AN EARLY ACADEMIC PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SERVICE
AT THE PENNSYLVANIA COLLEGE FOR WOMEN

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ABSTRACT

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The Pennsylvania College for Women, a historic women’s college in Pittsburgh, established a program in social service in 1908, at a time when new vocations were opening for college-educated women. This program is the earliest example of a social work program based at a liberal arts college in the United States. Using archival materials, this research examines the formation and the early years of the program. Four elements proved to be foundational to the viability of the program: an elective curriculum, institutional financial stability, effective leadership, and the concurrent Pittsburgh Survey. The program met vocational needs from both the students and the local workforce. The mission, structure, content, student learning, and challenges of the program are assessed. The program grew rapidly during the several years following its initial creation, with some minor changes. It enjoyed expanded partnerships with local charitable agencies, and social service became increasingly central to the curriculum, the student experience, and the ideology of the college as a whole. Many of the alumnae from the program’s early years continued on to professional positions, some developing prominent careers in social work.
# CONTENTS

Acknowledgements ................................................. iii

Abstract ........................................................... iv

Chapter 1: Introduction ........................................... 1
   Rationale for This Study ........................................ 3
   Women’s Higher Education ..................................... 8
   Women’s Colleges ............................................... 10
   Early Institutions ............................................ 11
   Expansion and Development ................................... 13
   The Founding of the Pennsylvania College for Women .... 17

Education for Social Work ....................................... 19
   Evolution of Philanthropy ...................................... 22
   Scientific Charity ............................................ 22
   Professionalization .......................................... 25

Need for Training .................................................. 28
   Early Schools ................................................ 29
   Expansion and Development ................................... 31

Simmons College .................................................. 33

Bryn Mawr College ............................................... 36

Smith College ..................................................... 40

Methodological Considerations ................................ 43
   Sources ....................................................... 47
   Approach .................................................... 50

Chapter 2: The Foundation for the Social Service Program .... 53
   Elective Curriculum ........................................... 56
   Financial Stability ........................................... 62
   Presidential Disarray ......................................... 62
   Endowment Drive ............................................ 69

Effective New Leadership ........................................ 75
   Henry D. Lindsay ........................................... 76
   Cora Helen Coolidge ......................................... 82
   Role of Dean ................................................ 85
   Mary Acheson Spencer ....................................... 93
   Oliver McClintock .......................................... 99

The Pittsburgh Survey ........................................... 104
Chapter 3: The Establishment of the Social Service Program

College Developments, 1906–1910

Institutional Ambitions
  Relationship to the Local Community
  “Like the Eastern Colleges”

Curricular Changes
  Music
  Expression

Noncurricular Changes
  Physical Plant
  Student Self-Governance
  Preparatory Department

Markers of Improvement

Origin and Purpose of the Program
  Name
  Mission
  Vocational Need
    Students
    Workforce
  Universal Relevance
  Leadership

Promotion
  Print Advertising
  Community Involvement
  Lectures

Program Components
  Theory and Practice

Program Description and Features
  Structure
  Course Requirements
  Course Objectives
  Originality

Chapter 4: The Further Development of the Social Service Program

College Developments, 1910–1922

Administrative Transitions

Enlargement Plans
  Site and Physical Plant
  Endowment Campaign
  Potential Affiliations
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The city of Pittsburgh, at the beginning of the twentieth century, was in need of help. Pittsburgh had become a paragon of industrialization and urbanization. At that time it was one of the five largest metropolitan regions in the United States, boasting roughly a million people within a ten-mile radius, half of whom lived in the city proper. In addition to supporting numerous other manufacturing enterprises, this city was the epicenter of the nation’s iron and steel production, a situation that was its pride and its shame both, for the immense wealth created by industry also presented a very human toll. Sulfurous smoke from the mills shrouded the city in a dense cloud; raw sewage and industrial waste choked the three rivers. A rapid influx of population, primarily eastern European immigrants, was required to run the mills and factories, and a full half of the city’s residents were themselves immigrants or the children of immigrants. Working conditions were brutal, and factory accident and death rates were high, leaving families impoverished. Child labor practices deprived children of an adequate education. Overcrowded tenements filled many neighborhoods and unsanitary living conditions caused frequent outbreaks of diphtheria, tuberculosis, and especially typhoid fever.

With little public assistance available, the response to the city’s challenges fell to the range of private charitable organizations. Benevolent associations, civic reform organizations, and women’s societies arose to create whatever safety net existed for
Pittsburgh’s poor and sick. Through public speeches, mass meetings, solicitation, and the press, they raised awareness of the city’s problems and worked for its social and physical betterment. These organizations pressed for pure water, better hospitals and medical care, public baths, safer housing, and children’s education, among other causes.

Following the settlement movement in other cities, the Kingsley Settlement House was the city’s first, located in the working-class Hill District with a hilltop view of the noisy, clogged streets of the business district. Its resident workers attempted to improve the conditions for poor and immigrant populations through neighborhood investigation and opportunities for education and recreation. At that time, William H. Matthews, who had previously been involved with settlement work in New York City, was serving as the resident director of the Kingsley House.

Wide awake to the city’s needs, Henry D. Lindsay, the president of the Pennsylvania College for Women, was contemplating a way to address them. He wrote to Mr. Matthews early in 1908. President Lindsay was considering whether the college might well initiate a course in social work for its students, and he sought the opinion of Matthews on the matter. Matthews responded enthusiastically, relating how there was currently a great demand for social workers in the city. When the many local charitable organizations were looking to fill a position, he explained, they were forced to go to the training agencies in New York City, Boston, or Chicago due to the lack of sufficiently educated and experienced women locally. In resolute approbation of Lindsay’s idea, Matthews exhorted: “Let Pittsburgh train at least some of her own.”

This is an account of how Pittsburgh began to train some of her own.
Rationale for This Study

In September 1908, the Pennsylvania College for Women started a new course in social service. The Pennsylvania College for Women, or PCW as it was commonly known, was a women’s college in Pittsburgh, at that point already at the end of its fourth decade of existence. This action represented a completely new, and wholly innovative, venture for this small college. PCW was a traditional liberal arts college that had always strongly emphasized its classical curriculum. At this moment, however, it decided to add a vocational subject—social service—to its traditional course of study. It was a radical move.

This investigation will help us to better understand this individual school as it attempted to navigate the new social and academic terrain of the Progressive Era. But in broader scope, this study also will provide greater understanding of why and how an institution chooses to add a new academic area to its curriculum. Its goal is to augment what we know of the histories and the fates of small liberal arts schools, and especially how they have faced seasons of change during their existence.

Attending college at the turn of the twentieth century was a new generation of students. These young women had greater opportunities for professional contributions to society than had their mothers, and they brought to their education different expectations for it. Particularly, social work was a brand new occupation opening up for women, an emerging career option at a time when there were few that a woman could pursue. Sweeping the nation as well was a larger progressive wave, pressing for social and
educational reform. In the city of Pittsburgh, the magnitude of social problems fed into community concerns for civic improvement, stimulating a corresponding recognition of the need for educated individuals to help solve these problems. The new social service course at the Pennsylvania College for Women was met with great enthusiasm; it quickly became popular with the students and valuable to the leaders in the local community. And the program has thrived to this day, as the school’s social work degree continues to be favored among its current students and highly regarded in the academic and professional guilds.

This program represents the earliest example of a social work program at a liberal arts college in the United States. Simmons College, in 1904, must be credited with having the first college-based social work program. But as Simmons was a technical college, and as the program was co-sponsored by Harvard University, the contours of PCW’s course were quite different. Two more liberal arts colleges followed in the next decade, Bryn Mawr College and Smith College. Bryn Mawr’s social work program, in 1915, was at the masters and doctoral levels, intended for the purpose of fostering academic research. Smith’s program, in 1918, was focused on medical and psychiatric social work. Thus, during the 1900s and 1910s, four women’s colleges developed new social work courses, all of which varied considerably from one another, designed to meet the unique characters of the institutions and the unique needs of their student populations.

The present study broadly and deeply examines the formation and the early years of the social service program at the Pennsylvania College for Women. At every point the program will viewed within its larger institutional and curricular contexts. This study
will investigate what factors, both internal and external, influenced the college’s initiation and its ongoing implementation of the course, and what roles were played by members of the college community, including faculty, administrators, students, and alumnae. The components of the program—structure, content, objectives, leadership—will be traced out, as well as alterations made and growth experienced over the years. The study will further consider the connection between the purposes of the social service program and the larger mission and identity of the college.

The social service program at the Pennsylvania College for Women is noteworthy and warrants greater attention than it has been heretofore given. This college created a brand new model for integrating a vocational course into a liberal arts curriculum; it was a pioneering endeavor that deserves exploration and exposure. In previous scholarship of this era, however, PCW is mentioned only very rarely, and its social work program mentioned never at all. The goal of the present research is to bring new knowledge to bear on the workings of this episode in the history of higher education, particularly the curricular activities of small women’s colleges.

There are three primary areas of scholarly inquiry that this study augments. First is the scholarship on the history of higher education in the United States in general. This period, the Progressive Era, is often given attention primarily as the time of the rise of the university, when the small colleges and land grant institutions typical of the nineteenth century expanded to become larger research universities in the early decades of the twentieth century. Though this period was indeed one of great change, most all of the scholarly literature focuses on those changes experienced primarily at men’s, and
secondarily at coeducational, institutions. Quite substantial changes were likewise occurring at women’s colleges during this era, but they are included little, if at all, in general histories of higher education. Second is the scholarship on social service and social science. In it, the primary focus is on the agencies and the newly minted foundations that served the public welfare. Any attention to education for social work tends to fall on the training programs and schools created under the auspices of these organizations, and then on the university-based programs that proliferated in the 1920s. The groundbreaking work that was occurring at these four women’s colleges during this time is poorly integrated into the general literature. The third area of inquiry is the research on historic women’s colleges themselves, which concentrates to a very great degree on the large, well-endowed colleges—the Seven Sisters. Smaller colleges and those not situated in the Northeast, such as PCW, have received proportionally scant attention.

The situation at PCW in the early 1900s proves remarkably relevant to contemporary higher education. Many of the issues faced by the college as it initiated this new program resonate with similar issues that remain pressing today. Indeed, the current push for civic engagement at many of our universities and colleges, for individual students and institutions as a whole to work for the benefit of the communities in which they reside, can find its very impetus in PCW’s efforts to connect with the social and civic needs of its own community by creating this avenue for local service.

We continue to debate the perceived tension between the liberal arts and technical education, particularly the proper role of professional or vocational courses and majors at
traditional liberal arts colleges. As with the need for more social workers in the greater Pittsburgh area, which PCW was attempting to meet, so today we wrestle with the ideal mix of liberal arts “theory” and vocational “practice” for preparing our students to enter the current workforce. Moreover, the full inclusion of women in the professions has still not been achieved, as longstanding discriminations and lack of equal opportunity remain. Just as the early graduates of PCW’s social service program discovered, the field of social work is still predominantly populated by women and it still, on the whole, pays significantly below other fields that require comparable education and experience. We currently also struggle with gender equality in academia, just as female scholars of this past generation had few professional options open to them but to teach at a women’s college. The paucity of opportunity and lack of equality, then as now, was especially acute in the hard sciences, as some of PCW’s graduates who went on for advanced degrees were unable to teach or carry out scientific research in their chosen field.

As many women’s colleges over the past few decades have moved to become coeducational or have faced the prospect of closure, PCW was facing some of its own challenges in defending its existence. We today debate the need to maintain separate single-sex education when almost all institutions of higher learning are now open to women, many even having a majority of female students. In the early 1900s, women’s colleges were, for the first time in their histories, starting to need to justify their continued existence, as universities were becoming coeducational and young women now had more choices for their educations. The necessity of articulating the unique benefits of women-only education, performed so regularly and so adroitly by the leaders of
contemporary women’s colleges, had its origin during this generation. Similarly then as now, small colleges were beginning to need to persuade potential students of the benefits of a small college over a large university, as PCW did, by emphasizing a strong residential life and abundant cocurricular opportunities.

Women’s Higher Education

Higher education began in the United States with an English Puritan’s gift of his estate and his library for the founding of a school in the new world. Harvard College was established in 1636, in the Massachusetts colony. It took almost six decades before the second college was founded (William and Mary, in 1693), and by the start of the Revolutionary War, the number totaled nine. The pace accelerated during the first half of the nineteenth century, so that by the outbreak of the Civil War, there were 241. Many of these colleges were small, financially precarious, and of dubious academic standards. And many of them did not survive. Throughout the next decades, schools reflecting a wider range of type and purpose were founded. The nation experienced, for example, the rise of land-grant universities, professional schools for law and medicine, normal schools to prepare schoolteachers, colleges offering technical and agricultural education, research universities, black colleges, and urban Catholic colleges.¹

Throughout these generations, however, there was a vast divide between the sexes in their educational experiences.² From the time of the colonial period and on, opportunities for the education of girls and women differed dramatically from opportunities for males. Though the Puritans approved of literacy for women, its desired purpose was to enable them to read the Bible, not to engage in intellectual pursuit.³ In the revolutionary period, education for women was viewed as only functional; women were expected to be educated only enough for domestic economy, to manage a household. There were no formal educational institutions for women, and anything they learned would occur in the home, from parents and husbands. It was only during the early republican period when some women began to have a public connection with education. Women in general were beginning to be viewed as having a moral purpose.

² In the scholarship on the general history of women’s education in the United States, three book-length treatments have been influential. The first person to take up this topic in any depth was Thomas Woody in 1929. His pioneering and detailed two-volume work (A History of Women’s Education in the United States) focuses on advances in women’s vocational and collegiate education. Three decades later, in 1959, Mabel Newcomer published A Century of Higher Education for American Women, which she (atypically) arranges topically rather than by historical period. In 1985 Barbara Solomon’s In the Company of Educated Women was published, extending the time covered. Solomon includes the student experience in addition to information from the schools’ perspectives. These works, however, are at this point dated; there has been no recent long-range historical synopsis of U.S. women’s education.

responsibility for society’s young, which led to roles for teaching children of both genders.4

Women’s Colleges

The first half of the nineteenth century saw a significant rise in female schooling. Then further possibilities, though certainly still limited, emerged for women’s higher education in the post-Civil War period, with the formation of postsecondary institutions open to women, most single-sex though some coeducational. Many of the women’s schools were “academies,” “institutes,” or “seminaries,” which offered secondary-level education, with some perhaps including a few college-level courses. The lack of coordinated standards, along with a general paucity of comprehensive recordkeeping during these years, prevent us today from knowing the exact scope of such institutions.5 There was a growing need for advanced education for women, at the collegiate level, leading to the establishment of colleges that offered a four-year course of study culminating in a bachelors degree. These new institutions offered a classical curriculum

(including Greek, Latin, mathematics, and the natural and social sciences) that was on par with the courses of study offered at the best men’s colleges.6

Early Institutions. Because of the novelty of this educational type, as well as their ongoing significance to the higher education landscape, it is useful to consider the founding situations and missions of these very first female colleges. Founded in 1837, Mount Holyoke is typically credited to be the first college for women, though it initially began as a female seminary, as did many early women’s schools. Its founder, Mary Lyon, a local country teacher, traveled around western Massachusetts, fundraising from individual farmers. Its mission was to make an education available, at low cost, to any girl over sixteen, with a central purpose of teacher training.7 Elmira Female College followed in 1855, founded by a group of clergymen and laymen, to be a “real college” with an unmodified classical curriculum from the very start. In 1861 Matthew Vassar endowed a new women’s college, boasting academic requirements modeled after that of men’s colleges. In an address at the first trustee meeting, he articulated its purpose: “woman, having received from her Creator the same intellectual constitution as man, has

the same right to intellectual culture and development.”

Wells College was chartered in 1868 as a seminary but changed to a college in 1870. The businessman Henry Wells described its purpose “to promote a higher standard of moral and intellectual culture than has yet been obtained by the ordinary village and town institutions.” In 1869, Pennsylvania Presbyterian clergymen, in Chambersburg and Pittsburgh, initiated the formation of both Wilson College (through means of a donation from Sarah Wilson) and the Pennsylvania Female College. The purpose of Wilson College likewise referenced adherence to the standards of men’s colleges: “to extend to young lades the same high advantages for a thorough education—physical, intellectual, moral, and religious—as now afforded to young men in the best colleges of the land.”

The year 1875 included the opening of two more new colleges, Smith and Wellesley. Sophie Smith set her college’s purpose to redress the inequities done to women and to increase their influence in society. Smith’s first catalogue articulated its mission as such: “The college is not intended to fit women for a particular sphere or profession, but to perfect her intellect by the best methods which philosophy and experience suggest.”

Wellesley was founded by a lay preacher and his wife (Pauline and Henry Fowle Durant) in order to provide women with “opportunities for education equivalent to those usually provided in colleges for young

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men.” From its origin, Wellesley’s intention was to employ only women for its president and all faculty positions, a feat not attempted by the other women’s colleges of the day.11

In the earlier years, the institutional purpose typically indicated for men’s colleges was training for the professions. The aim of many women’s colleges—to train students for teaching—was the female corollary, as schoolteaching was the only profession open to them. In later years, after the Civil War, there was a shift in mission, a broadening out, as the war opened up limited new opportunities for women. Official school documents for both women’s and men’s colleges still listed professional education as an objective, but also training in religion and moral character, providing a liberal education, the development of mental discipline, and the development of personal improvement. Many of the women’s colleges found that, because the educational background of young women varied considerably, they had to provide preparatory programs in addition to baccalaureate programs.12

Expansion and Development. The latter part of the nineteenth century and the early years of the twentieth century, the Progressive Era, was also important for the advancement of current women’s colleges and the initiation of new colleges. Women’s postsecondary education was turning a corner. No longer was a college-educated woman viewed as an odd novelty, as Victorian gender roles were passing away. Expanding women’s rights and an increasing public appreciation for women’s mental capabilities

contributed to larger college enrollments. Women’s colleges had entered their second
generation. The first generation of women who pursued a college education in the latter
half of the nineteenth century were pioneers, doing so amid physicians’ warnings of
deleterious physical effects and a loss of “femininity,” few vocational pathways for a
college-educated woman, and general societal discomfort with an enlarged public role for
women. Now in their second generation, women’s colleges were enjoying expanding
numbers of students as well as a larger proportion from the middle class.

This period was when the existing schools experienced their largest growth. In
1880, twenty-eight percent of all postsecondary students in the United States were
enrolled at women’s colleges. In existence were 158 schools for women of various
types, though only sixteen of these were considered on par with the academic programs
of comparable men’s schools of the time. Though coeducational institutions were also
on the rise, mostly in the Midwest, Solomon observes of this period, “the one place where
women had a guaranteed welcome was at a women’s college.”

In addition, a large number of new women’s colleges were founded during the
Progressive Era. This acceleration was particularly true for Catholic women’s colleges,
the first of which to grant bachelors degrees was the College of Notre Dame in 1899.
The number increased to ten Catholic colleges for women by 1905, and a full thirty-seven
were founded in the decade between 1915 and 1925. Numerous black colleges and

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14 Stock, *Better Than Rubies.*
15 Solomon, *In the Company of Educated Women,* 47.
16 Kathleen A. Mahoney, “American Catholic Colleges for Women: Historical Origins,”
in *Catholic Women’s Colleges in America,* ed. Tracy Schier and Cynthia Russert
universities were also started during these decades. Most of these were coeducational, but Spelman College, founded in 1881 as a female seminary, was an exception. This period also saw the establishment of many coordinate colleges, “sister” colleges of men’s institutions. These included not only well-known examples such as Radcliffe or Barnard; many lesser-known men’s colleges and universities also annexed coordinate colleges for women.\textsuperscript{17}

In the first decades of women’s higher education, there was substantial geographic distinction. Most of the earliest women’s colleges were established in the Northeast, and secondarily in the South. By the time women’s higher education was recognized as needful, many of the men’s colleges in the Northeast were too well established and/or felt themselves to be too prestigious to consider (or to need to for financial reasons) admitting women.\textsuperscript{18} Separate same-sex institutions for women were the sole option, to the degree that one historian can assert that “coeducation was almost unknown in the east” in the nineteenth century.\textsuperscript{19} Furthermore, there were initially somewhat different purposes for women’s postsecondary education. In the North, at the earliest institutes/academies/seminaries, and later the baccalaureate colleges, the focus was occupational; many female students enrolled at Northern schools in preparation for financially supporting themselves (in the early years, primarily as schoolteachers). In the

\textsuperscript{17} Erich M. Studer-Ellis, “Springboards to Mortarboards: Women’s College Foundings in Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania,” \textit{Social Forces} 73, no. 3 (March 1995): 1051-1070; Newcomer, \textit{A Century of Higher Education for American Women}.

\textsuperscript{18} Gordon, \textit{Gender and Higher Education in the Progressive Era}.

\textsuperscript{19} Newcomer, \textit{A Century of Higher Education for American Women}, 19.
South, however, most female students enrolled in order to prepare themselves for domestic roles, for running a plantation or an upper-class urban household. At the southern schools, therefore, the curricula tended to include a greater proportion of courses in the domestic sciences. During the early decades of women’s higher education, many young women from the South travelled up to the North to attend college, but the opposite did not frequently occur, of northern women attending colleges in the South. And in general, institutional development from female seminaries to more academically rigorous colleges took longer in the South.20

During the Progressive Era, the formal denominational ties, required religious observance, and emphasis on personal piety of the early years of women’s colleges shifted toward a nondenominational, sometimes even secular, identity and more liberal views of religion. Residential community life became less regulated and restrictive than the past “seminary” norm, giving young women more personal freedom.21 Women’s education thus “came of age,” with greater opportunities for reform initiatives, social activism, and civic engagement. Second-generation students arrived at college with different expectations (or developed them while there), holding greater aspirations. And it was the pioneering first-generation women who were their professors. A strong campus life was developing, including student government, clubs, athletics, literary societies, and other social and academic activities. This greater emphasis on developing

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20 Boas, Women’s Education Begins; Solomon, In the Company of Educated Women; Gordon, Gender and Higher Education in the Progressive Era.
21 Helen Lefkowitz, Alma Mater: Design and Experience in the Women’s Colleges from Their Nineteenth-Century Beginnings to the 1930s, 2nd ed. (Amherst, MA: University of Massachusetts Press, 1993); Conway, “Perspectives on the History of Women’s Education in the United States.”
leadership skills, organizational experience, and friendships was intentionally preparing graduates to take on public as well as private responsibilities. At this point fewer students were attending college merely as a way to pass time before marriage; many were looking forward to lives of purposeful social, civic, or professional activity. Yet unlike the first-generation college students, many of whom remained single, most of these newer students also anticipated that they would live a married life.22

The Founding of the Pennsylvania College for Women

Authorizing one of those very earliest women’s colleges in the United States, on December 11, 1869, the Court of Common Pleas of Allegheny County granted a charter of incorporation for the Pennsylvania Female College. As the charter read, “Its object shall be the education of young women in the learned and foreign languages, the useful arts, sciences, and literature.” Under the auspices of its Board of Trustees, its faculty was authorized to grant degrees in the liberal arts and sciences. At some point during the first year an official motto and seal were selected. The seal included a lamp and the year of the college’s charter, surrounded by the text, in Latin, of Psalm 144:12b (Filiae nostrae sicut antarii lapides: “That our daughters may be as cornerstones, polished after the similitude of a palace,” as rendered by the biblical translation that would have been commonly in use at the time, the King James Version).

The movement to establish a women’s college had begun the previous February, at a meeting of a group of parishioners of the Shadyside Presbyterian Church; they had since been working diligently over the course of several months to raise financial support and community interest. Presbyterians had established numerous schools throughout western Pennsylvania since the beginning of the nineteenth century. In addition to several academies at primary and secondary levels, in higher education these included Washington and Jefferson College (formed by the consolidation of two separate academies in 1865) and the Western Theological Seminary, for the educating of ministers, formed in 1827. This group of Pittsburgh Presbyterians deemed that the time was ripe to provide an avenue for the collegiate education of women, which was not currently available in the region. In the city during this time was the Pittsburgh Female College, located downtown, which had been founded in 1855 under the auspices of the Methodist Episcopal Church. Despite a similar name, it was not a baccalaureate-level institution and was of considerably lower academic caliber than the planned Pennsylvania Female College.23

A campus location was chosen, a beautiful ten acres of wooded land in the Shadyside neighborhood, named Murray Hill. It included an elegant mansion that was the largest private residence in the county, christened Berry Hall after its previous owners, which was adapted to serve for all college functions. During the early months of 1870, a president and faculty were secured and students were sought. On September 28, 1870, the Pennsylvania Female College opened, with an inaugural class of 103 young

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23 In 1896 financial ruin necessitated its absorption into Beaver College. The records of the Pittsburgh Female College Association are held by the Chatham University archives.
women. Most came from throughout the city, and the others from surrounding towns. The academic program included classical languages, mathematics, the natural sciences, philosophy, literature, history, the arts, and Bible study. The course of study for the first year was tailored to the varying degrees of preparation held by the new students; at the end of the first year, two divisions were created, corresponding to collegiate-level and preparatory-level programs of study.24

The Pennsylvania Female College was renamed the Pennsylvania College for Women in 1890. In 1955 its name was changed again to Chatham College in honor of William Pitt, the Earl of Chatham, who was the namesake of the city of Pittsburgh. With the granting of university status in 2007, the college became Chatham University, by which it is known today.

Education for Social Work

Throughout the second half of the nineteenth century, the United States experienced a shift toward a newly industrialized society, resulting in a profound impact on all people’s lives. A predominantly rural and agricultural society became increasingly urban, working in manufacturing industries that required also the labor of large immigrant populations. Economic and political power became concentrated in the hands of a relatively few men, as income disparities increased. Cities were plagued by

24 Laberta Dysart, Chatham College: The First Ninety Years (Pittsburgh: Chatham College, 1959), 1-40.
overcrowding and pollution, and workers by dangerous labor conditions, disease, and poverty. As the nation moved into the Progressive Era, the middle and upper classes were increasingly recognizing the new industrial order as a social crisis, and their sympathies led them to reform efforts. A new type of middle class, a “professional-managerial class” of salaried white-collar workers, was also being created, which included the practitioners of the new vocation of professional social work.\(^\text{25}\) Middle-class women were experiencing a crisis of their own, a “snare of preparation,” as more and more were achieving college educations but graduating into a culture with few outlets for their knowledge, creativity, and ambition.\(^\text{26}\) Some of these women transferred traditional expectations of womanhood into “social mothering” and “social housekeeping” as they found ways to engage in social reform activity.

Reform efforts in the United States during these decades became strongly connected with suffrage activity; progressive reformers (many of whom were women) and suffragists worked side-by-side, overlapping their efforts under the common cause of improving society, in all areas and through any means. Women’s suffrage was viewed by many, therefore, as another social justice reform.\(^\text{27}\) Concurrent with the rapid


\(^{26}\) The term “snare of preparation” was originated by Tolstoy, but it was popularized by Jane Addams as she appropriated the concept to describe her own experience of listlessness and despair before being able to find productive work in the world for herself (*Twenty Years at Hull-House, with Autobiographical Notes*, ed. Victoria Bissell Brown, The Bedford Series in History and Culture [Boston: Bedford/St. Martin’s, 1999]). See also Michael McGerr, *A Fierce Discontent: The Rise and Fall of the Progressive Movement, 1870–1920* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2003), 40-74.

