of a sound educational policy.

*Seventh. Any school which shall fail to maintain the requirements provided for in Article Sixth, or such standard as may hereafter be adopted by resolution of the Association, shall be excluded from the Association by a vote at the general meeting, but may be reinstated at a subsequent meeting on proof that it is then bona fide fulfilling such requirement.*¹

Any member school which shall fail to be represented by some member of its faculty at the annual meeting at least once in any three year period shall be deemed to have discontinued its membership.

B. PUBLICATIONS OF THE CARNEGIE FOUNDATION DEALING WITH LEGAL EDUCATION AND COGNATE MATTERS

Preliminary discussions of legal education were included in the *Annual Report of the President of the Carnegie Foundation* for 1908, 1909, 1911, and 1912. Publications dealing with this or cognate matters, since the establishment of the Division of Educational Enquiry in 1913, are listed below. Advance extracts from the current *Annual Report* (issued in 1913 and from 1915 to 1925 inclusive), when these contain no additional matter and are now out of print, are omitted.

BULLETINS

Number Eight. The Common Law and the Case Method in American University Law Schools. By Josef Redlich. With a preface by Henry S. Pritchett. 1914. pp. xi, 84.

Number Thirteen. Justice and the Poor. By Reginald Heber Smith. With a foreword by Elihu Root and an introduction by Henry S. Pritchett. 1919. Second edition, 1921. Third edition, 1924. pp. xx, 271.

Number Fifteen. Training for the Public Profession of the Law. By Alfred Zantzing Reed. With a preface, "Educational Surveys and Social Progress," by Henry S. Pritchett. 1921. pp. xviii, 498.

Number Twenty-one. Present-Day Law Schools in the United States and Canada. By Alfred Zantzing Reed. With a preface by Henry S. Pritchett. 1928. pp. xv, 598.

ANNUAL REVIEWS AND REPORTS

Eighth Annual Report, 1913, pp. 27-31, "The Study of Legal Education."

Ninth Annual Report, 1914, pp. 16-18, "The Study of Legal Education."

Tenth Annual Report, 1915, pp. 21-30, "The Study of Legal Education."

Eleventh Annual Report, 1916, pp. 123-127, "The Study of Legal Education."

The Study of Legal Education, 4 pages, 1917. (*From Twelfth Annual Report*, pp. 119-123.)

Legal Education during the War, 13 pages, 1918. (*Out of print. Condensation in Thirteenth Annual Report*, pp. 121-124, "The War and the Legal Profession.")

Fourteenth Annual Report, 1919, pp. 92-96, "Justice and the Poor"; pp. 96-98, "Legal Education."

¹ At the 1931 meeting, however, the Executive Committee was requested to give sympathetic consideration to those member schools which, by reason of the financial stringency, will have difficulty in meeting the increased requirements effective in September, 1932.

- Fifteenth Annual Report, 1920, pp. 113–116, “Justice and the Poor”; pp. 116–124, “Legal Education.” (*Includes* first classified List of Law Schools.)
- Sixteenth Annual Report, 1921, pp. 86–111, “Legal Education.” (*Includes* discussion of the Recommendations of the American Bar Association.)
- The Progress of Legal Education, The Washington Conference and the Association of American Law Schools, List of Law Schools, Current Bar Admission Requirements, *34 pages*, 1922. (*From* Seventeenth Annual Report, pp. 59–90.)
- Eighteenth Annual Report, 1923, pp. 43–63, “Legal Education.” (*Includes* Comparative Professional Statistics, Current Bar Admission Requirements, List of Law Schools, Re-statement of American Law.)
- Nineteenth Annual Report, 1924, pp. 57–79, “Standards and Standardizers in Legal Education.” (*Includes* Bar Admission Requirements, The Council on Legal Education and the Association of American Law Schools, Statistics and List of Law Schools.)
- Twentieth Annual Report, 1925, pp. 37–67, “Some Contrasts between American and Canadian Legal Education.” (*Includes* Bar Admission Requirements, Standardizing Agencies, Statistics and List of Law Schools, The American Law Institute.)
- Twenty-first Annual Report, 1926, pp. 53–55, “The Study of Legal Education.”
- Twenty-second Annual Report, 1927, pp. 72–73, “Legal Education.”
- Review of Legal Education in the United States and Canada for the years 1926 and 1927, *43 pages*. (*Includes, in addition to the two preceding*, “Standards recommended by Associations,” “Bar Admission Requirements,” and “Law Schools.”)
- Review of Legal Education in the United States and Canada for the year 1928, *51 pages*. (“Present-Day Law Schools,” Essentials of a Sound Bar Admission System, Registration of Law Students. *First title reprinted in* Twenty-third Annual Report, pp. 58–64.)
- Review of Legal Education in the United States and Canada for the year 1929, *72 pages*. (*Out of print. Includes* The Missing Element in Legal Education, Practical Training and Ethical Standards, *reprinted, 32 pages, and condensed in* Twenty-fourth Annual Report, pp. 88–101.)
- Review of Legal Education in the United States and Canada for the year 1930, *67 pages*. (Bar Admission Statutes, Progressive Differentiation of Law Schools. *First title condensed in* Twenty-fifth Annual Report, pp. 66–80.)
- Review of Legal Education in the United States and Canada for the year 1931, *51 pages*. (Coöperation for Improvement, The National Conference of Bar Examiners. *Both titles reprinted in* Twenty-sixth Annual Report, pp. 44–52.)
- Review of Legal Education in the United States and Canada for the year 1932, *67 pages*. (Educational Finance and Student Selection. *This title reprinted in* Twenty-seventh Annual Report, pp. 87–107.)
- Review of Legal Education in the United States and Canada for the year 1933, *67 pages*. (Learned Professions and their Organization. *This title, lacking slight revisions, reprinted in* Twenty-eighth Annual Report, pp. 63–89.)