\(^{27}\) Anne Firor Scott and Andrew MacKay Scott, *One Half the People: The Fight for Women’s Suffrage* (Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press, 1982), 14-37; Sara Hunter
industrialization of society, women’s legal rights had changed substantially by the beginning of the twentieth century; along with decreasing birthrates and improvements in household technology, women experienced greater opportunities for participation in social advocacy. \(^{28}\) Many of the suffrage activities endeavored—with greater and lesser success—to include women of all classes. Progressive reformers drew connections between suffrage and the need for working women to be able to financially support themselves. Universal suffrage was viewed as a potential lever that would allow factory women and immigrants to gain power, through congressional representation, to improve labor situations. \(^{29}\) College-educated women were likewise an integral contingent of the suffrage movement during these years. Suffrage ideals proved especially compelling to young women, particularly those who gained competence and self-assurance through a college education—only to graduate into their post-college lives and recognize their political impotence.

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21
Evolution of Philanthropy

Modern social work came of age during the Progressive Era, elevated from a volunteer activity to a profession with developing norms of practice. Previously heterogeneous pursuits, occupations, ideas, and social causes coalesced into new concepts of “social policy” and “social work,” under a newly common purpose and identity. These movements represented a shift away from the paternalistic moralism of previous decades, which had been based on a hierarchical structure of the wealthy bestowing beneficence toward what they deemed “the worthy poor.” The concept of charity itself became redefined, “distinguishing it from mere almsgiving or material relief. True charity, it was said, involved a giving (and receiving) of the self, a note of conscientious personal and individual concern. . . . Its long-run goal was to restore the recipient of charity to the dignity of as much self-sufficiency and personal responsibility as he could manage.”

Scientific Charity. As philanthropic efforts matured through the 1890s and early 1900s, their disparate activity became better coordinated: methods were introduced by which the philanthropic resources of the community became more efficiently organized and managed. In addition, a new rigor was introduced into social service and social reform efforts, with the move to more empirical data collection and research methods. “Scientific charity” or “scientific philanthropy,” as it was known, took those activities

that had been separate and scattered, and imposed coordination, centralization, and careful recordkeeping, often creating new agencies to do so. Moreover, those organizations and agencies that had previously relied on volunteers now hired paid staff.

The linchpin of this emerging pattern of social service was the Charity Organization Society, or COS, which came to be established in most major cities. The purpose of the COS was to coordinate the work of various smaller relief agencies throughout the region and to serve as a clearinghouse, to facilitate the ability of the needy to get suitable help and to prevent an individual or family from gaming the system by begging at multiple agencies simultaneously. A COS agent would receive and investigate an application for assistance, refer the applicant to appropriate specialized agencies, and file a detailed report on the applicant that provided an ongoing record about that person’s or family’s circumstances. Sometimes a conference would be scheduled with community professionals such as physicians, lawyers, clergy, and agency representatives to discuss the case and devise solutions.\(^{31}\) The COS had three primary principles of operation: the use of business methods to assess and control the flow of charity; an interest in the moral uplift of the client by encouraging financial

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independence; and the “friendly visitor,” usually a middle- or upper-class woman, who filled a dual function of social investigator and teacher.\textsuperscript{32}

The success of this new method demanded a high standard of work from the agents, or caseworkers, as they came to be known. Casework involved not merely the kind hearts and moral enthusiasm possessed by volunteers of years past, but it required specific knowledge and learned skills. A major force behind the pioneering of a deliberative and constructive method of casework was Mary Richmond, who served as the general secretary of the COSs in both Baltimore and Philadelphia before moving to the Russell Sage Foundation as the director of its Charity Organization Department. Richmond designed a system for charitable casework—termed “social diagnosis”—based on the careful collection of social evidence (gathered from the client, relatives, neighbors, medical records, employer records, and the like) and expert interpretation of that evidence.\textsuperscript{33} Personality and family were viewed as similarly important in correct diagnosis; that is, an individual cannot be properly understood aside from “environment,” the broader context of her or his family situation and community life. Because every client is unique, responsible casework must incorporate the concept of differential social diagnosis. Though her work focused more on the former, Richmond also saw a bridge

\textsuperscript{32} Ehrenreich, \textit{The Altruistic Imagination}, 60-62.
between casework and broader social reform, dubbing them the “retail” and “wholesale” sides of charity work.34

Alongside, and to various degrees overlapping, with the rise of Charity Organization Societies was the rise of settlement houses in poverty-stricken urban areas across the country. The aims of the settlement movement differed in kind from that of the charity movement, in that settlements desired primarily to be good neighbors and not a source of financial assistance. They provided opportunities for settlement residents and persons in the community to know one another and to learn from one another, along with advocating for social justice and engaging in efforts to improve neighborhoods. As traditional charity work moved toward recognizing the environmental causes of poverty (rather than primarily an individual’s moral inadequacies), this changed philosophical stance allowed stronger avenues of connection between social work and settlement work.35

_Professionalization._ The incorporation of scientific methods into charity work brought increasing interest in establishing the professional nature of the discipline. Other occupations—including physicians, engineers, architects, lawyers, ministers, and teachers—were likewise striving to develop higher professional standards during these years. Those in the social work field would often compare its merits and its warrant for

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professional recognition to these comparable fields.\textsuperscript{36} “More than any other category of social workers, caseworkers believed that they had at least the beginnings of a scientific knowledge base as well as a specialized skill, technique, or function which differentiated them from the layman or volunteer. Casework formed the basis of a professional identity and forced upon social agencies a consideration of the roles of professional and volunteer.”\textsuperscript{37} Professionalism necessitated a clear distinction between paid worker and volunteer, with goals of establishing a minimum standard of preparation and competence, assuring a general recognition of practitioners’ skills, and maintaining a code of ethical conduct.

There was a robust, and continually expanding, interest in the field. For instance, when the Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations in New York opened a special department for jobs in social work in 1913, it received almost twelve hundred applications in only the first ten months of its existence. Yet social work as an emerging field also faced some specific challenges in its quest for a professional identity, some not easily surmountable. A 1916 study, also undertaken in New York City, discovered that the majority of those employed in social work were women; that the women were paid, on average, significantly less than the men, and that the profession as a whole was

\textsuperscript{36} This tendency is seen particularly in scholars writing about social work in the 1920s, when the field was still developing a professional identity; see, e.g., Jesse Frederick Steiner, \textit{Education for Social Work} (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1921); James H. Tufts, \textit{Education and Training for Social Work} (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1923); Edith Abbott, \textit{Social Welfare and Professional Education}, rev. ed. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942). Abbott’s volume is a compilation of lectures she gave over the course of roughly fifteen years. Her lectures on education (“Backgrounds and Foregrounds in Education for Social Work” [1927] and “Some Basic Principles in Professional Education for Social Work” [1928]) are the most pertinent.

\textsuperscript{37} Lubove, \textit{The Professional Altruist}, 20.
compensated more poorly than even schoolteachers; that thirty-four percent of the women were college graduates but only twenty percent had had some training particularly in social work.\(^\text{38}\) The low pay was a barrier to professionalization, along with the perception of stature—it was work carried out predominantly by a low-status group (women) on behalf of a low-status group (the poor).

The question of professionalization came to a head in 1915 with an influential address by Abraham Flexner at the National Conference on Charities and Corrections on “Is Social Work a Profession?” An entire section of that year’s program had been devoted to the topic of education for social work, a total of eight addresses.\(^\text{39}\) Flexner was a leading authority on education and professionalism, but all his previous work had been in the field of medicine, not social work. Flexner answered his titular question with a resounding negative, laying out a set of criteria that social work did not meet and

\(^{38}\) Both research studies are reported in Lubove, *The Professional Altruist*, 130-137. He provides interesting data from several surveys and research studies from the mid-1910s and early 1920s. See also Mary O. Furner, *Advocacy and Objectivity: A Crisis in the Professionalism of American Social Science, 1985–1905* (Lexington: The University Press of Kentucky, 1975).


Two years later this same conference (with a name change) was hosted by Pittsburgh: *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work at the Forty-Fourth Annual Session, held in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, June 6-13, 1917* (Chicago: National Conference on Social Work, 1917).
arguing that it could be considered only a mediating occupation because it identified problems and their solutions in terms of other areas of specialization.\textsuperscript{40} His address caused an uproar and considerable pushback in the scholarly literature in the field for the next several years to come. Yet substantial benefit toward professionalization also came from this event, as “the set of assumptions and the value-laden assessment that Flexner provided for his audience was subsequently absorbed by the emerging social work profession as part of its self-definition and helped to determine its professional goals.”\textsuperscript{41}

Need for Training

The previous system for the preparation of philanthropic workers was apprenticeship. If it had the inclination and the available staff, an individual agency may have provided some degree of instruction for its volunteer work force. The purpose of such apprenticeship was to introduce its workers to the particular techniques and practices used by that agency, a type of training that did not have the capacity to expand the discipline nor to extend to social work a greater standard of professionalization. Calls began in the 1890s for special training schools that would be able to prepare workers more broadly and to contribute to the field’s body of knowledge. Agency administrators


discovered that the differential social diagnosis of the new scientific charity methods required a level of knowledge of human behavior and a familiarity with types of community resources not held by volunteers or other untrained workers, who were not able to meet the higher standards of scientific casework. Indeed, the need for training distinguished nineteenth-century from twentieth-century social work.42

**Early Schools.** The first such training program was inaugurated when the New York Charity Organization Society held a six-week training course during the summer of 1898. Demonstrating the level of demand, and despite a late announcement, twenty-seven students from eleven states traveled to attend it. In 1903 a six-month winter session was added, and in 1904 that was transformed into a yearlong course. In Chicago, the Chicago Commons and Hull House established the Chicago Institute of Social Science in 1903, which became the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy in 1908. The city of St. Louis followed suit, where social workers in the St. Louis Provident Association organized a fifteen-week course in 1907, developing it into a one-year course the following year as the St. Louis School of Philanthropy. In 1909 the school affiliated with the University of Missouri. Also in 1909, social agencies in Philadelphia organized the Pennsylvania Training School for Social Workers. In Cleveland, eighteen philanthropic agencies petitioned the trustees of Western Reserve University to join with them; in 1916 the School of Applied Social Sciences was established there. Two training

schools in the South joined the trend in 1918: the Richmond School of Social Economy and the Texas School of Civics and Philanthropy in Houston.43

These schools were all similar not only because of comparable methods of instruction but also because they were formed through the initiative of social workers, for the purpose of providing training facilities. “The important point about the organization of these schools by the social agencies is that social workers in various parts of the country apparently believed that professional schools were needed and they were willing to make the sacrifices necessary to establish them.”44 Even though almost all of them at some point introduced an affiliation or connection of some type with a university, their programs were planned in accordance with the ideals not of university faculty but of practical social workers. The academic affiliations tended to be mere formalities. These schools’ true affiliations were with the city’s social agencies, whose demand they were created to meet; the agencies organized the curriculum, supplied the instructors, and provided the sites for students’ fieldwork.45

Therein became one of the primary limitations of these early social work schools. That they were established and controlled by social agencies “virtually guaranteed a conflict between the ideal of the school as a scientific laboratory, offering a broad professional education while expanding the boundaries of social work theory and

research, and the need to satisfy agency demands for trained workers.”46 In the curricula, a proportionally large percentage of the student’s time was required for fieldwork, leaving coursework in academic, theoretical subjects almost an afterthought. Another problem was the large amount of casework, which dominated the fieldwork opportunities for students; the effect was not to provide a broad and balanced professional education but instead to solidify casework as the predominant, even exclusive, skill needed for doing social work. In all, these early training schools were designed to produce not leaders for the next generation of social service and social reform but practitioners to meet current workforce needs.

 Expansion and Development. In the 1920s the educational scene began to change, and it changed rapidly. Social work programs of various configurations proliferated at U.S. colleges and universities. Already by 1923, four types of organization for social work education had evolved (the first two of these discussed above): (1) schools independent of a university; (2) separately organized professional schools associated in some fashion with a university; (3) a definite organization of courses within a university department, with university instructors dedicated to that department; (4) an aggregate of courses at a university from more than one department.47 Varying types of social work education were found suitable in distinct areas of the country, which boasted both different types of higher education institutions and differing social needs. The new

46 Lubove, The Professional Altruist, 143.
47 Tufts, Education and Training for Social Work, 102-110; see also Steiner, Education for Social Work.
university and college programs in social work were organized at strictly the graduate level, strictly the undergraduate level (although typically open to only upperclass students), or some combination of both.\textsuperscript{48}

This burgeoning interest in service work at colleges and universities can be viewed as a manifestation of the broader new theories on the civic purpose of education. The early twentieth century was a time of fervent educational, as well as social, reform. Educational theorists including John Dewey and William Rainey Harper were exploring the connection between higher education, and education in general, and the maintenance of a civil society; education was seen to play a necessary role in social transformation. Dewey’s ideas, in particular, about the growth and development of the individual through education had already been used by settlement house workers for many years. The purpose of a college education was shifting, to be not merely the passing of a body of knowledge from professors to students but rather the preparation of students for citizenship, to take their places in democratic society. A connection was being made between education and service; a student’s involvement in service to her community was seen as essential to her intellectual and moral development.\textsuperscript{49} The new academic

\textsuperscript{48} Tufts, \textit{Education and Training for Social Work}, 142-149.

\textsuperscript{49} These new ideas about universities having a strategic role in creating a civil society owed much of their genesis to scholars at the University of Chicago during those years. Harper saw the university as the principal facilitator of modern democratic society. He engaged the University of Chicago in the public school system, arguing for universities’ responsibility toward their local communities. In his view, urban colleges and universities in particular, because of the needs of their cities, were to be agents in supporting U.S. democracy. Dewey emphasized that education leads to social reform. Viewing the school as a social center for the community, he developed a participatory democratic schooling system. Jane Addams shared his ideas that education must be connected to community life. In establishing Hull House, she stressed the importance of
programs in social work that were being added to college and university curricula fit well into this prevalent ethos of service and civic education. Also at this time on college and university campuses, community service programs including the YWCA/YMCA, the College Settlement Association, and the Consumers’ League were becoming common, active, and very well attended by students.50

Simmons College


50 Turpin, A New Moral Vision.
Originally named Simmons Female College, the name was changed to Simmons College in 1915. The school was oriented toward providing an education for working-class women who would otherwise be unskilled laborers, and (atypically for that time and location) it welcomed immigrant and Jewish women. It was intentionally located in the heart of Boston rather than a suburban setting, adjacent to Irish neighborhoods and accessible by public transportation. From its origins, Simmons had an emphatically vocational character; in addition to the standard courses in English, modern languages, the sciences, history, and art, it also offered courses in nursing, secretarial work, librarianship, home economics, and horticulture.

As in other cities, in Boston the leaders of local charity organizations were finding a great need for the education for social service workers, but unlike other cities that had various summer and agency training programs at that time, they desired university incorporation when planning a new school. Individuals and philanthropic agencies made substantial contributions to Harvard University for it to partner with Simmons College. The two institutions established the Boston School for Social Workers, jointly administered by representatives of both schools. Alice Higgins, a prominent Boston charity organizer, commented that the idea represented “the union of democratic spirit

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51 Kenneth L. Mark, *Delayed by Fire, being the Early History of Simmons College* (Concord, NH: Rumford, 1945), 24.
from Simmons and the aroma of research from Harvard.”

Harvard applied toward the program’s maintenance all the designated gifts it received, with the remainder of the program’s costs borne by Simmons. In addition, the newly formed Russell Sage Foundation made a series of grants to support scholarships, fellowships, and other research projects through the early years. Harvard never embraced the development of social work education as deeply as did Simmons, however. In 1916 it chose to end its involvement and Simmons undertook full ownership of the program. Very few Harvard men enrolled; during the twelve years of its joint affiliation, it had over five hundred women but fewer than a dozen men.

The first director of the program was Jeffrey R. Brackett, who brought broad experience in the concerns of modern philanthropy. He held a Ph.D. from Johns Hopkins University and had been president of the National Conference of Social Workers and involved in the administration of charity organizations in Baltimore. Zilpha Drews Smith, who was affiliated with the Associated Charities of Boston and had developed its training methods for its caseworkers, was named the assistant director. It was she who was credited with largely shaping the program. The Boston School for Social Workers offered a four-year program leading to a baccalaureate degree (B.S.). A masters degree was added in 1912. Most of the students who completed the program and earned a certificate, though, were special students and not Simmons baccalaureate students; by

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53 As quoted in “75th Anniversary, Simmons College School of Social Work, a Retrospective on the Occasion of the Diamond Jubilee” (Simmons College, March 1980), 6; Simmons College Archives.
54 Mark, *Delayed by Fire*, 122.
1913, only six degrees had been granted.56 In this aspect it resembled the training schools more than a program fully embedded in a college and serving full-time college students. Possibly adding to the peripheral stature, the school was located not on the main Simmons College campus but almost a mile away. Reflecting the strong vocational emphasis of the college and the types of students drawn to enroll in it, contemporaneous research determined that, for the years 1904 to 1907, essentially all the students who completed the program became involved in either paid or volunteer work, with a slightly smaller proportion of those students from 1905 to 1913.57

Bryn Mawr College

After PCW in 1908, the next women’s college to add a program in social work was Bryn Mawr College in 1915. Unlike the undergraduate programs at Simmons and PCW, Bryn Mawr’s course served only the graduate level, and it was the first academic institution in the United States to offer a Ph.D. in social work.58 One of the later eastern women’s colleges to be established, Bryn Mawr had been founded in 1885. Its creation was financially supported by the Philadelphia Quaker physician Joseph Taylor, who desired to give women, in his words, “all the advantages of a College education which are freely offered to young men.”59 In reference to its near neighbor, it was seen as “a

56 Mark, Delayed by Fire.
58 The second institution to do so was the University of Chicago, five years later in 1920.
59 Newcomer, A Century of Higher Education for American Women, 56.
female Haverford."\(^{60}\) By 1893, however, Bryn Mawr became non-denominational and open also to non-Quaker students and faculty.\(^{61}\) It was created to be more academically rigorous than any other of the colleges and universities currently available to women: it was the only women’s college to have a graduate department from its beginning (the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences) and was the first women’s college to offer a Ph.D. in any discipline. Bryn Mawr gave women the opportunity to undertake original research in their chosen disciplines. And unlike most colleges of the nineteenth century, both women’s and men’s, Bryn Mawr never had a preparatory department.\(^{62}\)

With the enthusiasm of its influential president M. Carey Thomas, Bryn Mawr established its second graduate department, the Carola Woerishoffer Graduate Department of Social Economy and Social Research. At the time of its inception, the addition of this program was controversial. Both within and outside the institutional community, some persons saw this department as a professional school that would be in tension with Bryn Mawr’s strong identity as a liberal college, and they feared that it would taint the academic reputation of the college. But Thomas held that Bryn Mawr was exactly the right place to educate women for social service because of the school’s currently strong graduate departments in the allied fields of sociology, economics,

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\(^{60}\) Horowitz, *Alma Mater*, 117.


\(^{62}\) It did, though, have a closely affiliated preparatory school that functioned as a feeder school for the college. The Bryn Mawr School for Girls was located in Baltimore. Like Bryn Mawr College, it was heavily financially supported by Mary Garrett, and M. Carey Thomas had been involved in the school’s founding in 1885, the same year as the college.
psychology, mathematics, and physiology. The seed money for its establishment came through the large gift of a young alumna who had written the college into her will while still an undergraduate. Carola Woerishoffer was from a wealthy family; she became interested in social causes and undertook research among factory women. Driving home from an inspection at a labor camp, she was tragically killed in an automobile accident. Though her behest was unrestricted, the college felt that using the funds for a program in social research was a fitting way to honor the activism and compassion of this young woman.

The Graduate Department of Social Economy and Social Research was created with a goal not of training caseworkers but of educating researchers, administrators, and social service educators. To maintain the academic integrity of the degree, its two-year M.A. program was initially open only to Bryn Mawr graduates (though this stipulation was loosened in subsequent years). Graduates of other colleges who enrolled, for either one or two years, received only a certificate. Its Ph.D. program, in contrast, was not restricted to Bryn Mawr alumnae but was open to graduates of any college or university of high academic standing. The curriculum included seminars in methods of social research, statistics, industrial organization, economics, employment management,

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community organization, and a supervised practicum in the field.\textsuperscript{65} For its director, Susan Myra Kingsbury was recruited from Simmons College, where she was its first faculty member to have a doctoral degree (a Ph.D. from Columbia University). Kingsbury was a professor of economics at Simmons and she had also been the director of research at the Women’s Educational and Industrial Union in Boston.\textsuperscript{66} Seven students began the course in its inaugural year, and it graduated its first Ph.D. student in 1920.\textsuperscript{67}

In addition to the academic research it spawned and the service leaders it produced, a singular achievement of the department was the Summer School for Women Workers, which ran from 1921 through 1938. Reflecting the workers education movements that were growing throughout Britain and the United States at that time, the Summer School brought to campus women in industry for eight weeks during the summer for instruction in areas including English, social and political history, art and music appreciation, literature, and other subjects, on the theory that women who are


\textsuperscript{66} Kingsbury’s work was part of the research sponsored through the grants the Russell Sage Foundation made to Simmons College during those years. She conducted statistical analysis of the connections among poverty, nutrition, and vocational education in the slum neighborhoods of Boston. (Kohlstadt, “Single-Sex Education and Leadership”) Kohlstadt further observes how well liked and appreciated Kingsbury was at Simmons: “The campus newspaper indicated that she was popular among students, helping them tackle theoretical problems and urging them not to regard work as temporary but to see themselves as business women ‘adapting a particular branch of work’ for life” (p. 100). Her move to Bryn Mawr represented a significant loss to the social work program at Simmons.

\textsuperscript{67} Norton, “Harkening to Uncommon Drums”; Dzuback, “Women and Social Research at Bryn Mawr College.”
better educated will be better enabled to bring about social change in their work situations and in their home communities. During its existence, over sixteen hundred women from a wide range of ethnicities and a wide range of industries came to spend the summers on Bryn Mawr’s campus.\(^68\)

**Smith College**

Initiating its program in 1918, Smith College was the next women’s college to offer college-based social work education. When it opened in 1875, Smith had been carefully planned to incorporate a rigorous classical curriculum that also included attention to the fine arts. Its design was an explicit and intentional contrast to the seminary model, as seen most particularly in its near neighbor Mount Holyoke.\(^69\) Rather than a single large building to lodge all the students together, Smith was designed on a “cottage” system that promoted a familial setting, with large houses for thirty to forty students, led by a house matron and a few resident faculty members. Students were not held under numerous regulations and strict discipline, secluded and protected on campus, but instead they were allowed a good deal of personal freedom; interaction with the town’s activities and social life was intended as an essential part of the students’

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education. Smith’s organizational design, experimental at first, became highly influential over the years and was adapted by other schools that followed.

The college’s foray into social work education occurred in the summer of 1918, in response to a proposal from the National Committee for Mental Health, with the launching of the Smith College Training School for Psychiatric Social Work (the term “psychiatric” was dropped in subsequent years). The course that first summer was a special emergency war course, conceived as a way by which the college could offer its resources for the benefit of the war effort by training women to provide assistance to veterans returning with mental and physical trauma. Its director was Mary C. Jarrett, the head of the social service department at the Boston Psychopathic Hospital. The program’s focus was on psychiatric social work, an emerging specialty in reform work at that time, as social scientists were developing a greater awareness of how persons’ psychological health was as crucial to their wellbeing and ability to function in society as their financial circumstances, living and work conditions, and physical health. With this program, Smith, like Bryn Mawr with its Summer School for Women Workers, was finding a way to utilize buildings that lay empty during the summers. The college also saw the new course as giving a nod to rising interests in women’s vocationalism without integrating it into Smith’s classical curriculum proper.

Smith’s course attracted students from a range of ages, who brought a wide variety of educational and professional backgrounds.\textsuperscript{71} In 1919 F. Stuart Chapin, currently a professor of sociology at Smith with a Ph.D. from Columbia, was named the new director (Jarrett was demoted to the associate director).\textsuperscript{72} The program had three tracks a student might elect—psychiatric social work, medical social work, or community service—though a psychological approach to social problems was emphasized throughout all aspects of the curriculum. A diploma was awarded upon successful completion. In its inaugural year the course consisted of two months of intensive study at Smith, followed by six months of practical fieldwork. For the second year and on, the time frame was lengthened to nine months of practice work and then another two months of classes back at Smith for the second summer. The practical portion was undertaken offsite, at hospitals and social agencies in one of five large cities (Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, Boston, Cincinnati), with biweekly group meetings for the students in each city led by an assigned facilitator, along with periodic special lectures from local experts. In this way the course separated its didactic (theoretical) from its practical (experiential) components. In 1920 a requirement was added for each student to

\textsuperscript{71} The first class is representative of the types of students in the program: out of sixty-three students, forty-three were college graduates (with four having done graduate work); they represented twenty colleges and twenty-one different states; ten of them had previously earned certificates in social work. A social service graduate of PCW (Rosalie Supplee ’11) took the Smith course in 1921; by that time she had been doing professional social work for ten years and also had done postbaccalaureate study in the field. She would have been representative of the type of student the course attracted and accepted for admittance.

\textsuperscript{72} Glazer and Slater hypothesize that, in addition to blatant sexism, behind this move was the expectation that an academically elite school such as Smith would want a director with an academic doctorate (\textit{Unequal Colleagues}, 181-182).
write a thesis about the particular topic of her practice work. In this manner Smith College found a way to incorporate instruction in social work at a college located in a relatively remote, rural area, at a distance from the large cities in which social work was predominantly practiced.73

**Methodological Considerations**

Historians “do not discover the past as much as they create it.”74 They work with sources—in the case of this study, written documents—and build meaning of some kind from those sources. Historical work is thus affected in large part by the choices the researcher makes; she chooses what persons and events are important to pull out from the past, and then she chooses what is important to know from them. Historical reconstruction, in this sense, is not only a science but also is an art.

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Historical scholarship is similarly a balancing act. We must always bear in mind that documents from the past were created for contemporaneous needs and not for the benefit of posterity; we must honor their integrity. Yet we must honor our modern needs as well. In historical analysis, the historical context, which represents the situation in which a source was produced and the reason for its production, must be held distinct from the historiographical context, which is produced through the conditions of the events that followed that production. Institutional histories are most certainly related to actual events, but they also represent a particular interpretation of these events. In addition to telling the institutional story, they communicate values and assumptions; they guide the current community in the directions it should take for the future.\textsuperscript{75} It is an act of “retrospective sensemaking,” in which our attention is directed backward and we create meaning for that which has already occurred. Our current circumstances and needs will necessarily influence how we choose to understand what happened in the past. In other words, meaning lies in the attention we give and the significance we attach, rather than in the past actions themselves.\textsuperscript{76}

Though these activities at the Pennsylvania College for Women occurred over a hundred years ago, we necessarily read them with eyes also on the concerns current in higher education. Like PCW was then, so many small liberal arts colleges are presently


on the brink of financial demise, and because of our contemporary situation, we can see PCW’s danger acutely. But unlike it, not all are finding ways to survive. These days many institutions are still grappling with the proper role of professional and vocational programs in traditionally liberal arts colleges. And from our vantage point, we know that, because of changing demographics, this women’s college will eventually make the difficult choice to become coeducational—and so will Vassar, Elmira, Wells, and Wilson, those other very earliest women’s colleges. Indeed, it is a fundamental challenge for historical researchers: “how to balance between generating research that is guided by the insights and problems of history versus allowing contemporary educational puzzles . . . to determine their research agenda.”77 Such is the tension inherent in historical reconstruction.

In evaluating how to understand and then to analyze the historiography of women’s education, Linda Eisenmann proposes four alternative interpretive frameworks: *institution building*, effecting educational progress by means of structural change; *networking*, using causes and organizations to advance women’s interests; *religion*, as motivating force and an explanatory purpose for the education of women; and *money*, as a lever that has typically kept women from pursuing educational opportunities but also in some cases may open doors. The framework of *institution building* is particularly appropriate to the present study. This approach represents an effort by which women “created and sustained their own institutions. It is the wide array of these institutions, as

well as the multiplicity of purposes for which women used them, that makes institution building such a protean framework for investigating women’s educational agency and experience.\textsuperscript{78} The Pennsylvania College for Women, as a historic women’s college, represents a potent example of women sustaining an institution that existed to serve their educational and formational needs, and it is through this lens that we can assess its legacy in women’s higher education.

Eisenmann describes more specifically the purposes of the institutions built by, and for the benefit of, women:

1. \textit{Provide the basics of education to women}, in both formal and nonformal settings;
2. \textit{Support women’s career needs}, including providing jobs, creating leadership opportunities, accrediting institutions, advancing women’s professionalism, and organizing their groups across national and international lines;
3. \textit{Advance a social reform agenda}, including drawing together people with similar interests, attaching problems designated within women’s “sphere”; challenging the mainstream approach to education, and negotiating with the state.\textsuperscript{79}

The new social service program at PCW was the catalyst that drew the college further along the trajectory of these three purposes. Prior to the program, the college saw its mission to fit within only the first purpose, to provide an excellent education to women. When adding the social service program, PCW began to expand its educational purpose to support women’s career needs as well. With the program in place and functioning

\textsuperscript{79} Eisenmann, “Creating a Framework for Interpreting US Women’s Educational History,” 457; emphasis original.
successfully, Eisenmann’s second purpose was then met. Vocational and leadership opportunities became part of the established curriculum, whereas they had not been before. The new social service program also shifted the college toward social reform, the third level of purpose, although a full realization of agency and advocacy would have to wait for a later generation of PCW students and alumnae. With the establishment of this new program, therefore, the college can be seen as engaging in active and lasting institution building.

Sources

All of the sources relevant to this study are written documents. According to their formal designation, they are testimonies, that is, written reports describing an event, from which we create meaning. Both direct and indirect source material is extant for the phenomenon we are attempting to understand, the creation and development of the social service program.80 With the exception of a couple of personal letters, all of the documents can be classified as official documents that were promulgated by an institution.81 Regrettably, no materials from the social service department for the period in question have been preserved—no faculty correspondence, student lists, budget reports, class syllabi, or the like. Therefore, those documents that were most directly

80 Howell and Prevenier, *From Reliable Sources*, 17-42.
81 In the case of manuscripts of speeches, even though they are housed in an individual’s personal files in the archival collections, they should likewise be considered official documents and not personal papers, in that they were delivered at official, public college events.
related to the program, and thus would be best able to inform our understanding, no longer exist.

**Catalogues.** All the college catalogues for this period are extant except for academic year 1911–1912. Catalogue information includes the courses offered, the names of faculty members and trustees, the rules and regulations of the college, and lists of the previous year’s graduates and current students.

**The Sorosis.** A student publication begun in 1895, it was a journal that included both literary pieces and news items. It was published monthly through June 1918, then reduced to thrice per year until June 1921, then was replaced by the bimonthly student newspaper *The Arrow* from September 1923 on. Some issues before 1914 are missing, but the set is complete thereafter.

**Alumnae Recorder.** First issued in 1883, it was published annually each June until 1926, when it became a quarterly. It includes news of the alumnae, reports on events at the college, and occasionally special essays.

**President’s and Dean’s Reports.** In advance of each regular meeting of the Board, the president prepared a report. Many of these have been preserved. The early ones are handwritten and the later ones typewritten. The president, and then later the dean, also wrote annual reports to be printed in the *Alumnae Recorder*, which provide information about the general happenings at the college.

**Minutes of the Board of Trustees and Minutes of the Faculty.** The minutes of both of these bodies are handwritten in large composition books. Fading ink along with the
quality of penmanship of the current secretary significantly affect the legibility of these documents.

*The Pennsylvanian.* The college yearbook was started in 1915. The issues include photos of the faculty, the seniors, and the lower classes, and reports on the extracurricular groups.

*Miscellaneous Printed Materials.* From this period there are a few brochures promoting the college, printed programs for college events, and the like.

*Scrapbooks.* Several scrapbooks of clippings about the college (news items, press releases, advertisements) were kept. The origins of the clippings (title of publication, date) are not always identified.

*Speeches.* Addresses given by certain individuals at college events, in handwritten or typed manuscript form.

*Letters.* A few relevant personal letters from and to college administrators.

*Newspaper Reports.* Reports about the college in the several newspapers currently publishing in Pittsburgh, including the *Press, Post, Sun,* and *Gazette.*

Additional documents from the archival and special collections of Bryn Mawr College, Wilson College, Simmons College, Shippensburg University, and the New York Public Library are also relevant and will be so identified. Unless otherwise indicated, sources are from the archival collection of Chatham University.

A history of the college was produced in the 1950s and, though incorporating few specifics on the social service program in particular, is highly useful for general
information (Laberta Dysart, *Chatham College: The First Ninety Years*). Dysart was a history professor from 1926 to 1958; she brings great familiarity with the college and its personnel, along with a historian’s eye. Her tenure overlapped with that of many of the individuals who were active during the years in question, and she furthermore was able to interview several persons from the very earliest years of the college.

**Approach**

The roots of the social service program at the Pennsylvania College for Women extend a few years preparatory to its establishment. Chapter 2 will analyze how a series of events fortuitously came together to enable the creation of this new program. In the city at large, an exhaustive survey of the social conditions of its inhabitants was being undertaken, awakening the community to its social needs. The college had just adapted its curriculum to allow the incorporation of elective classes, and it had withstood a serious financial crisis. In addition, a slate of visionary leaders—a new president, dean, president of the Board, and alumna trustee—came into office at the same time, the combination of which was able to imagine a new academic program and forge it into existence.

With a new administration and a new lease on life, the college entered an ambitious period of curricular and physical expansion; both buildings and the academic program were constructed and renovated during this time. Chapter 3 will consider how the social service course, initiated in 1908, fit into these changes, particularly how it
represented a direct response to the growing vocational interests of its students and the charitable needs of the larger community. The program’s purpose, structure, components, ideology, and objectives will be explored, along with considerations of the ways by which the college chose to promote its new offering.

Chapter 4 will consider how the new program was able to expand quickly during the 1910s, in terms of enrollment and influence throughout the city. Though the college itself experienced some unsettledness—generated by the war, the possibilities of affiliating with other institutions, and a presidential transition—the social service program carried on smoothly during these years. It spawned, directly and indirectly, new professional organizations within the college and in the city; it continued to expand its partnerships with local social organizations; and it became more and more central to the student experience.

The analysis will turn, in chapter 5, to an investigation of how the students and the graduates of the social service program fared. It will assess student learning by means of published student essays and it will calculate the levels at which students earned certificates. With regard to the alumnae of the program, what they chose to do following graduation will be traced out through the next decade—those alumnae who engaged in either professional or volunteer social work, or who became teachers or homemakers.

The year 1922 marks a fitting endpoint for this study. On the institutional level, 1922 represents a juncture, a transition to a new administration and new trustee leadership. Continuing into the mid-1920s, the character of the college shifted somewhat as the school became larger and enjoyed greater national recognition. On the program
level, the social service department had moved from infancy through adolescence, and in the early 1920s entered a period of maturity. It had worked through content and structural changes, and at this point could boast nearly one hundred graduates.

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When working with archival materials, there is an aspect of serendipity. This endeavor can be likened to a treasure hunt, in which we sometimes find unexpected gems—something we did not even know existed can provide the key we need. But it can also be likened to a jigsaw puzzle with missing pieces—in which case we must work around the holes and tell the best story we can with the sources that exist. Both of these experiences have been the case with this study. It has included moments of delight when finding an unforeseen tidbit of information in the process of searching for something else entirely. And it has included moments of frustration, of asking questions but not finding the material that would allow them to be answered. As is the case with most all historical analysis, this study recounts not the story I would, in all instances, wish to tell, but instead the story that the sources will allow to be told.
At the turn of the twentieth century, the Pennsylvania College for Women had
been in existence for thirty-one years. This small college was ambitious, and it
accomplished much during its early years. All involved—its president, its faculty, its
trustees, its students and their parents—believed strongly in the importance of education
for young women, and this conviction proved essential for its continuance and growth.

The educational program was built around courses in ancient and modern
languages and literature, mathematics, science, philosophy, and history. Two years after
it was founded, the college reorganized the original academic program. For those
students who were not yet adequately prepared for college-level instruction, a preparatory
school was begun; for those who wanted to continue their studies, postgraduate options
were provided. Several of the faculty served loyally for many years, fostering long-term
stability and great affection within the college community. Throughout these early
decades, the college was consistently pressing to raise the standard of scholarship. The
holdings of the library, which began with only a small collection, were increased
regularly, as was laboratory equipment for the sciences. Classes in art, including
drawing, painting, and sculpture, as well as in music, were added early in the college’s
history, and musical recitals were often presented for the public. The college attempted
to create a homelike atmosphere, as students lived and learned in the same building with
many of the faculty members and the president’s family. They had the responsibilities of regular study, daily exercise, and structured religious attendance, but they also had enjoyments such as attending lectures and musical events around the city, holding dances and other social events on campus, and traveling on faculty-led study trips to New York City and Europe. And it was a student petition, in 1890, that convinced the Board to change the school’s name from the Pennsylvania Female College to the more suitable Pennsylvania College for Women.

During these three decades, the college was served by four presidents. James Black was the first, and by all accounts quite capably piloted the nascent institution through its earliest years. In 1875 he left the position for a professorship at Wooster University in order to focus fully on teaching rather than administrative duties. The second president, Thomas C. Strong, was less successful in the position, and tensions with the Board led to his termination in 1878. Helen Pelletreau became the college’s third president. She was already a beloved member of the college community, having been serving as its preceptress since 1871, back to only its second year of existence. As a president, Pelletreau proved highly competent in both academic and financial management. She stayed in the position through 1894, when poor health required her retirement. R. Jennie DeVore was then elected to fill the position; with her energetic and forward-looking attitude, she pressed for substantial improvements, not all of which were effected, until her resignation in 1900. By this time the Board had also completely turned over in personnel, with the deaths of those trustees who had founded the college and for years had been dedicated to making certain that their creation did not falter. The college
had a splendid start academically, but a rockier start financially. Its first decade was particularly critical, coinciding with a severe economic downtown in industry during that time that discouraged generous support from the community, a situation that gradually improved during the 1880s and 1890s.

The college also progressed in physical size. Almost immediately the original building, Berry Hall, became too small to house the entirety of the college activities, and before the conclusion of the first academic year, ground was broken for a three-story extension to be constructed. This addition provided classrooms and dormitories, a larger space for chapel exercises and other assemblies, music rooms, and a callisthenium, and it was fitted with the latest heating and plumbing systems. Seventeen years later, in 1888 Dilworth Hall was begun; it was likewise three stories in height and designed in the currently popular Richardson style, and it featured a large, beautiful Tiffany window donated by the early alumnae. The entire first floor of Dilworth Hall was given to an assembly room that seated up to six hundred and fifty persons, which was used for lectures, concerts, theatrical productions, and religious services, and the upper floors housed science laboratories and an art studio in addition to more classrooms and dormitory rooms. The next building project, in 1892, was a much-needed gymnasium. Along with the outdoor tennis courts, it allowed the students to participate in activities including basketball, gymnastics, running and walking exercises, and dumbbell training. The final construction projects of these years, in 1895, were the additions of a fourth story to Berry Hall and a second story over the gymnasium, to serve as the Music Hall.
Thus the physical presence, as well as the academic character, of the college rose dramatically during these three decades.\footnote{For extended discussions of all these happenings, see Dysart, \textit{Chatham College}, 25-121.}

In 1900 the advent of PCW’s social service program was still eight years off. Yet certain decisions made and actions taken during the first few years of the new century had positive effect on the program. Four developments in particular made it first possible to initiate the type of social service program such as was chosen, and then allowed this program the chance to flourish. Three of these developments were internal to the college: the move from a fully prescribed to a partial elective course of study; the creation of an endowment that placed the college on a more secure financial footing; and the election of the right persons to leadership roles, persons who had the needed vision to support this potentially radical endeavor. The fourth development was external to the college, the undertaking of the Pittsburgh Survey, which researched the social conditions among the residents of the city. Looking forward to 1908, these preliminary actions provided the foundation necessary for the creation of a significant new academic program.

**Elective Curriculum**

Early in 1901, the PCW faculty undertook an extensive revision of the curriculum, to be put in place for the following academic year. The original curriculum was built around two different courses of study a student might take: the classical course
led to the Bachelor of Arts, and the literary course led to the Bachelor of Literature. A
core set of classes was common to both degrees, with further required courses weighted
toward the ancient languages and sciences in the classical course, and toward literature
and history in the literary course. The new curriculum made three primary changes to
this system. First, the college no longer would offer the B.L. degree; all students who
successfully completed the four-year baccalaureate program would receive the B.A.
Second, a credit-hour framework was adopted, with class periods of one hour each. And
third, a significant degree of choice was now granted to students in the form of elective
courses.

College curricula that included free elective options had been becoming
increasingly common in U.S. colleges and universities. The debate over the advisability
of moving a classical curriculum with prescribed required courses to a more open elective
curriculum that incorporated student choice was personified by Charles William Eliot, of
Harvard University, and James McCosh, of Princeton University. Though each had
propounded his views earlier (most famously, Eliot’s presidential inauguration speech in
1869), the disagreement came to a head at a debate hosted by the Nineteenth Century
Club in New York City in 1885. Benefits of an elective system, among others, included

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Dysart, *Chatham College*, 99-100; see also the college catalogues from these years.
Also at this time the requirements for entrance to the college were strengthened and the
option of an additional year of study was added to the preparatory department. (Minutes
of the College Faculty, February 19, 1901; Chalmers Martin, “The Year at the College,”
*Alumnae Recorder*, 1902, 3-9)

Charles William Eliot, “Liberty in Education” and “Inaugural Address as President of
Harvard College,” in *Educational Reform: Essays and Addresses* (New York: The
Century Co., 1898), 125-148, 1-38; James McCosh, *The New Departure in College*
its greater ability to incorporate the individuality of students’ academic interests and professional needs and to foster responsibility for one’s own learning. Those who urged caution in its adoption, in contrast, worried that students’ immaturity would cause them to choose unwisely and that the beauty of the comprehensive traditional college course would be lost in lieu of an unbalanced and narrow replacement. Such criticisms notwithstanding, the elective system grew gradually but steadily during the 1880s and 1890s, with state universities in the Midwest and West, along with large, privately endowed universities, tending to adopt it most enthusiastically. Southern state universities and small New England colleges tended to be the least elective institutions, with women’s colleges trending in the middle, maintaining traditional course requirements to a significant degree but increasingly allowing elective choice. What was clear, however, was that different schools chose to adopt drastically different forms,

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*Education, Being a Reply to President Eliot’s Defense of It in New York* (New York, 1885).


so much so that it is inaccurate to see this emerging method as a single type, but as instead a range of elective models of widely varying elements and forms.

A research study conducted in the same year that PCW was considering changes to its curriculum (1901) investigated the prevalence of the elective system across institutions of higher education, finding it to be widespread. Of the ninety-seven colleges surveyed, thirty-four offered more than seventy percent elective courses and fifty-one offered less than fifty percent elective courses, with the remaining twelve colleges in between these amounts of elective offerings. And a few years later, in 1907 Louis Franklin Snow advocated strongly for the benefits of an elective curricular system:

The elective system has given the college a power to help and to encourage the individual student which no device of faculty regulation of required class exercises was able to supply. Moreover it has demonstrated the practical worth of the academic course. It has given to the sciences and to history and to the modern literatures a chance to show what claims, if any, they have on collegiate consideration. The elective system has forced the definition of the standard of academic value.

When the PCW faculty set about their task of curricular revision, they recognized such benefits, to both the student and the institution, and they looked for guidance to the practices that had already been implemented elsewhere. As the process was explained, “The general line of procedure followed in seeking these ends was to adopt as nearly as

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possible the average curriculum of the best institutions, whether for men or women, not
forgetting the distinction to be observed between colleges, laying stress mainly on work
requisite for the bachelor’s degree, and universities properly so called, in which large
provision is made for graduate work.” The faculty compared the academic requirements
of twenty-one representative colleges and universities. The list was apparently at some
point whittled down to “twelve leading colleges” whose practices provided the basis for
PCW’s new curricular system, with a few modifications made to better suit the particular
situation of PCW and its students. The faculty recognized that a small college would
not be able to offer as wide a variety of elective courses as could a large university, but
their aim was to provide a balanced offering of courses, even if necessarily fewer in
number.

The faculty worked diligently through the winter and spring months of 1901. The
finalized version set at sixty the number of required credit hours for the degree. The
goal was “to arrange the prescribed and elective studies so as to give the student as she
advanced in her course a constantly widening liberty of choice.” To this end, the
freshwoman year included no elective courses; the sophomore year included two hours

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90 Martin, “The Year at the College,” Alumnae Recorder, 1902, 3-9, here 7-8; emphasis
original.  
91 Minutes of the College Faculty, February 19, 1901.  
92 The faculty wrestled through dilemmas typical to the adoption of new curricula,
including how to balance teaching loads, what to do about upperclass students who would
now be completing their coursework under two different systems, and what to set as a
minimum enrollment for elective courses. There also appeared to be no small amount of
turf warfare, faculty insisting that their department needed to have a greater proportion of
allotted credit-hours. (Minutes of the College Faculty, February 19, 1901; February 26,
1901; March 2, 1901; March 5, 1901; March 12, 1901; April 16, 1901; May 20, 1901;
June 4, 1901)  
for electives; the junior year, nine and one-half hours of electives; and the senior year, twelve and one-half hours of electives. The students were thrilled with this new level of choice now open to them. And six years after this system was implemented, a faculty member could say with pride how many students had been opting for the challenging advanced Latin and Greek courses for their elective hours; the fear that students would choose electives they expected to be easy did not play out at PCW.

This new partially elective curriculum became essential for the viability of the social service course of study. Indeed, it probably would not have been feasible, and certainly it would have been more difficult, to incorporate the additional classwork and fieldwork into the previous course schedule. But now, if a student wanted to undertake the social service certificate program, she would simply choose to enroll in the social service classes for some of her elective credits. There was no need to disrupt the rest of her studies, nor to interrupt her timely progress toward the degree. It became, therefore, quite easy to add this new department and course of study into the current curriculum, utilizing the flexibility that was added to it in 1901.

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94 Dysart, *Chatham College*, 113-114.
Financial Stability

At a special meeting of the Board of Trustees on December 30, 1902, a series of three questions was posed. The first question was “Should the college be continued or discontinued?” This instance represents the first time the question of closure was raised in official college documents. But over the next three years, it would not be the last.

The financial difficulties of the college had been growing throughout the previous few years and were reaching a head. Student fees and contributions from benefactors were less and less able to cover the costs of educating the students and maintaining the property, leading to annual deficits year after year. The second issue raised at the trustee meeting concerned immediate provisions for financing the current year, with decisions made to take out a mortgage and a shorter-term loan as needed to cover exigent expenses, and to canvass the trustees for donations.96

Presidential Disarray

During the last eighteen months of the nineteenth century, relations between President DeVore and the Board of Trustees became strained. After allowing her for years to conduct the ongoing financial management of the college, in July 1898 they expressed concern about her handling of certain donations and initiated a policy of surveillance by which a committee would visit the college monthly to check the books.

96 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, December 30, 1902; also for continued discussion, January 2, 1903; February 11, 1903.
This tension may have been as much about personality and gender expectations as about money matters. DeVore was a modern, progressive woman of the 1890s, and the trustees at that time were generally “old school” men. The following year she resigned the presidency, effective June 1900.

To replace DeVore, the Board chose Chalmers Martin, who was currently an instructor in Old Testament at Princeton Theological Seminary. Martin was a graduate of Princeton University and Princeton Theological Seminary, and he had previously served as a missionary to Siam and as a pastor of churches in New Jersey and New York. In a reference letter for the position, he is characterized as “a rigorous worker and a man of large information,” with “admirable social qualities and knows how to meet people graciously.” But he is also noted as “a good preacher without being brilliant,” and “in regard to his ability as a leader of education . . . he is untried.” Martin himself

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97 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, July 6, 1898; November 2, 1898; Dysart, *Chatham College*, 109-112.
98 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, July 5, 1999; November 8, 1999.
99 *Alumnae Recorder*, 1900, 19-20; reprinted in *The Sorosis*, October 1900, 7-8.
100 George T. Purves, letter to Thomas H. Robinson, November 29, 1899, handwritten. The text of the letter reads as such, illustrating some of the difficulties of decipherment: “Prof. Chalmers Martin is in many respects a man well fitted for the post in reference to which you have asked about him. He is a rigorous worker and a man of large information. His Christian character is of a noble type. He is a gentleman and would win the thorough esteem of his colleagues and of the friends of the College. His wife also is an intellectual woman and would be a stimulus to the students. So far as concerns his relation to the College itself and the personal impression which he would make upon it, I can speak confidently in his favor. In regard to his ability as a leader of education and in regard to his [?][?] [?] [?] [?][?], I can only say what I conjecture for in these respects—he is untried. I should think from what I heard of his general ability that he would be able to [?] himself in pedagogic matters and to meet the needs of the situation well. He is a good preacher without being brilliant. He makes an earnest, popular speech, simple and direct in style. He has admirable social qualities and knows how to meet people graciously and to mingle with them freely, yet so as to [?] their respect.
admitted the same and expressed great surprise at this offer, as he responded to the Board:

“Your proposal was entirely unexpected, as far as I was concerned. Moreover, the idea of undertaking just the sort of work which it involved had never occurred to me as one of the possibilities of my life. I felt, therefore, that I must take time for reflection. . . . I am now prepared to give an affirmative reply. By this I mean that I regard the presidency of your institution as an important and attractive position for some one, and I see no reason why I should not entertain the idea of assuming it, in case I should decide that it was expedient for me to do so.101

The Board had been given by President DeVore a full year’s time to locate a new president. Why they chose a person with no experience in educational administration, who himself expressed what can only be seen as a decided lack of enthusiasm for the position, is most curious.

At that December 30th Board meeting of 1902, the third question posed was “If it [the college] is to be continued should it be under the management of Dr. Chalmers Martin as President of the College?” The Board opted for the negative, deciding to attempt to raise an endowment of $250,000 and to “employ a competent financial agent” to manage the project. Two days later, the Board met again to consider a postponed fourth question, “the continuance of Dr. Martin as President of the College.” A decision

While therefore he has not had an opportunity of proving his administrative or pedagogic abilities, I think that he has qualities which, if he chooses to devote them to that line, would make him a very strong man. We should be exceedingly sorry to lose him, but if the new position be to his liking and be for his advantage, he would have, I am [’?], the cordial endorsement of us all.”

101 Chalmers Martin, letter to Thomas H. Robinson, January 10, 1900, handwritten.
on this issue was tabled until its February meeting, but by that time the Board had received a letter from Martin tendering his resignation.102

As president, Chalmers Martin was deemed to have shown far greater competence in leading the educational program than in raising the financial assistance PCW desperately needed. During his tenure the academic side of the college remained quite strong. He traveled to other colleges to find talented and highly qualified scholars, whom he convinced to join PCW’s faculty. And the curriculum, as noted above, was revised through his leadership.103

The Board experienced significant difficulty in locating a new president for PCW. Their first choice was John C. Sharpe, headmaster of Blair Academy in Blairstown, New Jersey.104 He was offered $3500, plus the option for his wife to be employed as dean (her qualifications, however, were not articulated). He declined the job. (As a point of reference, Chalmers Martin’s salary had been $2500.105) They next pursued Samuel Black McCormick, who had western Pennsylvania roots and was currently the president of Coe College in Iowa, at a salary of $5000. He also declined the job. Two of the

102 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, December 30, 1902; January 2, 1903; February 11, 1903.
103 Dysart, *Chatham College*, 112-114.
104 This seemingly curious choice—in that a boy’s boarding school is quite a different type of organization than a women’s college—was most likely suggested by the trustee William L. McEwan, whose son was a boarding student at Blair Academy (leagle.com/decision/196940448padampc2d3561341).
105 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, February 14, 1900.
trustees were then dispatched to visit him to press PCW’s case and sweeten the offer to $6000. But McCormick’s mind remained unchanged, even with the inducements.106

It is tempting to presume that PCW’s presidential search was proving so challenging due to the deteriorating financial strength of the college. Such a conclusion would be only conjecture, however, as the candidates’ reasoning cannot be known. What is known, though, is that the stretch of time being without a president was injurious to the school. “The early summer of 1903 were dark days for the College. The want of a President and a heavy debt were real difficulties. . . . An air of depression and doubt enshrouded the College, like a Pittsburg fog. The faculty were disheartened. The Trustees troubled, and patrons drifting away. And yet the College was doing excellent work.”107 In late July a new president was found in Samuel A. Martin (who was no relation to Chalmers Martin), and he was happily able to take up the duties of the office immediately.108

106 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, April 9, 1903; April 20, 1903; April 28, 1903; June 4, 1903; June 18, 1903; July 3, 1903; July 13, 1903.

With regard to McCormick, the situation was apparently the right city but the wrong college, for just the following year (1904), he accepted an offer to become the chancellor of the Western University of Pennsylvania, a position he held until 1921. He oversaw its move from Allegheny City to the Oakland neighborhood of Pittsburgh and its change of name to the University of Pittsburgh. (chancellor.pitt.edu)  

108 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, August 10, 1903.