Copies of all publications of the Foundation, not out of print, may be had without charge upon application to its office, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York City, by mail or in person.

INDEX OF STATES AND PROVINCES

(See also table opposite page 33)

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>Alabama, 29, 34; schools, 34, 36, 37.
 Alberta, schools, 56.
 Arizona, 29, 31, 32 (<i>thrice</i>), 33; schools, 36.
 Arkansas, 29, 31, 32 (<i>twice</i>), 34; schools, 36, 37.
 British Columbia, 29; schools, 57.
 California, 29 (<i>twice</i>), 30, 32 (<i>twice</i>), 33; schools, 34 (<i>thrice</i>), 38, 39.
 Colorado, 33; schools, 40, 41.
 Connecticut, 29, 30, 31, 32 (<i>twice</i>), 33; schools, 40, 41.
 Delaware, 29 (<i>thrice</i>), 31, 32, 33.
 District of Columbia, 33; schools, 34, 40, 41.
 Florida, 34; schools, 34 (<i>twice</i>), 40, 41.
 Georgia, 29, 30, 32 (<i>twice</i>), 34; schools, 30, 34 (<i>twice</i>), 40, 41.
 Idaho, 29 (<i>twice</i>), 31, 32, 33; schools, 40.
 Illinois, 33; schools, 42, 43.
 Indiana, 34; schools, 34 (<i>thrice</i>), 42, 43.
 Iowa, 33; schools, 42, 43.
 Kansas, 29, 30, 32 (<i>twice</i>), 33; schools, 42.
 Kentucky, 33; schools, 44, 45.
 Louisiana, 33; schools, 44, 45.
 Maine, 33; schools, 45.
 Manitoba, schools, 57.
 Maryland, 33; schools, 45.
 Massachusetts, 33; schools, 44, 45.
 Michigan, 30, 33; schools, 46, 47.
 Minnesota, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33; schools, 34, 46, 47.
 Mississippi, 29, 31, 32, 34; schools, 46, 47.
 Missouri, 30, 32, 34; schools, 34, 46, 47.
 Montana, 33; schools, 46.
 Nebraska, 29 (<i>thrice</i>), 30, 31 (<i>thrice</i>), 32, 33; schools, 46, 47.</p> | <p>Nevada, 34.
 New Brunswick, schools, 57.
 New Hampshire, 33.
 New Jersey, 33; schools, 49.
 New Mexico, 29, 33.
 New York, 29 (<i>thrice</i>), 32, 33; schools, 34, 48, 49.
 North Carolina, 29, 31, 32, 34; schools, 48, 49.
 North Dakota, 29, 32 (<i>twice</i>), 34; schools, 50.
 Nova Scotia, 29; schools, 56.
 Ohio, 33; schools, 34 (<i>twice</i>), 50, 51.
 Oklahoma, 29, 31, 32, 33; schools, 50, 51.
 Ontario, schools, 57.
 Oregon, 29 (<i>twice</i>), 31 (<i>twice</i>), 32 (<i>twice</i>), 33; schools, 50, 51.
 Pennsylvania, 29 (<i>thrice</i>), 30 (<i>twice</i>), 32, 33; schools, 34, 52, 53.
 Quebec, schools, 56, 57.
 Rhode Island, 33; schools, 34.
 Saskatchewan, schools, 56.
 South Carolina, 33; schools, 52.
 South Dakota, 33; schools, 52.
 Tennessee, 29 (<i>twice</i>), 32, 33; schools, 34 (<i>five times</i>), 52, 53.
 Texas, 29, 30, 31, 32 (<i>twice</i>), 33; schools, 34 (<i>five times</i>), 54, 55.
 Utah, 34; schools, 54.
 Vermont, 33.
 Virginia, 34; schools, 54, 55.
 Washington, 29 (<i>thrice</i>), 30, 31 (<i>twice</i>), 32 (<i>thrice</i>), 33; schools, 54, 55.
 West Virginia, 33; schools, 54.
 Wisconsin, 29, 30, 32, 33; schools, 30, 54.
 Wyoming, 29, 32 (<i>twice</i>), 33; schools, 54.</p> |
|---|---|