Martin’s compensation was only $3500, an amount that seems oddly low in comparison to the $6000 offered McCormick. Both were presidents of similar small colleges for a similar tenure (McCormick, of Coe College since 1897; Martin, of Wilson College since 1895). Perhaps the difference was because Wilson was a women’s college and Coe a coeducational college; or perhaps because Martin was initially hired as acting president. The following year, however, Martin’s salary was raised to $5000 (Minutes of the Board of Trustees, February 11, 1904).
Samuel Martin was a native of Canonsburg (about thirty miles southeast of Pittsburgh); his degrees were from Lafayette College, Western Theological Seminary, and Princeton Theological Seminary (D.D.), and he had served as a professor at Lincoln University. He was chosen for his executive experience and his expertise in financial management, and also, most probably, for his availability. His wife (Mary Augusta Ricker) had been the professor of mathematics at Wilson College until their marriage in 1901, so she must also have been a welcome and productive addition to the

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109 “A Sketch of the Life of Dr. S. A. Martin,” *The Sorosis*, October 1903, 1.
110 Martin began his tenure at Wilson College in 1895. He tendered his resignation, to take effect in June 1902, citing physical and mental exhaustion due to the grueling demands of the job throughout the previous years. The Board recommended a six-month leave of absence instead. After returning to the job, he again submitted a resignation, effective April 1, 1903, which this time the Board was willing to accept. (Minutes of the Board of Trustees of Wilson College, October 29, 1901; February 18, 1902; February 17, 1903) All information and copies of documents from Wilson College were provided by Amy Ensley, Director of the Hankey Center, Wilson College.

It is hard to imagine how, if Martin was weary from the presidency of one small women’s college, taking on the same position at a similar small woman’s college—and this one where he would also have the responsibility of returning it to a state of financial stability—could be expected to be any less exhausting.


112 Dysart, *Chatham College*, 112-113, 117-121.
PCW community.\footnote{Minutes of the Board of Trustees of Wilson College, February 19, 1901.} In what was surely an attempt to garner public confidence in PCW during these troubled years, a promotional brochure produced in 1903 announced: “The faculty has been greatly strengthened, and the College is especially fortunate in having secured as President Rev. S. A. Martin, D.D., a man of broad and successful experience in college work for women.”\footnote{Illustrated pamphlet, Pennsylvania College for Women, 1903–1904.}

At this point PCW created the position of dean, and the Board took Martin’s recommendation to hire Elizabeth Eastman for the job.\footnote{Minutes of the Board of Trustees, August 10, 1903. Eastman’s salary was to be $1000.} Eastman had been the dean at Wilson College for the previous academic year. Having a dean was also fairly new to Wilson College; they had added the position just in 1901 and initially filled it by elevating a current faculty member to the role. When she resigned for a position elsewhere, Eastman was appointed. A local newspaper noted that “Miss Eastman is a lady of charming personality and possessing experience and culture well equipped for the responsible office.” She was a graduate of Smith College (A.B.), and she had previously served on the faculty of Kalamazoo Seminary.\footnote{“Wilson’s New Dean,” newspaper clipping preserved in a scrapbook, no publication or date noted, Wilson College archives. See also The Sorosis, October 1903, 12. In the Wilson College student literary and news journal, Eastman was identified as being from San Francisco (The Pharetra, October 1902, 32). This information would seem to be incorrect, for other sources stated that she is a native of Michigan and, in her vita, noted only positions located in Massachusetts, Illinois, and New York.} Eastman was clearly widely competent. She was hired by Wilson College to be a faculty member in philosophy for her disciplinary home; but by the time the school year began, she had been switched to
In a lighthearted spoof of each of the Wilson faculty members, published in the yearbook, the students described Eastman as: “Lecturer on Etiquette. Orator on Hygiene. Instructor in Ventilation. Prof. of Independent and Rel. Value of Clothes-brushes. Champion pedestrian. Advocate of the use of slang.” Clearly she must have had a fine sense of humor in addition to her academic credentials. The overwhelming attention to the financial side of PCW college life during these years perhaps dampened the amount of information recorded by and about its first dean, yet we can expect that Eastman served the PCW students as ably as she had the Wilson students.

Endowment Drive

In the latter part of 1903, with a new leader in place, the Board renewed its efforts toward raising the endowment. Martin had agreed to serve as president, and thus to assume the financial responsibility for the college, for no more than three years. As the Board emphasized in his hiring, “the first and most important duty of the President at

117 We know the reason for the shift from philosophy to English. Martin explained that the English department was overloaded: “To accommodate the teachers and adapt the work to their best ability, I have transferred the work of Philosophy from Eastman to Miss Ward, and the work of English Composition to Miss Eastman” (Report of the President of Wilson College, October 25, 1902).


119 Report of the President to the Board of Trustees, January 18, 1906. Martin was originally hired as only acting president (whether the temporary designation was his or the college’s preference is not known), and the position was changed to president the following spring (Minutes of the Board of Trustees, February 11, 1904; May 12, 1904; May 31, 1904).
the present time, is the raising of the Endowment Fund.”¹²⁰ A new committee was named, and new details of the plan were decided. They retained $250,000 as the ultimate goal for which donations would be sought, but set up a timeframe of two years to determine whether the campaign would meet with success. Any pledge received would not be binding unless at least $150,000 of the total amount was subscribed by the end of the year 1905.¹²¹

Early responses to the fundraising efforts were promising, giving the college some confidence that sufficient subscriptions could be secured. The Alumnae Association took up the cause with particular zeal, at once donating both money and time, and urging in mid-1904: “We have probable [sic] pledged all we can in money, toward the endowment, and now what is needed is our energy exerted for the same object. Our Alma Mater needs the encouragement of not only a few of her children, but all of them. . . . She needs to feel that we are faithful, that we have strength to stick to our purposes of giving her an honorable place among her sister Colleges.”¹²² But then progress slowed. Martin was experiencing many more people saying no than yes; thinking that part of the problem was

¹²⁰ Minutes of the Board of Trustees, May 31, 1904.
¹²¹ Minutes of the Board of Trustees, November 10, 1903; November 24, 1903; December 8, 1903; “Report of the Alumnae Endowment Committee,” Alumnae Recorder, 1906, 12-17.
$150,000 was the minimum amount needed to pay down the debt and leave a balance enough that, if wisely invested, would provide sufficient ongoing income to cover the yearly deficit.
Throughout the 1890s the Alumnae Association had been actively engaged in fundraising for student scholarships. By this point the alumnae had become practiced and adept in methods of raising money for the college, and they now put their expertise and contacts in service of soliciting for the endowment fund. (Dysart, Chatham College, 117-121)
that he was a stranger in the Pittsburgh community, he pressed the trustees to redouble their effort.\textsuperscript{123} The president of the Alumnae Association likewise encouraged her colleagues to intensify their labors: “Shall we, daughters of the only Woman’s College of Western Pennsylvania, shall we stand by and calmly watch our Alma Mater draw her last struggling breath?”\textsuperscript{124} In early 1905 a financial agent was commissioned to help to solicit subscriptions.\textsuperscript{125} A piece of PCW’s property was sold.\textsuperscript{126} Yet by mid-year 1905, only about $50,000 had thus far been pledged.\textsuperscript{127}

The college’s financial woes caused significant damage to the reputation of the school during these years. Already in 1902, rumors were circulating throughout the city that PCW was to close; though without merit, they affected the general opinion about the school.\textsuperscript{128} At one point in 1905, a newspaper article was published about the college, erroneously reporting that PCW, because of its heavy debt load, was being forced to merge with the Western University of Pennsylvania.\textsuperscript{129} But the worst damage was done to enrollment. Uncertainly about the future viability of the college deterred many students from attending, as their parents needed an assurance of stability that the faculty

\begin{footnotes}
\item[123] Reports of the President to the Board of Trustees, October 11, 1904; December 13, 1904.
\item[124] Eliza Bryant Barker, “President’s Address,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1905, 1-3, here 2-3.
\item[125] Minutes of the Board of Trustees, December 13, 1904; January 27, 1905.
\item[126] Minutes of the Board of Trustees, April 18, 1905; June 5, 1905. The property was sold to a neighbor, George Laughlin, and the price was $25,000.
\item[129] Dysart, \textit{Chatham College}, 118-120. Shortly later its name was changed to the University of Pittsburgh.
\end{footnotes}
could not promise. The overall enrollment numbers were substantially suppressed for a few years. Martin spoke of this situation in daily, concrete terms:

A college in the last ditch, a forlorn hope, a brave but dying enterprise was all we had to offer. Day after day last August and September the president labored by letter and personal interview with prospective students and their parents trying to persuade them of a future for the college that we knew was doubtful. Day after day students that we hoped for decided to go elsewhere, and even those who had enrolled recalled their engagements and resigned their rooms. I dreaded to open my mail. One morning brought four withdrawals for orders for rooms, and about the first of September it looked as if the whole college would collapse. At that time I would not have been surprised to find that college would open without a single boarder or students for the freshman class.130

Yet PCW also experienced the unanticipated benefit of Pittsburgh residents becoming more familiar with the school as its plight was made public. The city started to better appreciate the college, and even to root for its survival. Many persons who either did not know much about the college or had mistaken impressions became better informed. “It has awakened interest in many to whom Pennsylvania College for Women was formerly nothing but a name.”131 There grew a hope among members of the community at large, as well as within just the PCW community, that the endowment drive would be successful and that the college would prosper.

130 Report of the President to the Board of Trustees, June 5, 1906. He had been seeing this same situation play out during the past three years; see Report of the President to the Board of Trustees, October 11, 1904; Martin, “The Records of 1903–4,” Alumnae Recorder, 1904, 18-20; Martin, “The Record of 1904–05,” Alumnae Recorder, 1905, 16-17; Martin, “The Year’s Record,” Alumnae Recorder, 1906, 22-23.
131 “Editorial,” The Sorosis, January 1906, 19-20, here 20; see also Edith L. Edeburn, “President’s Address,” Alumnae Recorder, 1904, 1-3; Report of the President to the Board of Trustees, January 18, 1906.
During the last three months of 1905, all members of the college community entered into a final push to raise the endowment fund. The Board instructed Martin to put all the management of the college’s internal affairs into Eastman’s hands and to devote his entire time to fundraising. Individual trustees traveled to other cities to try to solicit pledges, and they challenged every member of the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce to donate. The alumnae went into overdrive, hosting benefits and canvassing potential donors. The faculty and students made sacrifices and contributed what they were able, as did some of the employees. The bulk of all the pledges came from a large number of modest donations such as these.

December 31st was a Sunday, but the trustees and president vowed to work through the Sabbath if necessary. On the morning of December 30, the total amount was still short. But two large donations, one named and one anonymous, received later that afternoon put the fund over the limit—and with a little more than twenty-four hours to spare, the challenge goal had been met. All of the end-of-the-year drama was played out in the local newspapers throughout the final few weeks.

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132 Not quite all members, however. Seemingly jeopardizing the ability of the college to successfully complete the endowment drive, the president of the Board of Trustees (Samuel E. Gill) abruptly resigned from both the presidency and the Board itself with less than three months to go before the deadline, leaving the leadership of the Board in limbo. A successor was not named until early 1906. (Minutes of the Board of Trustees, October 2, 1905; January 18, 1906)
133 Reports of these events are recorded in: Minutes of the Board of Trustees, November 19, 1905; January 18, 1906; March 5, 1906; “Editorial,” The Sorosis, January 1906, 19-20; “Editorial,” The Sorosis, November 1906, 20-21; Dysart, Chatham College, 117-121; and the bulk of the 1906 issue of the Alumnae Recorder.
134 Representative newspaper articles include “College Fund Almost Assured,” The Pittsburgh Gazette, December 19, 1905; “Chance for Chamber to Help Raise Fund,” The Pittsburgh Gazette, December 19, 1905; “College Girls Increase Fund,” The Pittsburgh Gazette, December 19, 1905; and...
The total raised in the endowment drive was $191,450. The endowment committee continued to try to secure the full $250,000, but there is no record that they ever fully succeeded. Both Eastman and Martin resigned, effective at the end of the academic year. Of Martin the Board recognized “his wise administration, his dignity and worth of his personal character, . . . and its high appreciation of his excellent services to the College . . . during a time of financial embarrassment.”

After the conclusion of his tenure at PCW, in early 1907 he became the principal of Cumberland Valley State Normal School in Shippensburg, Pennsylvania. Over the years he visited PCW with

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The Board credits some of the ultimate success to the city newspapers, which disseminated the information about PCW’s urgent need, thanking “the Press of this City for the valuable and generous aid rendered in the effort to raise the Endowment Fund” (Minutes of the Board of Trustees, January 18, 1906).

Minutes of the Board of Trustees, June 5, 1906; also April 18, 1905 (for Eastman).

After three name changes over the year, the Cumberland Valley State Normal School has now become Shippensburg University of Pennsylvania.

Martin was the principal until 1913. Soon after commencing the job in 1907, he initiated construction on a presidential residence. While at PCW, Martin had recommended that the college build a presidential residence, a project the Board opted not to undertake at that time (Minutes of the Board of Trustees, May 31, 1904). The “Martin House,” as it is now known, was the fourth building built at the Cumberland Valley State Normal School, and it still remains the official residence for the president of Shippensburg University (library.ship.edu/uasc/martinhouse).

After her resignation from the deanship of PCW, it is unknown where Eastman may have taken another position. We do know, however, that she did not follow Martin again to the Cumberland Valley State Normal School.

“Our New Principal,” The Normal School Herald, July 1907, 7. All information from the Cumberland Valley State Normal School was provided by Christy Fic, University Archivist and Special Collections Librarian, Shippensburg University.
some frequency, including to participate in its fiftieth anniversary celebration, until his
death in 1921.137

These past several years had been a period of turmoil for PCW. Now that the
continuance of the college was assured, it had reason to look forward with hope. The
newly created financial stability ushered in a phase of settledness, which allowed the
possibility of expanding the academic program.

Effective New Leadership

Four persons proved important during the years of the establishment of the social
service program. It is safe to say that the program most likely would not have been
developed, and certainly would not have flourished to the same degree, without their
leadership. One of these individuals—Cora Helen Coolidge—came new to the college at
this time. The other three—Henry D. Lindsay, Mary Acheson Spencer, and Oliver
McClintock—were already part of the college community but came into more prominent
positions. All four were highly effective in their roles, and all but one were long-
serving.138 And essential for the social service program, all four held strong convictions
about the connection between higher education and public service. They represented the
executive and academic officers of the college and two of its primary constituencies
(trustees and alumnae). All brought intelligence, energy, commitment, hard work, and

137 Janet L. Brownlee, “Death of Dr. Samuel A. Martin,” Alumnae Recorder, 1921, 22.
138 Lindsay died in office in 1914, after serving for eight years.
loyalty to their jobs and to the school. But they also brought fresh ideas about the purpose of college education in general, and more particularly about what college-educated women might achieve. They complemented one another in abilities, and they combined into a harmonious and productive team. Together, these four individuals nurtured a new vision of what PWC could become.

Henry D. Lindsay

As 1906 dawned, the attention of the trustees shifted from raising funds to locating a new president for the college. Early on, a rumor circulated that a female professor from Wellesley College would be the choice. Oliver McClintock acknowledged, in response, that he had indeed travelled east to consult with prospective candidates. But to the disappointment of those who were of the opinion that PCW’s next president should definitely be a woman, the Board was neutral on the matter, asserting that qualifications outside of gender were more important criteria.¹³⁹ For whatever reason, a woman from an eastern college was not elected. Instead, the trustees chose one of their own.

Henry D. Lindsay had been a member of the Board since 1899. He had actually been himself serving on the search committee that was formed to select the next

¹³⁹ “Woman May Be Chosen to Succeed Dr. Martin,” The Pittsburgh Gazette, January 28, 1906.
In the minutes of the Board meetings, there is no mention whatever of any considerations for the presidency or any travel activity on the part of trustees until the choice is named in early March.
president, when one of its other members nominated him for the position instead.\textsuperscript{140} Lindsay, at the time, had been the pastor of North Presbyterian Church for the past twelve years. He held degrees from Lafayette College and Princeton Theological Seminary (D.D.), and though originally a native of South Carolina, had previously served churches in Delaware, New York, and eastern Pennsylvania. He had also been a trustee at Western Theological Seminary and Grove City College (about sixty miles north of Pittsburgh).

Lindsay, like Chalmers Martin before him, brought no experience in educational administration to the position, and thus was most certainly not an obvious candidate. But unlike Martin, Lindsay was very familiar with the city and with PCW, knowledge that held him in good stead. One year into his presidency, the general opinion was that “no

\textsuperscript{140} Minutes of the Board of Trustees, January 18, 1906; March 5, 1906; Spencer, “Tribute of the Trustees and Alumnae,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1914, 3-5.
doubt that we have secured ‘the man for the place’ in our new President.”141 And over the years he proved to be an exceedingly fortunate choice.

Lindsay’s transition to the presidency turned out to be somewhat messy. News of his new appointment was leaked to the press before he had told the congregation that he was leaving the church. In response, Lindsay was forced to publicly equivocate before officially making the announcement at the following Sunday’s church service.142 When doing so, he praised the church at length for its loyalty and support before asking, “Why, then, should it [the job offer] not be turned aside and this most delightful pastoral relation continue? For just one reason. It seems to me right to accept the college presidency. . . . I think the path of duty leads me to this work. One may be mistaken as to what his duty is, but it is never a mistake for a man to do what he thinks is right.”143

In private correspondence to friends, however, Lindsay’s reasoning was much more nuanced. He confessed that this venture felt very much an experiment and acknowledged two reasons why he accepted the presidency. First, an urging that it was time to leave the congregation, “a feeling [that] some other preacher may be able to reach and influence certain people in Allegheny whom I have not been able to bring into active sympathy with the church. . . . Compound this with the fear which I think every pastor has, of staying with the church until its people themselves are willing that I should go.”

141 Westanna McCay Pardee, “President’s Address,” Alumnae Recorder, 1907, 3-6, here 3.
142 “Dr. Lindsay Denies Accepting,” The Pittsburgh Post, March 10, 1906.
The second reason was his interest in Pittsburgh which I have come to love and so desire to make the College fill a decided want in its educational circles. Mr. Carnegie’s Technical Schools will turn the attention of many to this city as a place of educational interest, and that education should not emphasize the material side of things to too large an extent. As you so well know, the city is growing very rapidly and I am settled in my conviction that there is great need for an institution here that will make for the highest type of women and for her true and broad education. The Pennsylvania College for Women must either fill this place or make way for some other institution which will do it.144

Recognizing an opportunity in the demographics of an urban population increase, Lindsay was eager to seize it to benefit the college. Yet his language hinted of a lingering feeling of danger, even after the endowment was raised—the danger of competition from vocational education, the danger of PCW being replaced by another college. The social service program that he later inaugurated was a clear attempt to fill that place of need in the city and not cede the vocational element to another school.

Lindsay is described by those colleagues with whom he worked as the quintessential southern gentleman, courteous and with a charming manner. He had a spirit of generosity, sincerity, humility, and an overall kindness. Lindsay could be frank when disagreeing with an idea, but faculty who went to him to discuss concerns always left feeling that they had been heard and respected. His sometimes quick temper was softened by genuine caring. Coolidge, who probably worked with him the most closely, described him as “often impatient in small matters, he was patient in big ones.”145

144 Lindsay, letter to Mr. and Mrs. William R. Thompson, March 21, 1906, handwritten. 145 Coolidge, “The Spirit of Service: An Appreciation,” address given at the jubilee celebration, 1920, typewritten manuscript; William L. McEwan, “Henry Drennan
Lindsay turned out to be a president well suited for that moment in PCW’s history. Two aspects of his leadership stand out particularly as fostering his success. These ideals led him in the direction of forming the new social service program. One of these was Lindsay’s outlook on higher education for women. In a season when notions of a woman’s proper place in society were changing rapidly, Lindsay held decidedly progressive attitudes that helped the college shift easily into this new era. The purpose of a college education now must be to prepare women to be productive citizens of the world, no longer primarily to cultivate a classical sense of culture and refinement. As he took up the presidency, Lindsay explained that

I am sometimes asked what real use a girl has for a liberal education. Does it make her a better wife or mother, or a more valuable member of society? Well, if I could give no other answer—and I could give forty others—this is sufficient: The college girl has not lived for four years a cloistered life, shut out from the world and its affairs: filling her mind with chunks of knowledge which she will never use. She has spent four years in broadening and deepening culture, in the quiet study of life and its meaning and as a member of a democracy where money and social position have but little meaning. Surely she is a more useful member of the home, society and the church.\footnote{146}{“Dr. Lindsay’s Inaugural Address, as President of Pennsylvania College for Women,” \textit{The Sorosis}, October 1907, 4-9, here 7.}

He depicted an educational theory that was based on preparing young women to be out in the world, finding ways to be of service toward others. Lindsay’s early ideas paved the way for PCW’s emerging ability, developed over the next several years, to serve students who sought to take up a vocation. He looked forward with optimism that they could—

\textbf{Lindsay: A Funeral Address,} \textit{The Sorosis}, February 1914, 4-8; Mary W. Brownson, “Tribute of the Faculty,” \textit{The Sorosis}, February 1914, 9-10.
and should—do just that:

The best time to be a girl the world has ever known is just at this time, just at the outstart of a great, vigorous, wisdom-loving century, and the best place to be a girl just entering on womanhood is here in the United States, where a girl can have every reasonable opportunity for making the most of herself. . . . No door to a successful career will be barred to you because you are a woman. The conventionalities of polite society will not be shocked, enter whatever profession you may.  

The second essential aspect of Lindsay’s educational philosophy was his embrace of change. Six years into the presidency, Lindsay described how he had come to understand both that the college could not stand still and the organic nature of its reordering itself:

I have learned by experience that ideals must be movable in dealing with an institution crowded with young women, for it is itself a living and growing organism which has much to do with forming the lines of its own development. We all dream and see visions, the college president even as others, but whether it is a baby or a college—that which lives and grows is not as clay in the potter’s hands. We are surprised at the discovery of unexpected tendencies, of characteristics and potentialities we did not expect to find. It would not be wise to make a mould, however well proportioned and adorned it might be and try to force the college into it. The man who did that would get into trouble; the mass is too plastic, it has personality and will and cannot be treated in this way.  

And Lindsay had become too wise in the ways of college leadership to be that man. For PCW to meet the high expectations he held for it, it would need to be adaptable. This

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conviction of the necessity of change gave him the courage to stand behind the radical notion of incorporating vocational education into a traditional liberal college. Above all, Lindsay continually articulated a sure and strong faith in the future of PCW. He was able to see beyond the present moment, to recognize that the current incarnation of the college’s life would not sustain it into the future.

Cora Helen Coolidge

At this same time, the college’s choice for the new dean was Cora Helen Coolidge. Coolidge was currently the vice principal at Cushing Academy, a coeducational secondary school in Ashburnham, Massachusetts. She was a member of a prominent Massachusetts political family: her father had been a U.S. congressman and her brother was the mayor of Fitchburg and later a U.S. senator. Her mother, and for a while her aunt as well, lived with her at the college at times. Coolidge was a graduate of Smith College (B.L.), and she had also studied at the University of Chicago and the University of Göttingen. How Lindsay came to know of her, to recruit her for the deanship, is unclear. Coolidge’s academic discipline was English literature, with a specialization in Robert Browning, and, as a gifted orator, she was often in demand to give lectures on Browning at women’s clubs throughout Pittsburgh. In recognition of her long years of excellent service, in 1953 a new classroom building was named the Cora Helen Coolidge Hall of Humanities.
Coolidge maintained that the faculty and the educational program were the center of the college. Her support of the PCW faculty was always strong, and she publicly recognized the sacrifices they were making, especially during the years of low salaries and high workload. “In these latter growing years,” she reminded the college community, “we have emphasized anew that not buildings nor equipment but teachers are the essentials of a college and never have trustees or alumnae had more cause for gratitude than for the loyal service of this faculty.”

Even those faculty members who taught at PCW for only a short time, she recognized, made indelible impressions on at least some of the students, and therefore she demonstrated appreciation to all instructors, those who remained at the college for years and those who soon moved on to other positions. Perhaps Coolidge’s connection with the faculty was so strong because she herself modeled an ideal teacher, one who both challenged and nurtured the

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149 Coolidge, “The Spirit of Service: An Appreciation,” address given at the jubilee celebration, 1920, typewritten manuscript.
students and who was readily available for advice and encouragement. Students felt that they could approach her at any time, with any request.\textsuperscript{150}

She cultivated the ideas that higher education should include the practical as well as the ideal, and that it must generate continued curiosity and learning throughout life—ideals that were the basis for the social service course, which she created. “You are being educated now for the time when you will be forty,” Coolidge repeatedly told her students.\textsuperscript{151} The ultimate purpose for the college, she felt, was to send out students who had both the power and the desire to make the world a better place.

Education serves for ability, or usefulness. Can we do more for our own satisfaction, for the development of our talents, serve better our homes, our communities and our world by a broad education? . . . While the availability of special training is as true as ever, we now find that there is an absolute necessity for a broad training to enable the girls, as well as the boys, to go in any of the several directions which may be open. In other words, to be as ready as possible for anything which may come in the line of occupation. . . . Usefulness and happiness—these are worthy ends “of making a living and making a life.” Education is one of the surest means of giving us those resources of mind and heart which will help us “to make a living,” but far more important, “to make a life.”\textsuperscript{152}

This type of education, Coolidge strongly held, was most possible at a small college. Community life was essential. PCW was able to educate its students so well and foster such loyalty from its alumnae because it retained the personal contact and the warmth of atmosphere that could not be created at larger institutions. “One of our finest traditions is

\textsuperscript{150} “Students Mourn Loss of Beloved President,” \textit{The Arrow}, March 15, 1933, 1-2.
\textsuperscript{151} Dysart, \textit{Chatham College}, 186.
\textsuperscript{152} Coolidge, “The Ideal, the Practical in Education,” radio address, February 9, 1933, typewritten manuscript; see also Meloy, “An Ideal and Its Realization,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, June 1933, 8.
the daily living together of teachers and students in the atmosphere of familiar friendship which is the peculiar privilege of a small college.”

Coolidge herself had a strong capacity for friendship. Her colleagues described her warmth and graciousness: “A perfect hostess, she was one who had the gift of putting a person at ease. Those who knew her will recall many a situation in which she saved someone from embarrassment by a quick turn of phrase accompanied by her inimitable chuckle.” But she also held strong convictions and maintained high ideals for herself and for the college, and she possessed the courage and the patience for seeing them through. And perhaps most essential, Coolidge had the necessary wisdom, tactfulness, and ability to discern between small and large problems that allowed her to function as an exemplary dean.

**Role of Dean.** During her time in the deanship, Coolidge changed the expectations for, and activities of, this position at PCW. She took office during a season of increasing professionalization of this vocation, when the position of dean in

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153 Coolidge, “The Spirit of Service: An Appreciation,” address given at the jubilee celebration, 1920, typewritten manuscript; also Coolidge, “Pennsylvania College for Women,” *Club Dial*, January 1932, 16-17, 43.
154 Dysart, *Chatham College*, 136. Dysart served on the faculty while Coolidge was president, and thus she brings an immediate, personal knowledge to her descriptions of Coolidge’s personality and activity.
institutions of higher learning was becoming more widespread and common.\textsuperscript{156} The period of roughly 1890–1910 saw a shift in higher education, as the growth of small colleges into large universities accelerated. An aspect of the new university movement was an increased focus on the business aspect of higher education, and positions were added whose purview was not on teaching but on institutional management and organizational planning. In this growth of the administrative side of university operation, a hierarchical pattern was inaugurated in many institutions, with one or more deans now standing between the president and the faculty.\textsuperscript{157} Another aspect of these changes was a

\textsuperscript{156} Coolidge was not the only new type of dean connected with PCW; the college also had an alumna who became a prominent dean of women. Mary Bidwell Breed graduated from PCW in 1889. She was the daughter of a trustee and started the college program when she had just turned fifteen. After graduation, Breed studied privately in Pittsburgh, then went to Bryn Mawr College and completed its baccalaureate program in addition, winning the European Scholarship, Bryn Mawr’s highest academic honor. She studied chemistry and physics at the University of Heidelberg for a year, after which she was hired by PCW as a professor of science in 1897. Two years later Breed returned to Bryn Mawr for a Ph.D. in chemistry. Over the years Breed was involved in the Alumnae Association in various roles, and she was elected its president in 1915. Breed began her administrative career in 1901 as the dean of women at Indiana University. She is one of the four “pioneering deans” featured by Jana Nidiffer (see below); the others are Marion Talbot at the University of Chicago, Ada Comstock at the University of Minnesota, and Lois Mathews at the University of Wisconsin. Breed was the first president of the Conference of Deans and Advisors of Women in State Universities. At Indiana she met with strong resistance from male students and faculty, which she countered by involving students in decision making, fought for the university to provide housing for women students, and advocated for them in any way possible. In 1906 she left for the University of Missouri, and in 1913 she returned to Pittsburgh, to the Margaret Morrison Carnegie School, where she held the position until her retirement in 1929.

rise in the number of institutions that admitted women, along with an increase in the proportion of women at those institutions that were already coeducational.

Prior to this time, if a college or university—either single sex or coeducational—had an academically educated woman with responsibilities above and beyond those of a regular faculty member, her title would be matron, preceptress, lady principal, or advisor, and her job duties tended to resemble more those of a house mother, responsible for the health, discipline, and living situations of women students but not their academic progress. As part of the trending increases in administrative personnel in general and in female students in particular, at coeducational institutions the position of dean of women was initiated during this period to take care of the needs of this new population of students. In 1911 the first statistical study of the position was conducted by Gertrude S. Martin, who surveyed fifty-five institutions and found that a majority of them (forty-four) had deans of women, and that most of these positions had been created within the previous ten years. During this period a professional identity began to form around this position as it increased in prevalence and authority. The deans from various institutions began to meet together in conferences and to form professional organizations: the Conference of Deans and Advisors in State Universities in 1905, the Conference of Deans at the Association of Collegiate Women in 1911, and the National Association of

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Deans of Women in 1916.\textsuperscript{159} In 1915 the first scholarly book on the topic was published: \textit{The Dean of Women} by Lois Mathews, who held that position at the University of Wisconsin.\textsuperscript{160}

The identity and duties of the role of dean at women’s colleges were necessarily different from those of the dean of women at coeducational universities, in that the office included responsibility for the entire student body and not just a portion of the student body, and one that was usually quite segregated at that.\textsuperscript{161} Yet similar trends in the increased recognition, authority, and professionalization of this office also can be seen at PCW. As noted above, the role of dean was first instituted at the college in 1903, just


\textsuperscript{160} Lois Kimball Mathews, \textit{The Dean of Women} (Cambridge, MA: Riverside, 1915).

\textsuperscript{161} The past two decades have seen considerable scholarly interest in the office of dean of women, notably in the research by Jana Nidiffer, Carolyn Terry Bashaw, and Kelly C. Sartorius. There has not been comparable research on the office of dean in women’s colleges, leaving us without a good understanding of how this office functioned in historic women’s colleges.

when many other colleges and universities were adding deans to their rosters. The definition of the position, as written by the Board, was such:

The Dean shall be Secretary of the Faculty and the social head of the College. As Secretary of the Faculty she shall keep the minutes of their meetings, prepare the schedule of the work in all departments, keep a permanent record of all work done by each student, and send reports of same to parents or guardians at stated intervals. She shall teach such classes as shall be assigned to her by the President or Trustees, not over three (3) periods daily. As the social head of the College she shall act as hostess in the entertainment of visitors: preside at all social functions. She shall have oversight of all matters of deportment, mirror discipline and good order, deciding where students may go from the College and under which chaperonage, and where they may receive in the College parlors what shall be considered “good persons” and what may not be permitted. She shall maintain good order and proper deportment in the entire College and use her best efforts to promote the dignity and refinement of the College life. In these matters she shall have the assistance and co-operation of the Faculty.

In general it shall be her duty to secure to each student the best possible advantage of her college life and to give to each such counsel, advice, and admonition as shall promote their culture in the scholarship, manners, and character, that shall best prepare them for the manifold duties of sweet and noble womanhood.

In the absence of the President she shall assume his place in all matters requiring action during such absence.

The position was originally envisioned very much in the guise of the old role of preceptress or matron. The dean’s duties were to schedule courses and maintain records, enforce student discipline, and advise students, in addition to teaching and modeling

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162 As a point of comparison, PCW’s neighbor, the University of Pittsburgh, did not hire a dean of women until 1919, considerably later than typical at coeducational universities (Richard J. Herdlein, A History of Innovation at the University of Pittsburgh: The Role of the Student Personnel Dean, 1919–1980 [Lewiston, NY: Edwin Mellen, 2005]).
163 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, August 10, 1903.
“sweet and noble womanhood” for the students. But with a much longer description spelling out all its duties, her primary role was clearly to be “the social head of the College.” Eastman, PCW’s first dean, appears to have satisfied that aspect of the job well. She was remembered as “a woman of thorough education and refinement; she gave dignity to the office and set a standard for her successors.”

As the only activities reported of Eastman in the materials that have been preserved were indeed social—hosting teas, receptions, and suppers—certainly she was the “social head” of the institution.

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164 Coolidge, “The Spirit of Service: An Appreciation,” address given at the jubilee celebration, 1920, typewritten manuscript.

Wilson College, as noted above, was two years ahead of PCW, instituting the dean position in 1901. Its position description is remarkably similar to that of PCW, also emphasizing social duties, class scheduling and maintenance, recordkeeping, and student discipline (Minutes of the Curriculum Committee of the Board of Trustees of Wilson College, February 19, 1901). Moreover, both Wilson and PCW paid a salary of $1000. Eastman would thus have brought relevant experience to PCW and been able to step readily into the role there.

“The Curriculum Committee report as follows: First, they recommended the creation of the office of Dean, which shall be charged with the following duties: To act as Secretary of the Faculty, to keep a record of the work done by each student, to see that the students are fully informed of their present standing, and the requirements of each year in their progress toward their degrees, to make out and send to the parents at stated times reports and statements of the progress and deportment of the students, and with the President, to have oversight of everything pertaining to the College work,—the conduct of classes, the assignment of special duties to teachers and students, the choice of text books, assignment of class rooms, and general oversight of the deportment and discipline of the students, especially the minor points of discipline. The more serious matters to be referred to the President and Faculty.

The office of the Dean shall be charged with the general management of all details pertaining to the conduct of the school from day to day, but shall have no responsibility for the housekeeping, boarding, or physical comfort of the students.”

165 *The Sorosis*, November 1903, 22; December 1903, 24; February 1906, 23; April 1906, 20, 21; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1905, 14.
Coolidge’s activities at PCW included, but also went considerably beyond, this narrow description. Throughout her eleven years as dean, she changed the position to one of greater authority over the academic program and greater responsibility in all aspects of the college’s maintenance. Coolidge, reflecting the changes occurring in the larger realm of academic administration, professionalized the role as she engaged it. From its beginning she was active in the Conference of Deans, and in general she stayed in frequent contact with colleagues at institutions far and wide. That her thumb was fully in all happenings at the college is clear in her annual reports in the alumnae journal. Coolidge would tell how Lindsay often described her duties as “doing anything he did not feel like doing at any time he did not feel like doing it.” Such a comment, which he surely said with a smile, conveys a sense of the productive working relationship and the strong degree of trust that must have existed between the two. But more than that, it reveals that there was not a clear line of demarcation between the responsibilities of president and dean at PCW during those years. The role of dean had clearly been shifted into a position of greater institutional authority than outlined in its original description.

In 1917 Coolidge gave a speech on the position of the dean. In it she referred to Mathews’s book on the dean of women, which had been published two years prior; thus,

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166 Coolidge, “The Spirit of Service: An Appreciation,” address given at the jubilee celebration, 1920, typewritten manuscript; Coolidge, untitled address on the position of dean, unknown occasion, 1917, typewritten manuscript. The address on the position of dean does not include a date on the manuscript. Two internal clues (that Coolidge spoke of leaving the job to a successor and the number of years she stated it had been since she had had a leave of absence) lead to a date of 1917. There are no clues in the speech itself as to the place where it was given or the audience, and I have not found reference to the event in any secondary document, so those details will regrettably need to remain unknown.

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Coolidge apparently saw much common ground between deans of women at coeducational universities and deans at women’s colleges. In presenting her conceptualization of the position, she incorporated much of the wisdom gained from her own experience over the years.

Thirteen years of experience as dean have convinced me that certain qualities are essential for success and many others desirable; that certain difficulties are inherent in the position and that certain rewards are worthy for the striving. It is certain that an all around preparation may be made most useful, for the dean must both make the machinery run and produce atmosphere; must be a business woman and a public speaker; also a college professor and a home maker. Last but not least, a social lady and a confidential advisor and friend to all.167

To be effective in the job, Coolidge argued, a dean needs a certain wideness of experience and perspective. Yet the daily work is often made up of endless, small tasks; the necessary challenge is to stand above them and find the broad themes running throughout, to make the job a meaningful whole.

On a daily basis come to the dean questions that require swift judgment, requiring analytic thinking that looks past the personal to the common good. Making decisions with confidence, Coolidge learned, becomes easier with time, and a dean always must have the courage to stand by a decision that was wisely made. Often the dean’s reasons for doing many things cannot be shared, leading to complaints and misjudgment from both faculty and students, an unpleasant situation that must simply be borne. Yet Coolidge also found that “the rewards of the work are many, but like the rewards of parenthood, the greatest are those that are never told”—they include the opportunity to

167 Coolidge, untitled address on the position of dean, unknown occasion, 1917, typewritten manuscript.
serve in ways both large and small, the natural pride in one’s faculty and students, and the connections one is able to make with members of the larger community. Speaking from that experience, she could state, “I believe that the office is destined to fill a larger and larger part of educational life, and that the women who take it up will not regret it.”

Mary Acheson Spencer

A member of the class of 1883, Mary Acheson Spencer spent the remainder of her life devoting her talent and her resources to her alma mater. The daughter of a prominent Pittsburgh circuit judge, Mary Acheson married Charles Spencer, a (not happily employed) manager for Henry Clay Frick, in the autumn following her graduation. They had seven children, including a set of twins. Her daughter Ethel, who became an English professor at the Carnegie Institute of Technology, wrote a family memoir. In it, she recollected how she and her siblings, as they were growing up, had to share their mother’s attention with the college:

I don’t know how many girls she helped to an education. When her own ability to contribute financially was exhausted she appealed to wealthy friends and relatives. She personally saw to it insofar as she was able that there should be a college in Pittsburgh for them to go to. Thanks more to her than to any other one person she helped pull her

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168 Coolidge, untitled address on the position of dean, unknown occasion, 1917, typewritten manuscript.
169 The historian Michael McGerr somehow became aware of this personal memoir and features Mary Acheson Spencer as his example of the prototypical late-Victorian middle-class woman who was highly intelligent, well educated, and though dutifully cared for her family and home, remained less-than-fulfilled by these domestic responsibilities (A Fierce Discontent: The Rise and Fall of the Progressive Movement, 1870–1920 [New York: Oxford University Press, 2003], 42-48).
Alma Mater, the Pennsylvania College for Women, through some very rocky days early in this century. We used to tease her about P.C.W. and accuse her of caring more for it than she did for her own children.\textsuperscript{170}

After the children were grown and Charles’s death in 1912, Spencer’s attention was fully turned to charitable work until her own death in 1950.

The first locus for Spencer’s activity was the Alumnae Association. The Alumnae Association of PCW had been formed in 1876, when there were forty-eight graduates of the college—five years earlier than even the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, which was, in its early years, a product of the alumnae of the eastern women’s colleges—and it became an especially active enterprise. Soon “Decade Clubs” that included the graduates of a single decade were formed for social and charitable activities. And particularly noteworthy for those alumnae who wanted to continue their scholarly endeavors was the establishment of Colloquium in 1898, a club formed to foster greater knowledge in art, literature, and history through monthly meetings; it became the premier women’s literary club in Pittsburgh.\textsuperscript{171} Over the years Spencer was a pillar of the Alumnae Association, serving in all possible capacities, including class secretary, member of numerous committees, editor of the \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, and officer—with not


Speaking of herself in the third person, Spencer joked about her reputation for ignoring her family for the sake of good works: “She barely escapes being a ‘Mrs. Jellaby,’ for the claims of the College, Church, Sunday School, and McAll Mission threaten at times to encroach on the home duties” (Spencer, “Class of ’83,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1908, 28-30, here 30).

one but two stints as president, in 1892 and 1917.\textsuperscript{172} The Alumnae Association was a strong supporter of the social service program, sponsoring countless lectures and hosting other events on service topics through these years. In her capacity as a long-term and heavily invested leader of the association, Spencer’s hand was most surely behind the choice of these speakers and the planning of its other civic and service-related activities.

The alumnae were deeply distressed by the Board’s treatment of President DeVore; in the words of the incumbent president, “We feel that our inspiration is going and we are powerless to stay it. Who can measure the impetus of an up-to-date, thoroughly conscientious woman who has given so freely of herself to the development and progress of our college on every hand?”\textsuperscript{173} In that the stance of the alumnae was apparently not considered, this action served as a catalyst for the Alumnae Association to

\textsuperscript{172} See her erudite presidential addresses: \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1892, 3-5; \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1917, 3-6.

\textsuperscript{173} Florence Holmes Davis, “President’s Address,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1900, 1-3, here 3.
place a formal request that they be represented on the Board. The trustees approved the measure, deciding for one woman to be elected in each of the three classes of trustees; thus the Board would include at least three women at all times. Spencer was elected to the Board in 1902, a position she held until 1950.174 She recalled how, as a new trustee, she figured out what leadership tactics were most successful in a male-dominated setting:

Memory bears me back nearly a dozen years to the time when there was conferred upon me the honor of filling a vacancy on the Board of Trustees of my Alma Mater. The Board then consisted of twenty-seven men and three women. A score of meetings were held in that troubled year of 1902–03, and the silent new member had no satisfaction in them beyond that of knowing that two-thirds of the time, had she not been present, there would have been no quorum. This was her first opportunity of meeting men on a business footing, and of comparing their methods with those of women. It took but little penetration to discover that in both sexes it was, after all, personality that counted.175

Though Spencer spoke of being silent at first, it must be noted that women were full members of the Board, with voice and vote. Indeed, the first three women came onto the Board as de facto veterans, already having been heavily involved with the college and

174 “Report of the Special Meeting of the Alumnae Association,” Alumnae Recorder, 1900, 6-7; Minutes of the Board of Trustees, June 7, 1900; July 2, 1902; Dysart, Chatham College, 96, 154.

The women elected in three classes of trustees were Mary Robbins Miller ’77 (1900), Mrs. John S. Nevin (1901), and Mary Acheson Spencer (1902). Unlike the other two, Nevin was not herself an alumna but the mother of an alumna, Mary Hawes Nevin ’96, who had just died in 1899. I have not been able to determine her given (nonmarried) name.

175 Spencer, “Tribute of the Trustees and Alumnae,” Alumnae Recorder, 1914, 3-5, here 3-4, emphasis original.

The humor with which Spencer wrote, when telling about how the College Club was started, provides a sense of her own personality—humble, optimistic, competent, dedicated, and able to be both lighthearted and serious at the same moment (“What It Means to Be a Director in a College Club,” Alumnae Recorder, 1909, 17-20).
knowledgeable about its practices, and they became some of the most active trustees during their years of service.\textsuperscript{176}

The Alumnae Association was instrumental to the ultimate success of the endowment drive of 1903–1905, as discussed above. In the 1890s, when the nation was in the midst of a recession and many PCW students were having difficulty paying tuition, the Alumnae Association instituted a permanent scholarship fund, for which they engaged in several fundraising initiatives each year and raised impressive proceeds. Spencer served as a member of the scholarship committee during these years. Through this experience the alumnae had become proficient in the practices of raising money, an expertise they turned toward the endowment campaign in 1903. Spencer brought her considerable financial skills to the efforts of both the Board and the alumnae, for she was appointed as both a member of the endowment committee of the Board and the chair of the endowment committee of the Alumnae Association. Her expertise again became essential to PCW’s next campaign in 1923, when she was named as chair of the Board endowment committee.\textsuperscript{177} Moreover, Spencer brought to her work the less tangible but equally necessary elements of optimism and vision. She challenged those who loved PCW to imagine with her its possibilities: “Let your imaginations have free play; see your Alma Mater the peer of any woman’s college in the land; see the well-equipped

\textsuperscript{176} Dysart, \textit{Chatham College}, 117, 154.

The Alumnae Association also led the charge in the endowment drive in the early 1920s. Many of the alumnae responded to the campaign with generosity and ingenuity, and a full ninety percent of the pledges received were raised through their efforts.
modern buildings set on some other, but equally beautiful, hill top; see five hundred, one thousand, two thousand students thronging her doors, with as many graduated annually as four decades have totalled! . . . And, in the enthusiasm of such a vision, ‘Act! Act! in the living Present.’”¹⁷⁸

Through the years Spencer’s untiring support of the college was recognized and honored. In 1925 PCW conferred on her an honorary M.A. In later decades two memorial funds were established in her name, one for scholarships and one for the library, then in 1952 the new residence for the dean was named in her honor. The last was perhaps the most fitting, in light of how she became a good friend and strong ally of Coolidge during her time in the deanship. And it was by Spencer’s quick initiative that Coolidge was later convinced to return as president.¹⁷⁹

In 1908, the year when social service was introduced to the college, Spencer mused to her colleagues about the benefits of aging: “but what more could a woman ask than to have reached the ‘Fiery Forties’ of life in the opening decade of this glorious Twentieth Century with its incomparable opportunities for service, and for bringing to

¹⁷⁸ Spencer, “President’s Address,” Alumnae Recorder, 1917, 3-6, here 5-6.
¹⁷⁹ Dysart, Chatham College, 93, 161, 171, 228; Spencer, “Our Dean,” Alumnae Recorder, 1917, 10-12.

Dysart poignantly describes the laying of the cornerstone of the new chapel in 1949: “This event was particularly memorable because of the presence and address of a frail little woman, Mrs. Charles H. Spencer, whose long-time devotion to the college is a factor in its very existence today. As alumna and trustee, whose memory of the college reached back seventy years to her student days, whose determination and affection had resolved many a thorny issue through the years, and whose Christian demeanor had been an inspiration to many college generations, her life symbolized what the chapel was to stand for in the college tradition. Participation in this ceremony was her last official act on the campus. Her funeral services were held on the day the chapel was dedicated in May 1950.” (p. 227)
perfection the higher dreams of youth?" Service was most certainly the leitmotif of her own life. And it was through that ideal of service that Spencer surely inspired the students in the social service course. Back in 1883, Spencer was the valedictorian of her class, and the topic of her commencement speech was “The World Grows Better.” It seems that she took that theme to heart for the remainder of her life, working generously and steadfastly for the greater good.

Oliver McClintock

Elected to the Board in 1872, Oliver McClintock served as a PCW trustee for the next fifty years, until his death in 1922. He was a champion of the college during these decades, bridging its development from the very earliest days through the modernity of the 1920s. On the Board he was a great influence, a member of too many permanent and ad hoc committees to count, always willing to take on another task for the college. Spencer, whose term overlapped with his for twenty years, observed how “the passing years ever increased his abiding love for the College; deepened his hope of a glorious future, which he often spoke of as ‘seeing’; and strengthened his faith in the people of Pittsburgh who would someday make his ‘dream come true.’”

McClintock was a prominent businessman in home furnishings, inheriting what was the oldest mercantile firm in Pittsburgh, and held bachelors and masters degrees from

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181 E. Spencer, The Spencers of Amberson Avenue, 135.
182 Spencer, “Fifty Years of Service,” Alumnae Recorder, 1923, 11-12, here 11-12.
Yale College. He had bought property and built a house in what was becoming a distinguished part of the “streetcar suburb” of Shadyside in the 1860s and 1870s.\footnote{Robert J. Jucha, “The Anatomy of a Streetcar Suburb: A Development History of Shadyside, 1852–1916,” \textit{The Western Pennsylvania Historical Magazine} 62, no. 4 (October 1979): 301-319, esp. 307-308.} His interests and contributions to the city were numerous and far-ranging. As a successful merchant, he was active in the Chamber of Commerce. The well educated and articulate McClintock also soon became a leader in education. In addition to the PCW Board, he was a trustee for the Western Theological Seminary from 1876, for a time serving as its president. And he joined a group of other men to found the Shadyside Academy, a

\footnote{The Spencer house, which was built in 1885, was only about a half block away from the McClintock house. Extended families of both the McClintock and the Spencer families lived in the immediate neighborhood, and all the children played together. (E. Spencer, \textit{The Spencers of Amberson Avenue}) Coincidentally, the Oliver McClintock family, out of six children in all, comprised a final set of twins, just like the Spencer family. Mary Acheson Spencer’s house still stands as a single-family residence, but Oliver McClintock’s house no longer remains.}
college preparatory school for boys, in 1883. Speaking at a PCW event, he expressed his views on the importance of higher education for women:

Our churches and colleges and schools should be cherished and maintained as our most valuable possessions,—the chief source from whence we are to derive the moral strength and health of the people. . . . The prosperity of a college like this is of great importance to the welfare of this community. . . . This is the only women’s college in the center of a wide field of opportunity and need for the higher education of women. Its past success has been most encouraging and its future possibilities are great.

Perhaps less expectedly, this “prickly Presbyterian individualist” also became a leader in social and political reform, holding membership and often leadership roles in most all of the notable reform organizations in Pittsburgh of that time, including the Civic Club of Allegheny County, the Citizens’ Municipal League, the Civil Service Reform Association, the American Civic Association, and the Emergency Public Safety Committee, and he was a strong proponent for the formation of the Associated Charities of Pittsburgh in 1908. One example of his fervor was his well publicized fight against political corruption in the 1890s, spearheading an attempt to break up the cronyism of paving contracts awarded by the city government and joining the push to elect a new progressive, reform-minded mayor. Through his family heritage and his position in the

185 “The Inauguration of President Acheson,” 1915, booklet; induction speech by McClintock, 29-30.
life of the city, McClintock was able to assist the social service program by making
connections between the leaders of Pittsburgh’s civic and philanthropic organizations and
the social service students, especially in their need for employment after graduation. He
brought to the college, and certainly also to the social service program, significant
experience with the methods of municipal reform and community organizing.

At PCW, McClintock was heavily invested in the financial and executive situation
of the college during the tumultuous early 1900s. He was the chair of the executive
committee early on, then when the special committee for the endowment campaign was
named, he was chosen as its chair. On the latter especially he worked with
“indefatigable efforts and untiring zeal.” When the endowment situation was looking
near hopeless toward the end of 1905, for the final six weeks McClintock neglected his
company to fundraise full-time, securing pledges for almost $100,000. By many, he was
credited with doing nothing less than saving the college through his effort. Two weeks
after the victorious close of the drive, McClintock was elected to be the new president of
the Board. This position, which gave him even greater prominence in the affairs of the
college, he held through 1920.190

At both public events and in private correspondence, McClintock was especially
sensitive to the unique situation of Pittsburgh. He saw the potential of the college in
terms of the wide geographical area it covered, with its many profitable businesses and

Renaissance: Planning in Pittsburgh, 1889–1943 (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh
Press, 2006), esp. 40, 49.
188 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, December 8, 1903.
189 Elizabeth Burt Mellor, “President’s Address,” Alumnae Recorder, 1906, 1-3, here 1;
190 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, January 18, 1906.
potential students. As a businessman, he also saw perhaps more clearly than the scholars and pastors who predominated the college’s leadership the economic pull of vocational training against liberal college education in a city that was focused more on industry than on culture. His conviction that classical educational standards must not be set aside for practical needs were mirrored in the social service course, which held in careful balance academic theory and vocational training.

We are accustomed to rank human occupations by some kind of scale of comparative nobility and usefulness. But, in educational matters, our judgments may be warped from a true standard by the pressure of our environment. Thus, public opinion, as to what should be the controlling principles in education, differs in New England cities from that which obtains in this commercial city, absorbed in trade and manufacturing. Here, the old educational standards are undervalued. Here, the old and tried methods of scholastic training are challenged. Here, the acquisition of general culture and mental discipline, or accuracy in thinking and an attitude of wise discrimination towards character and beliefs and life in general, are subordinated to the much vaunted vocational training and the craftsman’s skill of hand, because the former are not considered as passing the “acid test” of quick returns and a utilitarian money-earning value.191

McClintock was forward-thinking and displayed a distinct broadness and openness to social change. For instance, despite being himself a staunch Presbyterian, he pressed for years to change the college charter so that it would no longer require that a certain proportion of the trustees be Presbyterian.192 Even into his 80s, he was still looking ahead. In probably the last public address he gave as president of the Board,

191 “The Inauguration of President Acheson,” 1915, booklet; induction speech by McClintock, 28-29.
192 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, April 9, 1903; April 20, 1903; June 5, 1905. The change was not made until 1911 (see chapter 3).
McClintock emphasized new opportunities for women’s public usefulness, and in particular the role that young, college-educated women could play in social service and the improvement of social ills.

They [the young women of our country] need college preparation for leadership in the great movements of reconstruction that are rapidly developing, such as that for woman suffrage, and in the constantly widening fields of occupation and social influence that are opening up for women. The present outlook, by reason of the enlarged sphere of woman’s usefulness, is promising for the future of our race and of our civilization. The beneficent results of their increased activities are already apparent, in many directions, for the betterment of our own social conditions and the welfare of suffering people abroad.193

The Pittsburgh Survey

It was thanks to the chief probation officer at the Juvenile Court of Allegheny County that the Pittsburgh Survey was undertaken. Alice Montgomery had seen the March 1906 issue of the new journal *Charities and the Commons*, which included a report on an investigation of slum housing conditions in Washington, D.C. That study had been performed by the New York Charity Organization Society. Montgomery wrote to the journal’s editor with a request that the society appoint a special investigator to produce a similar study of the social conditions in the greater Pittsburgh area. “We feel,” she stated, “that the people of Allegheny County are not as yet wide awake as to the

193 McClintock, address given at the jubilee celebration, 1920, typewritten manuscript.
needs of the poor, and it is almost impossible with our limited corps of workers, to make the systematic investigation and presentation that is needed."\textsuperscript{194}

Their response was positive, and the society provided an initial grant of $1000 toward the project. The newly created Russell Sage Foundation contributed $7000; it was the foundation’s first foray into what would become a long tradition of investment in social research. Some of the local leaders from Pittsburgh, including the mayor, a judge, politicians, and directors of charitable organizations, pledged the assistance of their offices, and the local Pittsburgh Civic Association allotted $350. Paul Kellogg, the journal’s assistant editor, was charged with directing the investigation. It was expected that he and a small staff would complete the fieldwork and other research in three months, starting in early 1907, the results of which would be published in a special issue of \textit{Charity and the Commons} like the Washington, D.C., study. Instead, after seeing the possibilities the city’s situation presented, the scope of the project was enlarged to extend a full eighteen months, ultimately requiring countless more workers and another $27,000 in support from the Russell Sage Foundation.

The purpose of the Pittsburgh Survey (or simply the Survey, as it came to be known) was to investigate the effects of industrialization on the living and working conditions of the population. From its rural, agricultural heritage, the United States had become increasingly urban and industrial; Pittsburgh’s steel and iron mills, coal mines,

glass and brick factories, and a rapidly increasing immigrant population made it the quintessential industrial city of the age, “a microcosm of the new industrial America.”  

The city was experiencing urban problems including air pollution, raw sewage in the rivers that led to high instances of typhoid fever, population density, and high rates of poverty. Pittsburgh thus had the opportunity to serve as the setting for research that would not just describe local conditions but help to determine new urban policies that could be applicable elsewhere, providing a roadmap for social action.  

An advisory committee included John R. Commons, a professor of political economy at the University of Wisconsin; Florence Kelley, formerly of Hull House and active in labor reform; and Robert Woods, the director of South End House in Boston. A staff of seventy-four experts was recruited from charity agencies, settlement houses, universities, ethnic organizations, and public health services across the country to gather data. A photographer and an illustrator created a series of photos and sketches of workers and their families. The final report was written primarily by five people, including


Kellogg himself, who each spent over a year in the city doing fieldwork and assessment. All were only in their twenties, and though they had background in social work, they had relatively little experience in the particular areas they researched and analyzed. Crystal Eastman studied work accidents and the law; Elizabeth Beardsley Butler studied women’s employment; Margaret E. Byington studied the family and domestic conditions of industrial workers; and John A. Fitch studied the social and economic situation of steelworkers. Some of the findings were initially disseminated in three issues of *Charities and the Commons* in early 1909, then published in six volumes between 1909 and 1914 (four major books with a specific focus and two collections of articles).  

The Survey can be considered nothing less than a pioneering feat, as the first ambitious effort to use team research to survey all aspects of the life of a single city. It made a great impact in its time, and it served as a model for subsequent sociological study. Both statistical data and individual case studies were woven together, giving a first-hand, human view of the problems described. What they did describe was shocking to many readers—the twelve-hour, seven-day shifts required for many workers; the alarming frequency of workers’ accidents; the low wages and pervasive poverty; the difficulties of sustaining family life; the sordid homes; the preventable illness and death. The Survey uncovered a tangle of problems for the world to see and revealed the inadequacies of the city’s current means of attempting to treat them. The analysis cried out for new solutions. As the renowned Pittsburgh sociologist Roy Lubove observed, “If

the multifaceted Pittsburgh Survey can be said to have a single theme, it would be, in
sharp contrast to the city’s economic sector, the fragmentation of its civic, political, and
social systems.” 198 Along with further concurrent actions during this era, the Survey
helped to serve as a catalyst for progressive social reform and civic planning in this and
other industrial cities throughout the next decades. 199

When making her request that Pittsburgh be the focus of a sociological study,
Alice Montgomery recognized that it would be impossible to carry out with the local
“limited corps of workers.” A new opportunity to educate women for social service work
locally would provide persons who were professionally trained to carry out such
investigations in the future. PCW’s decision to start a social service program was made
exactly when the Survey research was being carried out. Experts were on hand to give
lectures to the students on specialized topics, and more generally to serve for vocational
guidance and as inspiration. Case studies for student learning would have a familiarity
and immediacy to the students, as they were drawn directly from the Survey results. One
of the benefits of the Survey was that it inspired local charitable agencies to coordinate
better than they had previously; this cooperation proved necessary for the large role they
played in the fieldwork education of PCW students. Additionally, that the primary
researchers for the Survey were themselves young, predominantly female, and only
recently out of college may also have allowed PCW students to see the researchers as role
models for what they themselves might achieve after graduation.

198 Roy Lubove, “Pittsburgh and the Uses of Social Welfare History,” in City at the
Point: Essays on the Social History of Pittsburgh, ed. Samuel P. Hays (Pittsburgh:
University of Pittsburgh Press, 1989), 295-325, here 300.
199 Bauman and Muller, Before Renaissance, 51-67.
The Survey—both the activity of it and its publicized results—made greater Pittsburgh more aware of the social problems in its midst. Moreover, Pittsburgh was now in the national spotlight, identifying the city, in the eyes of the world, with sociological research and social service. This newfound consciousness of social need helped to drive recognition of, and community support for, the college’s social service course. The Survey thus made the city of Pittsburgh the exact right location, at the exact right time, for a college program in social service.

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All four of these factors proved to be essential elements for the establishment and success of the social service program. Their confluence at PCW during the first few years of the twentieth century erected a foundation on which new initiatives, such as this one, could stand. Of greatest importance was the financial stability of the college. Though it was now far from wealthy, PCW was at least solvent and no longer under threat of closure. Only with such security could its leaders even think of moving forward in any fashion. The curriculum could now support the addition of the social service course. Significant was not only this single instance of curriculum revision, but that the college had now started on a trajectory of ongoing curriculum reform into the next decades, periodically rethinking what courses and disciplines would best serve its new
generations of students. The Survey had plowed fertile ground in the city itself. Though those working in charity organizations had been well familiar with Pittsburgh’s social problems, now the entire city was aware of the pressing need for more social workers, just at the time when this profession was opening up for women. And as it moved forward, PCW had just the right mix of leadership for a social service program. All of the key personnel held modern, progressive-era ideals about women’s higher education and women’s vocations. The new president of the college was a visionary, eager to start in on a slate of improvements. The new president of the Board was himself active in civic reform efforts and thus was able to be not only an enthusiastic but also an empathetic supporter. The most ardent mover-and-shaker from the alumnae was exceptionally service-minded, someone who herself would certainly have enrolled in a social service course if it had been available. And the new dean, who was the primary instigator for introducing social service to the college, now had the authority over the academic program to put such a new department into place. In total, the combination of all these ingredients blended together into the perfect elixir.
CHAPTER 3
THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE SOCIAL SERVICE PROGRAM

On April 14, 1908, President Lindsay proposed to the Board of Trustees that a new course of study be initiated at the Pennsylvania College for Women. This course was the manifestation of Dean Coolidge’s vision for how the college could better empower women, in practical ways, to make a positive impact upon the world.200 “The purpose of this course,” Lindsay argued, “is to give to girls professional training in a practical department of life and which will enable them at an early date, to earn a living, if that should be necessary.” Lindsay related that, after devoting considerable time and attention to the matter, they had reached the conclusion that such a new course would coordinate well with the current college program. This new program would be known as “A Course in Professional Philanthropy.” Initially planned as one year’s duration, he speculated that it could easily be developed into two years of coursework. Students could elect a set of courses in the present curriculum, including ethics, philosophy, educational methods, critical study of the Bible, parliamentary law, and accounting, as well as other subjects that they might deem pertinent for their particular vocational interests. Alongside these subjects would be practical work carried out in cooperation with local charitable agencies. At this point the college had already received agreements for collaboration from the Kingsley House, the Juvenile Court of Allegheny County, and the

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Young Women’s Christian Association. Lindsay further envisioned a new series of lectures on economic and sociological topics that would be of interest to both PCW students and the general public.

The Board approved the president’s proposal and authorized the establishment of this new program. They charged Lindsay with further refining the curriculum and making all other arrangements necessary for its debut in the fall term. The Board also allocated monies, not to exceed $500, from the Permanent Improvement Fund to cover the first year of the new course. It was Lindsay’s hope that the program would eventually be funded from the regular income or earmarked donations, and not from a special appropriation.

College Developments, 1906–1910

When the new social service department was initiated in the spring of 1908, that undertaking must not be viewed as an anomalous incident. Over the prior two years, a rebuilding at PCW had brought the college to the place where it could successfully add such a new academic program. It was one element in the midst of numerous other changes and improvements occurring over a roughly four-year span. We might well

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201 By the time the program was formally announced in June, the Pittsburgh Playground Association, the Department of Public Safety, and the Carnegie Library had also pledged their support and offered assistance.
202 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, April 14, 1908.
203 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, April 14, 1908.
204 President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, February 19, 1909; June 4, 1909.
conclude that PCW’s social service program was one of the most significant and enduring of them. Yet it remains important to assess this program’s establishment and development within the general institutional fertility and evolution during these years in the college’s history.

As the year 1906 dawned, PCW found itself standing on new ground. The endowment had just been triumphantly achieved and the continuance of the college was secured. In the wake of the past crisis, an emerging hope arose. The school had a renewed lease on life and it faced the prospect of a bright future.205 The community felt a surging optimism, which brought a revitalized energy to all areas of the organization and the wider public—faculty, students, alumnae, and city alike. President Martin observed this shift in outlook:

> Our attainment to this degree of independence, and to this assurance of permanency, is a great gain. The enthusiasm inspired in the hearts of the alumnae and students, and the cordial interest aroused in the city and throughout the country are of great value. The spirit of hope and confidence is already manifesting itself in place of the feeling of discouragement and doubt that has so long depressed the college. . . . The students now in college have developed such loyalty and devotion to the school that I am convinced that this alone would be sufficient reward for our efforts, even if we had not succeeded in raising the funds. All these matters are grounds of encouragement and hope.

He continued on, however, to warn of the hard work that lay ahead: “But we must not permit ourselves to suppose that our work is done, nor rest in the expectation that the

205 “Rev. Dr. H. D. Lindsay Accepts Presidency,” *The Pittsburgh Post*, June 18, 1906.
college will now go on to brilliant success without our special care and close attention.\[206\]

This hard work was assumed by the incoming administration, the new president and the new dean who took up their posts later that year (Lindsay in the summer and Coolidge in autumn). They built on the optimism and renewed energy of the institution. What Lindsay stated as he announced that he would leave his pastorate for the presidency—"I believe in the future of the college, that it stands on the threshold of a large success"—was a sentiment held by many.\[207\] The community as a whole was anticipating an emerging success for the college, and they ushered in a new chapter in the college’s history.\[208\] “Never before has the future of our college looked so bright and promising,” proclaimed the opening line of the main editorial of the first issue of the student literary journal for academic year 1906–1907.\[209\] And the forthcoming creation of the social service department would be a foremost manifestation of the college’s bright, successful future.

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206 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, January 18, 1906; see also June 5, 1906, for similar sentiments in his final official report to the trustees before his resignation.
207 “Dr. Lindsay Announces Change to Congregation,” The Pittsburgh Times, March 19, 1906.
208 See further the comments in Coolidge, “The Spirit of Service: An Appreciation,” address given at the jubilee celebration, 1920, typewritten manuscript; and “The Inauguration of President Acheson,” 1915, booklet; induction speech by McClintock. They observed how PCW’s leaders at this time saw the possibilities in the college; how they took it from its very lowest point, then wisely and assiduously built it up. In the case of Lindsay’s untimely death, they imagined how proud he would have been to see how far his efforts took the college.
209 The Sorosis, October 1906, 21.
Institutional Ambitions

From the moment he stepped into the presidency, Lindsay held the highest aspirations for the school. In his very first report to the Board, he stated flat out to them, “I am very ambitious for larger things for our College.” Yet the challenges were great; there was much building up that needed to occur. Of the magnitude of these tasks the new president was quite aware, asserting that he would tackle the college’s deficiencies with all the ability he could muster. In his inaugural address, Lindsay acknowledged:

This Pennsylvania College for Women has many needs. It needs money, much of it, for endowments and for buildings. It needs the interest and pride of the community. It needs a more definite and aggressive loyalty on the part of its alumna. It needs more students. I am persuaded these needs will all be met and we will have here an institution which will be an honor to this large and cultured community, an institution whose power for good cannot be calculated, as it educates the women who are to themselves the educators of the race. Let us have faith in our work and make this college the peer of any in the land and I am persuaded there will be no trouble either about support or students.

This final concept would be repeated often through the upcoming years—that the way to make certain that PCW would never again face the specter of closure would be to increase its quality across various measures. The goal was to invest in the school, with the hope that such actions would achieve a future return. It was felt that if the college

210 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 16, 1906.
211 “Formally Inaugurated College President,” *The Pittsburgh Post*, June 11, 1907; for further coverage of this event, see also “New President Maps His Course,” *The Pittsburgh Gazette*, June 11, 1907.
improved, the Pittsburgh community would notice the betterments, which would make
them more inclined to support it financially. Success would breed success.\footnote{212}

The Lindsay era was remembered as the period when PCW began to achieve a
national reputation. The position and influence of the college grew steadily during these
years, and its standing was raised materially. Lindsay, along with Coolidge and the
faculty, were recognized for their tireless efforts to enhance and broaden the strengths
that PCW had developed during its first three and a half decades.\footnote{213}

\textit{Relationship to the Local Community.} Most colleges during this period were
primarily local institutions, with over half of their student body coming from within fifty
miles, and for women’s higher education, such local connection was even more true.
PCW was no exception. There would always be a few Pittsburgh-area girls who, after
completing high school or a preparatory school, would have the gumption and parental
support to go east for college. But for most local girls, if they did not get a college
education close to home, they would not get any further education at all.\footnote{214}

For this reason, the leaders of PCW felt a great responsibility—treating it as even
a moral responsibility—toward meeting this local educational need. The city was
growing rapidly and there was a corresponding growing need for an institution that would

\footnotetext{212}{President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, December 11, 1906; June 4, 1907;
February 19, 1909.}
\footnotetext{213}{William L. McEwan, “Henry Drennan Lindsay: A Funeral Address,” \textit{The Sorosis},
February 1914, 4-8; “College Head Is Called by Death,” \textit{The Pittsburgh Gazette}, January
19, 1914.}
\footnotetext{214}{“Dr. Lindsay’s Inaugural Address, as President of Pennsylvania College for Women,”
\textit{The Sorosis}, October 1907, 4-9.}
provide the highest type of education. And if PCW neglected to do it, another institution would take its place.\textsuperscript{215} In 1906 Lindsay lamented that Pittsburgh was the only major city in the nation that did not have a top women’s college, whereas other city’s colleges were filled with students. He asked, “Could there be a better time for an advance movement in a higher education of women than just now, or a better place for it than Pittsburgh?”\textsuperscript{216} The president of the Alumnae Association also urged the recognition of this responsibility: “Our college has taken a new lease on life, and can reasonably hope for continued prosperity. . . . Renewed strength brings with it an obligation on our part to live up to the full measure of the responsibilities imposed upon us. . . . A women’s college is needed in this section of our state. Let us try by our united efforts to make of this college an institution of learning which not only we the alumnae, but the whole community shall look upon with pride.”\textsuperscript{217}

Of Lindsay’s initial three goals for the college, one of them was to increase its reputation in the community.\textsuperscript{218} But Coolidge observed a central dilemma: it was difficult for a small college in a large city to get attention. Because cities offer a large number of interests and activities on a regular basis, it becomes impossible for any

\textsuperscript{215} Henry D. Lindsay, letter to Mr. and Mrs. William R. Thompson, March 21, 1906, handwritten.

\textsuperscript{216} “Dr. Lindsay’s Inaugural Address, as President of Pennsylvania College for Women,” \textit{The Sorosis}, October 1907, 4-9, here 8.

\textsuperscript{217} Martin, “President’s Address,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1906, 1-3, here 3.

\textsuperscript{218} The other two goals were to increase the school’s academic strength and its financial stability (President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 8, 1907). During these years PCW made measurable progress on the first two goals but was less successful on building financial strength.
college to serve as the center of intellectual and social activity.\textsuperscript{219} During the endowment drive of the previous years, more people had become aware of the school—but there remained much room for growth. And now, the college was working to build itself to a position where it could regularly (and not only in a time of crisis) command the attention of affluent people who believed in the benefits of higher education for women. Its leaders were continually aware of the challenges of competing with the wealthier women’s colleges.\textsuperscript{220}

McClintock viewed the situation with an eye toward business and commerce. He especially recognized the “wide field of opportunity” of the geographical region, with Pittsburgh located in the center of a large area of commercial opportunity and educational need. PCW was the sole high-quality option for postsecondary education for women within a one-hundred-mile radius of thriving industry and financial prosperity. Within this area, therefore, resided a multitude of potential students. Colleges benefit their communities in a myriad of ways and, he argued, they should be financially supported; the prosperity of a college like PCW and the prosperity of its city were linked.\textsuperscript{221}

It was a perennial question: Why did Pittsburgh not support its Pennsylvania College for Women more strongly? Why did its philanthropists not fund it more generously? Why did its parents not send more of their daughters as students? These concerns were mentioned with great frequency, yet without satisfying answers. A

\textsuperscript{220} President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, February 19, 1909; October 22, 1909. 
\textsuperscript{221} McClintock, address given at the jubilee celebration, 1920, typewritten manuscript; “The Inauguration of President Acheson,” 1915, booklet; induction speech by McClintock.
contrast was often drawn with the eastern women’s colleges, which were not perceived to have such difficulties with community support. Pittsburgh was experiencing great financial prosperity and population growth, yet still not strongly supporting PCW—unlike New England’s support for its own women’s colleges. “This discouraging disparity,” it was felt, “is not creditable to our enlightenment, to our progressiveness, or our Christianity, which ought to be the mother of colleges.”

These questions were asked not only by Pittsburghers. Even a visitor to the city wondered at its lack of support for women’s higher education. The president of Bryn Mawr College, M. Carey Thomas, delivered a speech on May 6, 1905, at the Hotel Schenley. She was invited by the Pittsburgh Committee on the Bryn Mawr Endowment Fund to address the general subject of college education for women and the particular work of Bryn Mawr College. Her remarks about the local situation (quoted here in their entirety) are a fascinating glimpse of how an eminent educator perceived the city and its educational endeavors.

222 McClintock, letter to Coolidge, n.d. (“about 1917 or 1918” in a later hand), typewritten. Also President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, February 19, 1909; Edith L. Edeburn, “President’s Report,” Alumnae Recorder, 1904, 1-3; “Report of the Alumnae Endowment Committee,” Alumnae Recorder, 1904, 14-17; Martin, “President’s Address,” Alumnae Recorder, 1906, 1-4; “The Woman’s College,” The Sorosis, February 1904, 3-5; Westanna McCay Pardee, “President’s Address,” Alumnae Recorder, 1907, 3-6; Eliza Bryant Barker, “President’s Address,” Alumnae Recorder, 1905, 1-3; “The Inauguration of President Acheson,” 1915, booklet; induction speech by McClintock. This question was also frequently raised during the endowment drive. This same question was raised in a letter to the editor of the New York Times. Henry Clay Frick (who by this time had moved his primary residence to New York City but still held considerable connection to Pittsburgh) had just donated large sums to Harvard and Princeton Universities. The letter writer wondered why he could not have supported women’s education as well, chastising him for not including women’s colleges in his beneficence. (Henry A. Stimson, “Forgotten Colleges: Rich Legacies Passing By the Institutions for Women,” The New York Times, December 10, 1919)
This is my first visit to Pittsburgh and as I have been driven about the city today and through your beautiful suburbs, and have realized how much solid substance and wealth must be represented by your comfortable and spacious houses upon your most picturesque hills, I have wondered more even than I wondered before I came, why it is that Pittsburgh is sending so few of its girls to college at all, and why we get so few of them at Byrn Mawr, which is your nearest great women’s college and, apart from your own Pennsylvania College for Women, your nearest women’s college of any kind. In each successive year in the Freshman classes that enter Bryn Mawr are from 20 to 30 Philadelphia girls; from 10 to 12 New York girls (most of them from families of influence and means); perhaps 8 or 10 from Boston and other New England cities; at least 5 or 6 from Baltimore; a like number from Chicago and so on. It seems to me sometimes as if we drew students from all over the United States except from our sister city of Pittsburgh. The few Pittsburgh girls we have had have made us long for more.

Here in Pittsburgh we are probably in the greatest manufacturing center in the United States. Your industrial products are driving competing English and German manufacturers out of the markets of the world. Your commercial success means that in intelligence, enterprise, and business capacity you are leading the rest of the country, but as yet you have not taken your rightful part in one of the greatest movements of modern times, the results of which will tend to place us as a nation immeasurably far above where we are today in business succeed and intellectual power.223

223 Typewritten manuscript titled “Address delivered by Miss M. Carey Thomas, at the Hotel Schenley, Pittsburgh, Saturday, May 6, 8 P.M.,” Reel 24, M. Carey Thomas Papers, Bryn Mawr College Archives.

The dating of this speech presents a conundrum. The year is not noted on the manuscript, and I have not been able to find a record of this event in materials from Pittsburgh itself. Thomas cites data from 1902 for the percentage of female students in U.S. secondary schools, so the speech must have been given later than this time. May 6 fell on a Saturday in 1905, 1911, and 1916. She refers to the founding of Bryn Mawr College as being twenty years prior. Bryn Mawr was founded in 1885, which would suggest that 1905 is the date of her speech.

A problem, however, arises with her diaries. Thomas was an irregular, even odd, diarist. Sometimes she had two diaries going for the same time periods, recording different types of information in them, and sometimes she would go for long stretches of time without
Thomas discerned the same dilemma as that posed by persons affiliated with PCW, namely, that a city with tangible financial prosperity did not support women’s education to a corresponding degree. Nor did she seem to have any answers.

The goals, in 1906, of PCW’s incoming administration for fostering strong relationships with the larger community persisted through and beyond this period. The college continued to work to increase local recognition and support. At the close of academic year in 1910, the college was “striving to build up in Pittsburgh a college which

writing anything at all in her diaries, leaving the pages blank for those dates. But her diary entry for May 6 in 1905 has her elsewhere on that day, and for the other two options (1911 and 1916), she has nothing entered at all for those times. Moreover, if it was 1911 or 1916 when she gave the speech, the question is why she would use such old data, from 1902.

Further complicating the issue, the finding aid prepared by the college archivists (“Reel 24: M. Carey Thomas Personal Papers; Letters to Mary Garrett. April 1902–February 1904”) refers to fundraising trips Thomas took to Chicago and Pittsburgh during this time span. This information contradicts Thomas’s statement in her speech that it was her first visit to Pittsburgh. Scanning through all the material in Reel 24, I did not see a mention to Pittsburgh at all. (Her Chicago trip is at the beginning of this set of letters.) Thomas’s correspondence with Mary Garrett, her intimate friend, was so regular when she was traveling out of town that it is hard to imagine that she did not write to Garrett either from Pittsburgh or about being there.

In all, we have a situation in which the primary materials are in disagreement of fact with one another. I find the arguments for dating the speech to 1905 to be the most logical, in spite of the contradiction in the diary, but I also recognize that 1911 may well have been the date instead. It is also possible, however, that Thomas’s speech—though typewritten in a continuous manuscript—might contain pieces from different sources; that is, that she might have reused material from a speech on women’s education (a topic she addressed frequently orally and in publications) from 1905 (hence the twenty years since the college founding) in a speech given in 1911.

Thomas did record information about a later trip to Pittsburgh in her diary, November 21-23, 1917 (Reel 139). She was in town to preside as toastmistress at a women’s suffrage banquet and to attend a rally for college women, and she had a meeting at Soldiers’ Memorial Hall. Most picturesque about her entry is her impression of the William Penn Hotel, where she records that she paid $12 for a bedroom, sitting room, and bath: “Most dishonest hotel. Wretchedly managed. Hotel itself pleasant. Food bearable fair.”

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will exactly meet the needs of our Western Pennsylvania women, and which will be a
center of culture and of learning such as Pittsburgh will appreciate and be blessed in
sustaining.”224

“Like the Eastern Colleges.” Everyone at PCW, it seemed, had their eyes trained
toward the eastern women’s colleges—administration, faculty, students, trustees, even
alumnae. PCW was perpetually looking to the eastern women’s colleges to determine the
standards to attempt to meet. And they were quite familiar with the academic programs,
equipment, buildings, and policies of those schools. PCW’s leaders made numerous
visits to the eastern colleges throughout these years—Lindsay occasionally, but Coolidge
very frequently, both during academic years and during the summers, which she spent at
her home in Massachusetts.225

224 Lindsay, “Letter from Dr. Lindsay,” Alumnae Recorder, 1910, 36-37, here 37.
Also at the end of academic year 1909−1910, PCW was provided an unexpected boon to
its recognition with an impromptu private visit from the sitting U.S. president. On May
2, 1910, President William Howard Taft was visiting his sister-in-law, Mrs. Thomas
McKennan Laughlin, and addressed the students from the terrace of her home near the
campus. The event was celebrated not only for the benefit to the students’ education but
also its benefit to the college by means of the publicity of picturesque published
photographs. (Coolidge, “College Notes,” Alumnae Recorder 1910, 39-40; The Sorosis,
May 1910, 20; The Pittsburgh Gazette Times, “President Taft Spends a Joyous, Active
Day in Pittsburgh,” May 3, 1910. Photos also at historicpittsburgh.org)
Another event in 1910, however, seems not to have been so fortuitous. Representatives
from The Ladies’ Home Journal came to campus to take photographs for a series on
women’s colleges that would be published in the magazine, starting with the September
issue (Coolidge, “College Notes,” Alumnae Recorder, 1910, 39-40). These photos,
however, never seem to have been published. A search for any mention of PCW in The
Ladies’ Home Journal during these years reveals nothing. Nor have any clippings from
such a magazine article been preserved in the college archives.
225 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 16, 1908; Coolidge, “College
Notes,” Alumnae Recorder, 1910, 39-40; The Sorosis, May 1908, 35; The Sorosis,
The editorial in the February 1904 issue of the student literary journal was on the topic of “The Woman’s College.” This piece is especially useful for providing a view of how persons affiliated with PCW viewed and ranked the various women’s colleges of the day. They saw Smith, Wellesley, Vassar, Mount Holyoke, Bryn Mawr, Radcliffe, and Barnard as “the seven great colleges.” This group was limited in geography; on the U.S. far eastern border, bounded by Boston on the north and Philadelphia on the south.

Outside this set was “another group of colleges that have not been so fortunate but are doing good work.” In this category were placed Elmira, Wells, Wilson, and PCW. In a third rung the student editorial included The Women’s College of Baltimore, Randolph-Macon, and Converse, as schools further south, established more recently and “of somewhat different type.” Interesting is also the concern with beautiful grounds and surroundings for their campuses, placing Wellesley, Vassar, and PCW as enjoying the most fortunate physical locations. And the editorial noted as PCW’s distinction that it had “produced the largest and most regular annual deficit of any college in the world”—

October 1908, 30; The Sorosis, April 1910, 22; The Sorosis, November 1914, 32; The Sorosis, January 1916, 40.

Schools specifically noted for their visits include Smith (her alma mater), Wellesley, Mount Holyoke, Vassar, Bryn Mawr, and Barnard. Coolidge also visited three preparatory schools in the East, in order to consider their curriculum and management when PCW was determining how to separate off its preparatory department (Minutes of the Board of Trustees, April 14, 1908). Furthermore, back in 1885 President Pelletreau and Mary Pike, professor of Greek and Latin, had visited Vassar and Wellesley (Dysart, Chatham College, 81); and in 1900 President Chalmers Martin had visited Mount Holyoke (Dysart, Chatham College, 113) and the following year made additional visits to two eastern women’s colleges (which are not identified; Minutes of the Board of Trustees, February 13, 1901).
even if not properly verifiable, this assertion was clearly a nod to the difficult financial situation in which the college found itself in 1904.226

The college had long claimed that its academic programs were of the same quality as those of the eastern colleges. PCW students took the classical subjects to the same degree and at the same level as the students at “her sister colleges of the East”—and which was more than the students did at most of the men’s colleges.227 These claims that PCW was their equal in requirements and standards of academic work were borne out by the ease with which its students were able to continue study at these more prestigious colleges. PCW graduates who wanted to undertake graduate study were able to move directly into the graduate programs at eastern colleges; it was more common instead for the elite colleges to require graduates of smaller colleges to retake the senior undergraduate year. They also had no problems in continuing on at large universities.228

226 “The Woman’s College, The Sorosis, February 1904, 3-5.
227 Mary W. Brownson, “Some Recent Developments in College Education,” The Sorosis, October 1907, 9-13, here 11.
228 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 11, 1904; C. Martin, “The Year at College,” Alumnae Recorder, 1902, 3-9; Jane DeVore Porter, “Address by the President,” Alumnae Recorder, 1914, 13-17.

From the first edition of the Alumnae Recorder in 1883 through 1910, PCW alumnae are noted to have gone on for further study at Wellesley, Bryn Mawr, Barnard, Vassar, Smith, and Mount Holyoke Colleges. Bryn Mawr is the eastern women’s college most commonly chosen by PCW graduates. These students must be the types that Bryn Mawr President Thomas wished for more (as expressed in the quote above). The other colleges and universities attended by PCW alumnae include Cornell University, the University of Chicago, the University of Heidelberg, the University of Leipzig, Columbia University, the University of Pennsylvania, the University of Colorado, the University of Wooster, the Philadelphia School of Design for Women, and the State Library School at Albany. Many of these PCW alumnae completed M.A. programs, a few earned Ph.D.s, and several went on to teach at colleges and universities. (We must recognize that this list is most likely only partial, for it represents only those alumnae who took the effort to report to the Alumnae Recorder their information.)
Moreover, preparatory department students were also able to be readily admitted to baccalaureate programs at the eastern colleges. And some students had always opted to start at PCW for one or two years, then transfer to a nonlocal college for their upperclass years.229

Of course, the eastern women’s colleges were not only PCW’s standard to which to aspire; they also were its competition. Countless intelligent and talented Pittsburgh-area young women chose to go east for school rather than attend PCW, to the perpetual consternation of its president and faculty. Even the daughters of many of the alumnae opted to go elsewhere.230 One of the great ironies, in terms of these issues of community support for PCW and competition with other colleges, is that the daughters of two of PCW’s highest leaders did not attend the college but instead went east to complete their educations. Lindsay’s daughter Mary graduated from Vassar College. We know that she was in college in 1906, so she would have chosen Vassar when her father was a trustee of PCW but not yet its president. His second daughter, Lillie, did graduate from PCW, however.231 Mary Acheson Spencer had five daughters. Ethel and Mary did do a first freshwoman year at PCW before transferring to Radcliffe and Smith, respectively. Elizabeth also graduated from Smith. Adeline attended Bryn Mawr, and Kate took the secretarial course at the Carnegie Institute of Technology. Two of her daughters (Adeline

230 Westanna McCay Pardee, “President’s Address,” Alumnae Recorder, 1907, 3-6.
231 Lindsay, letter to Mr. and Mrs. William R. Thompson, March 21, 1906, handwritten. Lillie, with the nickname “Wild,” was a member of the class of 1912. She coached basketball at PCW for a few years, then later took a nursing course at Columbia University, which led her into professional public health work in California.
and Kate), however, spent some time in PCW’s preparatory department before attending boarding school elsewhere.\textsuperscript{232}

The public face PCW presented was of a women’s college of equal stature to eastern schools. We see this emphasis in advertising and other promotional materials. In a brochure disseminated in 1903, the very first paragraph introduced PCW as meeting its founders’ ambitions of providing the highest educational advantages, which had developed into a college that now “ranks with the leading educational institutions of the country, its requirements and courses equaling in all respects those of Vassar, Wellesley, Smith and other leading colleges.” The college was visibly proud that it was giving courses similar the courses at these colleges and employing the same quality and same number of teachers in proportion to enrollment as those institutions. Moreover, PCW’s print advertisements during this period, though of varied types, almost always included one of two phrases: either the phrase “admission according to the standard of the eastern colleges” or the phrase “the standard is the same as that of the Eastern colleges.”\textsuperscript{233} It

\textsuperscript{232} Ethel Spencer, *The Spencers of Amberson Avenue: A Turn-of-the-Century Memoir*, ed. Michael P. Weber and Peter N. Stearns (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1983), xxxvi, 74-100. The Spencer family lived frugally to be able to afford college education for all the children (pp. 83-84). McClintock had three daughters (Emma, Elsie, and Jeannette), all of whom attended the preparatory department and one of whom (Emma) continued on for a freshwoman year. I have not been able to determine whether any of them completed college elsewhere, but all three did not marry until their late twenties and early thirties. With as strong a supporter of women’s higher education as McClintock was, it is hard to believe that none of his daughters completed college. (“Oliver McClintock,” *History of Pittsburgh and Environ*, ed. George Thornton Fleming, 5 vols. [New York: The American Historical Society, 1922], 4.3-9)

\textsuperscript{233} Illustrated pamphlet, Pennsylvania College for Women, 1903–1904; “College Girls Increase Fund,” *The Pittsburgh Post*, December 20, 1905. Oddly, in these materials sometimes “Eastern” is capitalized and sometimes it is not.
served as a way to make clear to the public, and not only those already affiliated with the school, that, though small in size, it hewed to the highest academic quality.

Curricular Changes

These years saw an expanding curriculum and an expanding faculty beyond just the social service course, which strengthened the school’s academic character and provided stimulation to the college community.\(^{234}\) In autumn 1906, adding Bachelor of Music (B.M.) and Bachelor of Science (B.S.) degrees to the college’s offerings was considered; both degrees were recommended by Lindsay, but the Board opted not to adopt them.\(^{235}\) During these years, two new, up-to-date curricular areas were

\(^{234}\) Dysart, who was herself a member of the faculty for more than three decades, describes well the disciplinary interests, academic qualifications, personalities, and contributions of the individual faculty members teaching during this time (Chatham College, pp. 127-136).

\(^{235}\) President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, November 12, 1906; Minutes of the General Faculty, December 2, 1906; December 18, 1906. The sequence of the recorded minutes of faculty meetings is not complete for the time period of this study, and they present certain points of confusion. Faculty meeting minutes exist in two separate notebooks in the Chatham University archives, Folder 1 and Folder 2. Folder 1 includes minutes from meetings of the “College Faculty” from December 1900 through June 1913. Folder 2 begins in December 1900 with minutes from meetings of the “General Faculty” (presumably joint meetings of the college faculty and the preparatory school faculty) through September 17, 1907, but then, without explanation, all subsequent entries to the end of the notebook (January 1914) are for “the Faculty of Dilworth Hall” (the preparatory department was renamed Dilworth Hall in 1907; see below). Did the faculties of the college and the preparatory school perhaps no longer meet together anymore at that point? Moreover, entries for the college faculty meetings from November through May of academic year 1906–1907 are simply missing altogether. Throughout the earlier years faculty meetings were held twice per month, but the meetings of both bodies became less frequent toward the latter years, just two or three times per year.
developed—Modern European Social History and Modern International Relations—which included three new courses each. A department of Italian was planned to open in academic year 1910–1911. Single new courses in higher mathematics, advanced Greek, advanced Latin, English literature, German, and physical culture were further introduced to the curriculum. The scientific offerings and laboratory facilities were also enhanced. And in addition, university extension lectures were approved as a regular part of the curriculum, to be used in connection with the college departments to which they pertained.

Music. Like the preparatory program, the college had long treated its music program as a feeder to the college course, with the hope that nondegree students who took vocal or instrumental lessons might thereby become familiar with the college and decide to enroll in the regular baccalaureate course. But it chose this point in time to revamp the program and enhance its offerings. Indeed, when the 1906–1907 catalogue

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236 The Sorosis, May 1908, 29; Coolidge, “College Notes,” Alumnae Recorder, 1909, 52-54; Coolidge, “College Notes,” Alumnae Recorder, 1910, 39-40; Minutes of the College Faculty, September 21, 1906; October 25, 1906; March 10, 1908. Note that the faculty committee, when researching how best to include trigonometry, emphasized that it examined the mathematics curricular requirements not only in other women’s colleges but also in universities (Minutes of the College Faculty, March 10, 1908).

237 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, November 12, 1906; Minutes of the Board of Trustees, November 12, 1906.

238 Minutes of the General Faculty, December 3, 1906. Clearly assuming familiarity among their readers, the minutes did not say what exactly university extension lectures were, and I have found no further information regarding them. Quite possibly they were lectures hosted by the Western University of Pennsylvania (later renamed the University of Pittsburgh) that the PCW students were required to attend as part of their class assignments.
went to press, the plans were not fully finalized; the description from the previous
catalogue was removed, being replaced with only a note stating that the music school was
currently in the process of reorganization and enlargement, and complete information was
not yet at that time available. The following year, in 1907 the school’s long-term and
widely respected director of the music program (Joseph H. Gittings) resigned. The first
replacement was found unsatisfactory for meeting the school’s goals for the program.239
But locating T. Carl Whitmer to come in as head of the department, along with adding
Elise Graziani to the vocal faculty, in 1909 was fortuitous. A creative thinker with
executive experience, he brought ideas for improvements and the expertise to carry them
out.240

Along with scheduling more faculty recitals and other musical programs open to
the public, the program began to place a higher weight on the academic study of music
theory. As the program description was rewritten for the 1907–1908 catalogue, such
enterprises were viewed as compatible with a classical collegiate education: “The college
believes in the cultural power of music and in its value in the higher education of women,
. . . the high intellectual plane accorded it by colleges.” During this period it extended the
offerings to include a range of courses in music theory (year-long classes in composition,
orchestration, music history, and music appreciation). Moreover—though the faculty
acknowledged that so doing was a matter of larger debate—they decided to begin

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239 Lindsay felt that “The music department in an institution such as ours can be a very
great help with the right man at its head, but it is the hardest position to fill successfully
of any I know” (President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, February 19, 1909). See
also on this matter the President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 22, 1909.
240 Dysart provides useful background information on the music program and its faculty
(*Chatham College*, 131-132, 137).
granting up to two credit-hours toward B.A. elective requirements for courses in music theory.241 The college’s shift to emphasizing theory in addition to performance in music instruction paralleled the same insistence in its social service course, that social work practice cannot be divorced from sociological theory.

Expression. One year before the social service department was created, PCW instituted a new department of expression in 1907, for which it hired a new faculty member (Vanda E. Kerst).242 As the catalogue explained, “expressional study of the best kind cultivates beauty of speech, trains the intellect, educates the emotions and puts the student into full command of the forces of body and mind.” The department offered classes in vocal expression (including diction, phrasing, gesture, attitude, flexibility, power) and principles of literary interpretation, as well as private instruction. At this point the Dramatic Club was formed, open to all students, which performed several plays in its inaugural year.243 The college had long produced plays and other dramatic readings for the public, often in collaboration with the music faculty and students. But with the elevation of speech and drama to the rank of a department with a full-time instructor, such offerings became more frequent and regular events.244

241 Minutes of the College Faculty, January 31, 1908; see also Lindsay’s articulation in his report to the alumnae (Lindsay, “Letter from Dr. Lindsay,” Alumnae Recorder, 1910, 36-37).
242 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 8, 1907; Dysart, Chatham College, 130-131, 137.
243 The Sorosis, May 1908, 29.
244 We can contrast PCW’s early and strong support of music and speech with Bryn Mawr College. It was not until 1920 and 1921 that Bryn Mawr added a music program and responded to student requests for instruction in public speaking.
Noncurricular Changes

There were also substantial improvements implemented outside of the academic program of the college. Many of these had direct impact on the lives of the students, but others were significant primarily to the school’s official functioning and governance structure. With regard to the latter, we can note changes to the college’s charter and the establishment of a women’s Advisory Council. The Advisory Council consisted of thirty to forty women who met occasionally, received reports on the college, and lent their assistance to PCW in whatever manner was deemed useful. In relation to the Board, president, and faculty, this body had consultative power only. The college charter was altered in three ways, with the purpose to “bring the College into line with other successful Women’s Colleges throughout the Country.” The charter amendments (1) increased the number of trustees from fifteen to twenty-one, (2) allowed the president of the college to be a full member of the Board, and (3) made the Board nondenominational (but still explicitly Christian). With regard to the last, though PCW had never been denominationally sectarian, it was founded by members of the Presbyterian Church and had required that two-thirds of its trustees be “members in full communion with some

245 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, November 12, 1906; Minutes of the Board of Trustees, November 12, 1906.
246 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, November 12, 1906; these recommendations were approved the following month by the Board (Minutes of the Board of Trustees, December 11, 1906). But for some reason it was not until June 1911 that the Court of Common Pleas of Allegheny County formally gave permission for these amendments to the charter (Dysart, Chatham College, 124-125; “The Inauguration of President Acheson,” 1915, booklet; induction speech by McClintock).
branch of the Presbyterian Church.” At this point the term “Evangelical” was substituted for “Presbyterian” in the requirements for that portion of the Board’s composition.

Physical Plant. This period represented an extremely active time of physical work on the college facilities. The most significant project was the construction of a new dormitory. In the fall of 1908, Lindsay pled his case for a new dormitory, to be completed for student residency at the beginning of the following academic year. All the current residential space had become full. In order for the college to attract more residential students and to grow, he argued, PCW needed to add more dormitory rooms. Moreover, such an action would signal progress and prosperity to the greater Pittsburgh community, especially to those who had gambled on the school’s prospects and provided support during the endowment campaign three years prior. Lindsay disclosed that he had already taken a trip east to consult with the presidents of other women’s colleges, in order to research the value of dormitory property for long-term financial investment.247 Two months later, he met with the Alumnae Association to request that they take on the responsibility of furnishing the dormitory, at an estimated expense of $10,000 (of which they eventually solicited $7662).248

Woodland Hall (as the dormitory was later named) became an immediate source of pride, with widespread agreement that it truly had been a necessity for the college’s sustainability. The building was a solid, four-story, red brick construction, completed at

247 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 16, 1908.
248 *Alumnae Recorder*, 1909, 6-11; President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, June 4, 1909; Dysart, *Chatham College*, 141-143.
a cost of $47,484, with students moving in before the workers had left.249 It had “plumbing and atmosphere,” and it was much appreciated by the students and admired by those visiting the college. The college students lived in the new Woodland Hall, and Berry Hall, now the old dormitory, housed the preparatory students and female faculty. Coolidge, after visiting colleges during the spring of 1910, found it to be quite on par with the dormitories newly constructed at Mount Holyoke, Smith, and Barnard Colleges.250

The next major building project undertaken was a residence for the president and his family, a two-story red brick and stucco house be located on campus and constructed during the latter part of 1910, at a cost of $18,000.251 Furthermore, a new athletic field for hockey and tennis was built in 1906, and a large new lavatory for use by the day students in 1910. During these years a great deal of attention was given to deferred maintenance, for upkeep during the lean financial days had been difficult. In addition to countless more minor repairs and improvements, the college purchased new desks for all the classrooms and the study hall, replaced the entire set of sixteen pianos, refurbished

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249 Lindsay described its structure, layout, and location in great deal in his annual report to the alumnae (“The New Dormitory,” Alumnae Recorder, 1909, 15-16).

250 Mary Helen Marks, address given at Founder’s Day, December 11, 1948, typewritten manuscript; President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, June 4, 1909; October 22, 1909; Coolidge, “College Notes,” Alumnae Recorder, 1910, 39-40; Lindsay, “Letter from Dr. Lindsay,” Alumnae Recorder, 1910, 36-37; Dysart, Chatham College, 142.

251 The trustees initially appropriated $16,500 from the permanent fund, but it had an overrun of $1500 (Dysart, Chatham College, 142-143; Alumnae Recorder, 1910, 37; President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 21, 1910).
the gymnasium, and completed major projects of roofing, plumbing, painting, and arboreal restoration.\textsuperscript{252}

\textbf{Student Self-Governance.} The origins of self-governance at PCW was in 1907, when the resident students elected a house president to be a representative of the student body and bring their issues to the administration. It was initiated under the direction of Coolidge, who said that, at its beginnings, she “hoped much for it.”\textsuperscript{253} This movement got a boost the following year with a lengthy student essay by one of the editors in the student literary journal advocating for a student self-government system, and another boost with the addition of Woodland Hall. The upperclass students who moved into Woodland Hall devised a more formal student organization, including writing a constitution. After these years of increasingly methodical and successful efforts at self-governance, in 1913 the Student Government Association (S.G.A.) was formed, and then in 1917, an honor system.\textsuperscript{254}

\textsuperscript{252} Dysart, \textit{Chatham College}, 138; President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, June 4, 1907; February 11, 1908; October 21, 1910. An illustration of how run-down the facilities had become is Lindsay’s comment that he had been in most all of the public and private high schools in the city, and PCW’s classroom furniture was in worse shape than any he had seen in them (President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, December 11, 1906).

\textsuperscript{253} President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, November 13, 1922.

\textsuperscript{254} Lilla A. Greene, “Self-Government Systems in Colleges,” \textit{The Sorosis}, November 1908, 5-10; Coolidge, “College Notes,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1908, 16-17; Coolidge, “College Notes,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1909, 52-54; Coolidge, “College Notes,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1911, 52-54; Dysart, \textit{Chatham College}, 140-141, 165-166. Note also the peer pressure exerted by the editorial in the January 1910 issue of \textit{The Sorosis}, which urged respect for the Rules of Student Government (pp. 19-20). A corollary issue was the “cut system,” a policy that was discussed in faculty meetings with some regularity during these years (Minutes of the College Faculty, October 22,
Self-governance taught the students to take responsibility for their actions, to learn to formulate rules as a community and then live by them. It provided standards, modeled for students how to live honorably, taught cooperation, and in all ways prepared them, as Coolidge planned, for “the world beyond the college walls.”²⁵⁵ In essence, it taught citizenship—how each individual is a citizen of a larger community and is called to live honorably and responsibly in social relationships with other citizens. This sense of having obligations toward others is not far from the ideals of social work, of an individual’s responsibility to help others, for those persons’ own good and the good of the whole. In this sense, the development of student self-government at PCW during its early years went hand-in-hand with the development of the social service program.

**Preparatory Department.** In spring 1907 the decision was made to separate completely the preparatory department from the college proper, as the college was finding less of a need to prepare its incoming students for collegiate-level work and the...
academic (baccalaureate) identity of the college would be made unmistakable.\textsuperscript{256}

Henceforth, each school would have its own dedicated faculty (at that time some instructors were still teaching in both areas) and print separate catalogues. In recognition of the longtime financial support of the Dilworth family, the preparatory department would now be known as “Dilworth Hall, a school preparatory to the Pennsylvania College for Women.”\textsuperscript{257}

**Markers of Improvement**

This time period encompassed rapid and remarkable progress for the small college. The hope and optimism with which it began this new chapter had begun to bear good fruit, and perhaps no more clearly can the improvement be verified than with enrollment figures. Enrollment grew quickly, yet at a steady and manageable pace. The following is the student count in October of each year:\textsuperscript{258}

\begin{center}
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\textbf{Year} & \textbf{Student Count} \\
\hline
1905 & 28 \\
1906 & 25 \\
1907 & 30 \\
1908 & 35 \\
1909 & 40 \\
1910 & 45 \\
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\textsuperscript{256} At that time PCW did not meet the definition of “college” according to the Carnegie Foundation because it did not have at least six professors devoting their full time to college-level teaching. Separating the college faculty from the preparatory faculty would solve this problem (President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, February 1, 1907). Two years later, the wisdom of increasing the faculty dedicated to college work had already proven itself (President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, February 19, 1909).

\textsuperscript{257} President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, February 1, 1907; Minutes of the Board of Trustees, February 12, 1907; Dysart, *Chatham College*, 126-127.

\textsuperscript{258} President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, October 22, 1909; October 21, 1910. The number for 1905 (twenty-eight) is noted by Dysart (*Chatham College*, 145). She does not cite a source for this figure, nor does she give a count for students in the preparatory department. I have not been able to find any extant document that gives enrollment counts for 1905–1906, to corroborate her information. In 1916 President Acheson referred to twenty-five students in 1906, as the enrollment number from which the school subsequently built up. Both these figures can possibly be accurate, however, if
Not only were the students more plentiful, the faculty was also finding the entering classes to be better and better prepared each year.\(^{259}\) The college was clearly able to attract more accomplished and capable girls from the high schools, girls that may otherwise have opted for one of the larger women’s colleges. Furthermore, there was a positive atmosphere among the student body, making it more enjoyable for both those learning and those teaching them. Behaviors such as promptness and attendance at optional college events had improved, as well as a general loyalty to the school. PCW was becoming filled with “interested students who want to learn,” and there could be felt “an earnest, thoughtful spirit” throughout the student community.\(^{260}\)

An alumna who had been away for several years related her sense upon coming back to the college. She described an overall impression of progress and prosperity. She was quick to note that she meant not a financial prosperity, but instead a type of prosperity of a small college doing important work that could not be done as well by a

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there was attrition during the year; perhaps the academic year 1905–1906 began in the fall with twenty-eight, but three left college during the year, leaving only twenty-five by spring 1906.

\(^{259}\) Coolidge, “College Notes,” *Alumnae Recorder*, 1908. 16-17; President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 8, 1907.

\(^{260}\) Lindsay, “Letter from Dr. Lindsay,” *Alumnae Recorder*, 1910, 36-37, here 36; President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, February 11, 1908; October 11, 1909.
larger college. So improved from earlier days were the quality of the students and the spirit of cohesiveness among them, the sense of democracy and the lack of snobbishness, and—what she found most important—girls who were growing into young women who think.\textsuperscript{261}

At the conclusion of academic year 1909–1910, and four years after she and Lindsay had taken up their positions at PCW, Coolidge saw the college to have reached a tipping point. She writes to the alumnae, surely with a bit of pride:

\begin{quote}
I have been a good deal to schools and clubs this past year, and find an increasing interest in the college and its work. . . . In my visit east last month, I found us known in the large colleges through our students, our own graduates on their faculties and former members of our faculty. I have always felt that when we had our first one hundred students, the most discouraging part of the building-up part of the process would be over and now that we have reached that point, we see some of the good things we hoped for; not only a wider circle from which to draw, but a broader fellowship and more initiative in the student body.\textsuperscript{262}
\end{quote}

Their efforts had paid off, and the college was well positioned to enter the second decade of the century.

Origin and Purpose of the Program

The new social service program at PCW came into being quickly and quietly. It appears to have been the brainchild of Coolidge and Lindsay, seemingly without faculty collaboration or other involvement until the decision for implementation was made. The idea was not formally brought up for discussion in faculty meetings. PCW presidents attended faculty meetings and had the practice of previewing the major contents of their reports to the Board. Yet Lindsay did not take to the faculty his proposal for such a major change to the curriculum; for some reason, he went directly to the Board with this idea. The PCW faculty regularly took up curricular concerns; moreover, they held authority to make decisions on matters relating to the college’s course offerings and requirements. For instance, during the previous three academic years, faculty meetings included discussions of curricular matters including course additions and discontinuations in several departments, a reformulation of the course of study at the preparatory school, alterations in the sequencing of required courses, and evaluation of students’ graduate-level courses taken at other colleges and universities. Indeed, at the faculty meeting immediately preceding the Board meeting at which Lindsay offered his proposal, the faculty engaged in lengthy deliberations regarding changes in the offerings in the mathematics, German, and physical culture departments, in preparation for the

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263 E.g., Minutes of the General Faculty, January 31, 1906; December 3, 1906; December 18, 1906.
264 See, e.g., Minutes of the General Faculty, January 31, 1906; January 15, 1907; February 5, 1907; February 28, 1907; Minutes of the College Faculty, January 31, 1906; September 21, 1906; October 24, 1906; January 31, 1908.
production of the next year’s catalogue—but nothing about adding an entire new department to the college, a potential change of far greater significance.265

Just two years earlier, in early 1906 the PCW leadership had been faced with a similar decision regarding the place for the teaching of subjects with vocational potential. That instance concerned the art department, which, along with classical painting and drawing, had been teaching skills with a more practical appeal, including design and composition, china painting, and basketry. President Martin wondered, “Should we attempt to develop a broad field of art study . . . or should we limit our efforts to such elements of art as may be demanded by our classical students?”266 The impetus for his question was the establishment of the Carnegie Technical School, just half a mile down the road. The Carnegie Technical School offered two- and three-year certificate programs, primarily geared toward working-class persons desiring to learn trade and other practical skills necessary to earn a livelihood. The school opened to men in 1900, then in 1903 it proposed the Margaret Morrison Carnegie School for Women, which admitted its first students in 1906. It would offer to female students a training program in applied art—and thus raised the question of whether PCW needed any longer to include such topics in its art curriculum. In taking up this issue, the Board appointed a special ad-hoc committee to study the matter. At its next meeting they sided with the committee’s recommendation to discontinue the teaching of any areas that would be considered applied art, and that “the department of legitimate Art only be continued,

265 Minutes of the College Faculty, March 10, 1908.
266 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, January 18, 1906.

140
covering drawing and painting in oil and water color.” It is remarkable that only two years later, when faced with a similar question of whether to introduce the more practical-minded classes necessary for social service field education, the college leadership chose to go the opposite direction and decided in favor of such an inclusion.

The new course in social service was formally approved in mid-April 1908. Following this decision, work began in earnest to make preparations for the required courses and to secure a first-year class. A brief announcement was entered in the May issue of the student literary journal to inform current students of this upcoming opportunity for study, and a longer description was included in the annual alumnae journal (which was published each summer). As for informing the larger public and attracting new students, a brochure was produced for distribution, which included information on the purpose, schedule, admission requirements, curriculum, faculty, and tuition. The college placed both prepared articles and block advertisements in local newspapers. One newspaper, The Pittsburgh Sun, even chose to publish an editorial on PCW’s new endeavor. The organizers of the annual alumnae program, held on June 5, featured the new department. They invited the head of the Federation of Associated Charities, Helen B. Pendleton, to give an address on “The Profession of Social Service.” Coolidge also made the new program the focus of her remarks. The Alumnae Association had, from its inception, considered one of its primary purposes to be locating

267 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, February 12, 1906.
268 The Sorosis, May 1908, 30; Alumnae Recorder, 1908, 12-13.
high school girls suited to higher learning and encouraging them to attend PCW. In all, the combination of these efforts proved modestly persuasive; by the time the new academic year began in September, three adventurous students had elected to try the new program.²⁷⁰

Speaking at the close of its inaugural year, in June 1909 Lindsay reported that the program had garnered substantial interest over the previous nine months; twelve current students had already elected to take the social service course for the next academic year, and more would likely sign on during the summer months.²⁷¹ He predicted, “I believe that this course will ultimately be one of the most popular and at the same time, one of the most helpful courses we have in the college.”²⁷² His expectations were fulfilled.

Looking back from some years’ distance, Coolidge and Luella Meloy, its longtime director, reflected on how successful the PCW course had become and how quickly the subject of sociology became commonly taught in colleges and universities across the nation. “In the old days, 1908, our department existed as a mere fringe upon the edge of traditional college practice. The new thing is that today the best of what we have learned about social service circulates through the heart of the college curriculum.”²⁷³ PCW had clearly chosen to initiate its social work program at precisely the right moment.

²⁷⁰ *The Pennsylvanian*, 1915, 87.
²⁷¹ The increase continued into the following academic year as well, with twenty-eight students enrolled in 1910–1911 (President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 21, 1910).
²⁷² President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, June 4, 1909.
From the time of its inception, the program’s architects saw the new program as innovative. They viewed it as an experiment, an experiment that proved influential beyond the school itself, and its adoption positioned PCW “in the forefront of progressiveness.” ²⁷⁴ Giving college students an opportunity to earn a traditional degree and at the same time to learn sociological theory and gain experiential, real-life practice was new and radical in U.S. higher education, to say nothing of women’s education.

Coolidge mused that perhaps it was providential that PCW was a conservative school that had been already long established, for initiating and growing such an academic program required a corresponding patience and thoughtfulness. ²⁷⁵

Name

When proposing the new program, Coolidge and Lindsay chose the title “A Course in Professional Philanthropy.” Less than two months later, when the program was introduced publicly in early June 1908, its name had been changed to “Courses in Social Service.” Other names currently used for this activity, and thus also potential options for the name of the new PCW department, included “scientific charity,”

“practical philanthropy,” “social philanthropy,” and “social work.”276 The reasoning behind this shift, from “professional philanthropy” to “social service,” has not been preserved, and we are left merely to conjecture. But in the relatively recent and quickly changing domain of philanthropy and charitable public activity, terminology was important; most likely, the name was changed to reflect these matters.

The employment of “social service” would have functioned to distinguish PCW’s new program—situated at a college and taught by college faculty—from the primary training programs currently in existence. At that time (1908), their names included the term “philanthropy”: the New York School of Philanthropy, the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, and the St. Louis School of Philanthropy. PCW’s course in social service would have been perceived as fundamentally different from the type of caseworker training that was available elsewhere, at those organizations founded and supported by charitable agencies. Moreover, PCW’s choice of name for this department became part of an emerging trend in college-based education, names that were instead based around the term “social”: social work, social workers, social service, social economy. The course at Simmons College, the first college, in 1904, to offer training in social work, was named “The School for Social Workers.” After PCW’s program was started, Bryn Mawr College was next, in 1915, opting for “Department of Social Economy and Social Research.”277 And then in 1918, Smith College, with its focus on

277 Bryn Mawr College also had difficulty landing on the right name for its program, including disagreements among the faculty. Options they considered were Social Investigation and Research, Social Service and Social Research, Social Economics, and Social Economy, finally deciding on the last. (M. Carey Thomas, letter to Anna Rhoads
treating persons returning from war, chose “Training School for Psychiatric Social Work.”

Yet “social service”—in distinction from “social work” or “social economy”—was viewed as significant in defining the purpose and parameters of PCW’s program. The name made clear the emphasis on service, that the goal of its teaching was not merely learning the techniques of the “work” but ultimately to be of larger benefit to society. Writing after some of the later college programs came into being, Meloy explained, “Courses somewhat similar are described in the catalogues of other colleges under various names—Social Economy, for instance. We cling to our original name—Social Service—because it shows the emphasis which we place upon constructive work.”

The name, however, also held the potential for misunderstanding. Modern views of sociology and social studies were based on interrelatedness and mutual respect. The type of charitable work of previous decades—from the well-off, directed down to “the poor”—had gone out of style. Now, those persons working in the field were seen as having as much to gain from interactions with those they served as what they gave. There was thus a danger that the term “social service,” not rightly understood, could give

Ludd, March 17, 1915; M. Carey Thomas, letters to Marion Parris Smith, March 10, 1915; March 20, 1915; Reel 132, M. Carey Thomas Papers, Bryn Mawr College Archives

278 There was clearly a need for education in psychiatric social work particularly, a focus not included originally in PCW’s course of study. A student from the very first class of PCW’s social service course, Rosalie Supplee ’11, took the course in psychiatric social work at Smith College in 1921, which prepared her for a position as a psychiatric social worker at the Marine Hospital in Pittsburgh (Alumnae Recorder, 1922, 27).

a sense of superiority and condescension, from the social worker on a higher level to others on a lower level. Nonetheless, with all these caveats recognized, “perhaps it [“social service”] is a good descriptive term for our social studies, as good as can be found, if we are able to realize that on the one hand the service which we give to society is only what we owe, and on the other hand that while we are serving society we are getting back a rich return.”

Mission

PCW did not have a formal mission statement at this point in its history. But if an identity of the college were to be articulated, Coolidge later argued, it would certainly be “the spirit of service.” Service had always been exemplified by the faculty, both in what they taught and in their very persons; their work was ultimately based on love and sacrifice. This spirit of service was what held the college together in its early decades, during difficult and discouraging times, as the faculty and the students modeled the virtues of asking little but giving much. The goals of the faculty had always been, from the school’s beginnings, to help students to find their places in the broader world, to determine how they would make their contribution to it. Coolidge explained that, with such ideals of service that had been held and enacted on the part of all those connected with it, “it was not strange that when the term ‘Service’ came into academic use, this

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college should have been among the first to adopt it.”

The course in Social Service was therefore a natural extension of PCW’s identity since its founding forty years prior.

That a social service program was well suited to the college also found agreement outside the institution. Among the Pittsburgh community at large it was viewed as a natural development. “There have been more or less ambitious attempts in numerous educational institutions to supply training in some aspects of this broad field of activity, and none have more favorable auspices to work under than those which the Pennsylvania College for Women . . . announced for the fall term this year,” opined the editors of a local newspaper. The college was ably positioned to provide the knowledge and training the editors saw lacking in the well-intentioned but inadequate charitable efforts of many local women. Indeed, activity based in the admirable qualities of sympathy and altruism, but yet not joined with an understanding of fundamental principles, they argued, results in wasted labor at best and actual injury at worst. “Courses such as are contemplated by the local college may do a great deal of good to better equip women with the will to help. At any event the departure is one well worth watching and hoping for.”

Vocational Need

A primary reason for both the decision to initiate a social service course and its quick success is because the college met a demonstrated need. The need for such a

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281 Coolidge, “The Spirit of Service: An Appreciation,” address given at the jubilee celebration, 1920, typewritten manuscript.
282 Dysart, *Chatham College*, 133.
course arose from at least two directions. On one side were the students themselves. Currently, women who wanted training in social service, including PCW students, had to travel elsewhere for that education, to one of the eastern cities. And local women who wanted training but were unable to relocate were therefore not able to obtain it. Without a social service department, PCW was losing the known market for the former and foregoing a potential market for the latter. On the other side was a workforce need. The local charitable organizations were not finding sufficient workers (either paid or volunteer) with the requisite skills and experience.

Students. In 1908 many of the college’s graduates had been already engaged in community charitable work. Reflecting the progression of U.S. philanthropic efforts in general, for the earlier generations of alumnae, these types of activities were performed within the auspices of the church, shifting to social agencies for the later generations. The following list includes those who submitted information for the class notes section in the annual alumnae publication or whose activities are otherwise identifiable. Most

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284 In addition to those women in the list below, Meloy referred to a “Pennsylvania College girl” as the chief probation officer of the Juvenile Court, but she did not give a name (“Social Work for Women,” The Sorosis, January 08, 18-22). This person was most probably Irene Cowan; see the reference to her below. In PCW materials an Irene Cowan is listed as a first year student in the academic department in the 1894−1895 catalogue, but there is no mention of her after this instance. It would not appear, therefore, that she graduated from PCW. It is similarly quite possible that she transferred to another women’s college, as many students did after a first or second year. Cowan was the author of a brief report in a publication on women’s education and vocations (“Probation Work in the Juvenile Court,” in Vocations for the Trained Woman: Opportunities Other than Teaching. Introductory Papers, ed. Agnes F. Perkins, Boston: Women’s Educational and Industrial Union, 1910, p. 13), in which she is listed as Irene
likely there were also many more alumnae active in social service activities in one capacity or another who did not report it to the college.

- Annie (Joanna) Davis ’74, employed as a missionary in Japan\(^ {285}\)
- Nettie Jamison ’75, elected President of the Women’s General Missionary Society of the United Presbyterian Church (national organization)\(^ {286}\)
- Mary Van Eman ’82, employed as a missionary in Siam\(^ {287}\)
- Jennie McCracken ’84, elected President of the Monongahela Presbyterian Missionary Society of the United Presbyterian Church (the largest regional organization)\(^ {288}\)
- Luella P. Meloy ’84, engaged in settlement work, attended the New York School of Philanthropy, and became the director of the social service department (see below)
- Ella Smith ’85, undertook the yearlong course at the New York School of Philanthropy in 1908–1909\(^ {289}\)

Cowan Marshall. In it she also stressed that previous training in any type of social work would be beneficial to any woman aspiring to work as a probation officer.

\(^ {285}\) *Alumnae Recorder*, 1884, 4, 8; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1886, 7; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1888, 50, 56; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1889, 46, 64; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1890, 19-21, 60; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1891, 72; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1894, 33-37.

\(^ {286}\) *Alumnae Recorder*, 1887, 1-3; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1892, 70; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1893, 36.

\(^ {287}\) *Alumnae Recorder*, 1886, 7; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1888, 48-51; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1889, 70-71; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1890, 60; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1891, 69; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1892, 70; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1899, 13-14.

\(^ {288}\) *Alumnae Recorder*, 1890, 8-10; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1893, 36.
Carrie Eggers ’97, in charge of the YWCA in Akron, Ohio; Edith Stockton ’97, engaged in kindergarten work and training; Mary Bruce ’01, deeply involved in social service work in the city; Helen Dickey ’02, secretary of the Juvenile Protective League in Englewood, Illinois, along with other forms of social service; Margaret E. McKinney ’02, undertook the yearlong course at the New York School of Philanthropy in 1908–1909, specializing in the needs of urban children; Helen E. Sherrard ’02, a supervisor at the Pittsburgh Playground Association. She noted that many other PCW alumnae were also involved there.

– Edith N. Stanton, ’02, employed at the national headquarters of the YWCA in New York City

– Eleanor Fitzgibbon ’03, employed by the Carnegie Library in Carnegie, Pennsylvania

– Nancy Blair ’04, active with the Kingsley House and in kindergarten work

Alumnae Recorder, 1909, 44. 
Alumnae Recorder, 1899, 41. The note states that she is “studying at the training school on Ninth street, Pittsburg.” I have not been able to locate further identification or information about such a school. 
Mary Bruce, “President’s Address,” Alumnae Recorder, 1912, 3-5. 
Alumnae Recorder, 1910, 30. 
Alumnae Recorder, 1904, 26.
– Lida Young ’04, active with the Kingsley House in its Saturday afternoon program\textsuperscript{299}

– Helen C. Moore ’05, studying library work in the children’s department at the Carnegie Library\textsuperscript{300}

– Ellen B. McKee ’07, worked with the sewing circle at the Kingsley House\textsuperscript{301}

– Clara L. Niebaum ’07, also worked with the sewing circle at the Kingsley House\textsuperscript{302}

– Lilla A. Greene ’08, undertook settlement work in 1908, then graduate study at Columbia University and the New York School of Philanthropy in 1909–1911\textsuperscript{303}

Lilla Greene provides a good example of the type of student ideally suited for PCW’s social service course.\textsuperscript{304} Greene graduated in June 1908—she just missed the start of the new program that following academic year. While a student, she was involved with the local YWCA in various capacities and, as a young person, was clearly already interested in service work. An intelligent and compassionate individual, Greene surely would have thrived if having the opportunity to include instruction in social

\begin{footnotes}
\item[298] *Alumnae Recorder*, 1908, 38; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1909, 47; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1910, 32.
\item[299] *Alumnae Recorder*, 1908, 38; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1909, 47; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1910, 32.
\item[300] *Alumnae Recorder*, 1906, 31.
\item[301] *Alumnae Recorder*, 1909, 47.
\item[302] *Alumnae Recorder*, 1909, 47.
\item[303] *Alumnae Recorder*, 1909, 48; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1910, 32; *Alumnae Recorder*, 1911, 43.
\item[304] Greene later married Ralph Simmons; information of her activities in later PCW materials can be found under that surname.
\end{footnotes}
service theory and the practical experience of fieldwork during her college years. After graduating from PCW, she chose to attend the New York School of Philanthropy and Columbia University for further education in sociology and social work.

Happily, Greene wrote three essays for the college publications, so that we might track her vocational progress and evolving interests over the next three years in greater detail than we are able for other alumnae. If having had the opportunity to engage in such learning in Pittsburgh rather than New York, we can imagine that her experience and professional development would likely have been similar. If Greene had instead been able to learn social work locally during her college years and become embedded in local charity organizations, she may well have opted to stay in the city after graduation: her work would then have benefited the local community for the next decades. From a broader perspective, therefore, we can view Greene as a representative example of the potential talent and labor that Pittsburgh and western Pennsylvania were losing prior to PCW’s establishment of a women’s social service educational program.

In the winter of 1909, Greene, for her fieldwork, was responsible for making investigations in eyestrain among elementary-age schoolchildren. She worked particularly with Jewish and Italian families in the neighborhoods of the Lower East Side of New York City. Greene related the challenges in learning how to persuasively convince parents to accept medical help for their children and the delights of experiencing kindness and trusting acceptance from the children. The following year her interests progressed to industrial eye safety. Greene worked three days a week for the

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New York Committee on the Prevention of Blindness. She was in charge of completing investigations and analyzing data regarding eye accidents, including how they were caused at industrial sites, if any protection was worn, and how workers fared after their injuries.\(^{306}\) Greene further related examples of the variety of incidents that she, as an agent for dependent children and a city investigator, had helped to facilitate, including acting as a daily chaperone for a flighty young woman on probation, determining the best futures for young children whose parents were neglectful or intoxicated, finding homes and occupations for recently widowed women and families, and safely engaging men with psychiatric illnesses.\(^{307}\) In the course of her education, Greene concluded that “social work is most broadening. New side-lights on human nature are always appearing. One finds a kinship with all kinds of people, even if you cannot understand the language.”\(^{308}\)

Other PCW alumnae from the college’s earlier period, as they wrote short pieces for the alumnae bulletin, also commented about the benefits of social service work. Helen Sherrard, who served as the Supervisor of Supplies at the Pittsburgh Playground Association, encouraged any and all alumnae to find their way to help with the organization’s vacation schools or its city parks, noting how “a morning spent among three hundred children will prove quite an eye-opener to many and furnish much food for

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\(^{306}\) *Alumnae Recorder*, 1911, 43-44 (this one is not listed with her name but is a part of the 1908 class notes).


\(^{308}\) *Alumnae Recorder*, 1911, 44.
serious thought.”³⁰⁹ Mary Bruce reflected on how working among the poor of Pittsburgh had changed her viewpoint on life, and she called on all other “educated, thinking women” to join the effort to eliminate and prevent the poverty, crime, and suffering of current social conditions.³¹⁰ Margaret McKinney, during her year of study at the New York School of Philanthropy, urged other alumnae to join that program as well, whether interested in social service in a vocational or a volunteer capacity. She wished others also “to realize the great opportunity there is for study and investigation of social conditions and how intensely interesting the whole work is.”³¹¹

What becomes clear from these instances, along with the others that were assuredly experienced though not recorded, is that PCW women, along with Pittsburgh generally, participated in a groundswell of interest in social service work in the 1890s and early 1900s. There was a clearly demonstrated need for women to be prepared for this work. Indeed, as early as 1902, a PCW junior (Eleanor Fitzgibbon) petitioned the faculty that a social science course she had taken elsewhere be substituted for another course in the college’s curricular requirements, arguing that it would be of use in her anticipated future work.³¹² (Note above that Fitzgibbon did go into social service after graduation.) During this time there were even professional social workers living in the college

³¹⁰ Mary Bruce, “President’s Address,” Alumnae Recorder, 1912, 3-5.
³¹² Minutes of the College Faculty, January 14, 1902. The minutes do not record where Fitzgibbon had taken this social service class. Her request is within the context of two other students also asking to be released from required courses (in other subjects) because of academic work they had done elsewhere.
residences. Prior to 1908, anyone who wished to become a professional social worker needed to go to New York; Pittsburgh was not yet organized to provide opportunities. The need was evident, the enthusiasm was stoked—the time was ripe to provide formal education in social service.

_workforce._ The current need for the new program, however, was not solely on the part of the students. Lindsay, in introducing this new venture, claimed that there existed demand on the part of the Pittsburgh community. “The field for social work is large,” he maintained, “and it is constantly calling for more workers, both for those who, in a professional way, give their entire time to this work, and for the volunteers who have some training in the best methods.” Promotional material for the course asserted that the demand for capable, educated workers far exceeded the supply, and “it is a demand that is growing with great rapidity; and women of all ages seeking to be both useful and self-supporting may well turn their attention to this as a life work.”

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313 Their names were Jean Hamilton and Helen Wright. Hamilton was visiting the city to organize Working Girls’ Clubs, under the direction of the Civic Section of the College Club of Pittsburgh (The Sorosis, December 1910, 31-32). As for Wright, a brief mention reports that a party was given for her when she moved out (The Sorosis, April 1911, 33), but regrettably no further information on where she was working can be found. Surely these two women, living within the community of a small college, would have had significant interaction with the PCW students.


315 Lindsay, “The School of Social Service,” Alumnae Recorder, 1908, 12-13, here 13; see also “Training for Charity,” The Pittsburgh Sun; and Meloy, “The Social Service Department,” The Sorosis, April 1914, 3-5.

316 Illustrated pamphlet, Pennsylvania College for Women, date of “c. 1916” handwritten on the cover. The president’s report to the trustees of December 11, 1914, refers to an illustrated booklet that would be available in early 1915. This item is surely to what the report refers, and thus it should be dated to 1915. That this brochure is possibly some
Whereas it can be the case that a school’s publicity can be overly optimistic about the market demand for its offerings, in this instance PCW’s claims were borne out. The leaders of many of Pittsburgh’s charitable organizations were likewise declaring that there was an unmet need for educated social workers and that they were having difficulty in filling open positions. They strongly endorsed the program, joining the sentiments of Edward G. Lang, the director of the Pittsburgh Department of Public Safety, regarding the urgency of educating young people to take up the work of improving the lives of the citizenry, “that it is almost impossible to find words strong enough to commend your undertakings in this direction.”

Irene Cowan, the chief probation officer of the Juvenile Court of Allegheny County, spoke of how the demand for educated workers was increasing and how young women who had taken a college course would find it far easier to secure positions as professional social workers than those without such training. And the executive secretary of the Central Young Women’s Christian Association, Harriet S. Vance, observed that many varieties of Christian activities were opening very rapidly those days; she expected that a college course in practical philanthropy would appeal to many young women wanting to prepare for such opportunities.

Two local leaders spoke explicitly of their personal frustrations of not being able to find qualified workers. G. E. Johnson, the superintendent of the Pittsburgh Playground Association, explained that the association had been experiencing “great difficulty in getting teachers with any training at all that would give them the necessary point of view few years later than the initiation of the program should not be deemed problematic, as the local situation did not change substantially since 1908.

in our work. They soon acquire more or less of it, but even then they lack much in the way of background and training in theory that ought to give them a broad comprehension of the work. I believe that there is as much need of definite, specific training for social workers as there is for any profession.”

Other local executives echoed the sentiment that a knowledge of theoretical background and not just practical skills was both necessary and hard to come by in their workers. Indeed, when the Pittsburgh Playground Association itself, in 1906, was needing to hire a new general superintendent, they chose Johnson, who was from Massachusetts. We might wonder whether no local person was found qualified for the position.

William H. Matthews, the resident director of the Kingsley House, framed the situation in concrete detail:

> During the last week, I have received letters from four institutions out of town asking me if I could not help in securing workers for positions similar to those for which your course would seek to train. There will be more and more demand in our own city for such workers during the next ten years and there is no reason why they should not receive their training here. As it is now, whenever such a worker is wanted, he or she is sought in New York, Boston, Chicago, or some other city where considerable stress has been placed on training people for this line of work.

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Despite its potential importance to social work professionals and the workforce at large, PCW’s new program was planned to appeal to a broader constituency. From the very beginning, its creators saw it as widely relevant, to benefit not only those who had already identified an interest in the field of social work, but a diverse range of women. And the college intentionally pitched it to an extensive potential audience. Its invitation statement from 1908, standing out alone on the opening page of the pamphlet describing the new program, cast the net for prospective students widely. “The attention of young women interested in the problems of modern society is called to the purpose and program of these courses, especially those who would do social work in any form, for much or little time, as paid officials or volunteers” (emphasis added). Later promotional material urged that the course “should commend itself to all thinking women.” Surely the hope was that many women would see this course of study as a potential option for themselves.

Ultimately, the purpose of social service education was to prepare young women to take their places as valuable members of the community in which they live. This responsibility could be fulfilled by professional social work or volunteer charity or church work, of course, but the college materials promote numerous other ways for which learning about sociology and social studies would also be of significant benefit. For example, such study would help students form intelligent opinions about current

323 Illustrated pamphlet, Pennsylvania College for Women, 1915; see n. 316 above.
public issues, and thus be better conversationalists. For those women who chose to marry, they would be better able to train up their children for responsible citizenship. For those women who were well-to-do, they would gain understanding of human conditions that would allow them to choose more wisely as they practiced their philanthropy. For women who were active in clubs or guilds, they would be able to carry social ideals into those groups.\textsuperscript{324} As Coolidge described succinctly the course’s attention to women in varied circumstances and with diverse purposes in enrolling, “Far more to me than the fact that we are giving a ‘life-career’ motive to a few women is the knowledge that we are giving a ‘life-interest’ motive to many of a kind bound to affect society for good.”\textsuperscript{325}

A further benefit of the social service course was that it would help young women to find their purpose. College students can feel bewildered—they may have a desire to be active in society, to be of some use to the world—but not have a clue how practically to carry that ambition through. By spending a year visiting various agencies and seeing their activities firsthand, a student will be better able to see where her interests, talents, and passions might best fit with the needs of her community. The program, in other words, will help students determine, then create, their life’s path.\textsuperscript{326} A local newspaper reporter depicted this situation most creatively, imagining a prototypical student named “Mary.” Mary had always been a child who knew her own mind; she was clear what she wanted to do, then did it. But when this self-assured young woman entered college, she

\textsuperscript{325} Coolidge, “An Experiment,” 91-94, here 93-94.
\textsuperscript{326} Alice B. Logan, “Social Service,” \textit{The Sorosis}, February 1909, 5-7.
began floundering during her first year. Faced with so many new options and having her mind opened to unfamiliar ideas, she now did not know what to do. She knew that she was not interested in teaching children, which was the typical course for college educated women. If not teaching, then what? But in her sophomore year, Mary discovered the college’s social work classes. Joining this course, Mary found her calling.\(^{327}\) A supposedly fictional tale though this may be, taking place at an unnamed college, the experience of discovering one’s talents while learning about social studies and areas of social work surely was shared by students at PCW.

In 1909 an alumna of the class of 1875, Nettie Jamison, returned to give a speech to the college community. Over the years Jamison had been a frequent presence at the college, including as president of the Alumnae Association in 1887. She reflected on some of the changes that had come to the college since its early days, yet found a constant in the ideals of broad social purpose forged in its graduates. Her classmates had spread across the globe as their lives unfolded, and she envisioned this same sense of far-reaching civic duty for PCW’s current students.

“The alumni [sic] of the Pennsylvania College views life rather seriously. She has the qualities that enable her to shine in the social

\(^{327}\) Mrs. Chester D. Potter, “After Five Months, Collegiate Vocational Bureau Has Proved Its Usefulness,” *The Pittsburgh Dispatch*, December 21, 1915. The author can be identified as Jeanne Oldfield Potter (via wikitree.com), who, as well as a newspaper reporter, was a widely published writer and poet. She was a member of the Women’s Press Club of Pittsburgh. (Chester Potter was the newspaper’s political reporter, covering the state capitol in Harrisburg [*Smull’s Legislative Hand Book and Manual of the State of Pennsylvania*, compiled by Herman P. Miller and W. Harry Baker (Harrisburg: C. E. Aughinbaugh, 1912)].) Potter writes knowledgeably about college students and college life, and depicts exceptionally well an environment like PCW. She does not appear, however, to ever have been a PCW student, and I have been unable to discover any college or university that she attended.
circle, the training that makes her a social leader, yet hers is no mere butterfly existence. Her life is full of purpose, and she rounds up a good measure of achievement. There is still work for College women to do in this world. . . . There are sociological wrongs to be righted, and open wounds on our civic righteousness into which only women can pour oil and bring healing. We of the days of long ago have been trying to lead the way along some of these lines. We invite you to join us, or rather to make the advance with your young strength and cult[ured] minds, and we promise you our hearty moral support.328

The program’s director held that all college graduates, no matter the academic focus of their studies, would benefit from taking the social service certificate. Everyone needs training in social work because, as she often said, “the world is one big social workshop.”329 Students gain broadened sympathies as they experience the whole of life, interacting with people from so many differing circumstances. Once a student has seen poverty and its resultant problems first-hand, she will have more enthusiasm—no matter what her life’s work will be—into trying to eliminate and prevent such hardship. Writing in 1914, after the program had become established, the editors of the student literary journal demonstrated how the idea of the universal benefit of the social service course had become internalized in the student body. They argued,

“There are many phases of College work which are being developed along different lines, but none perhaps are of more practical value in the every day work of a college graduate than the Social Service phase. This department contains studies which touch nearly every

328 Nettie Jamison, address to the class of 1909, typewritten manuscript (the edge of the paper is damaged at one place). Jamison married William H. Vincent and became active in as a leader in the community in a variety of roles. When preparing her history of the college, Dysart relied on conversations with Nettie Vincent for information about the early days of the college. (Chatham College, iv, 58-60).
point of life after graduation. The social service graduate may not take up work directly in connection with that department but wherever she goes she will find knowledge and experience has made smooth the road.”

Leadership

To teach the social service classes, the college engaged Alice Lyon Logan. Logan was a 1901 graduate of Wellesley College and had grown up in the Pittsburgh area. It is not clear what particular talents or experience she would have brought to this new program. The college would have needed to find an instructor on short notice, and perhaps she was selected as a woman with a bachelor of arts degree from an academically rigorous college who was locally available. Her family was active in a prominent Presbyterian church in the city, which may suggest that she was involved in service ministries. Logan was a member of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae (ACA), and she also joined the College Club of Pittsburgh when it was formed in early 1909.

331 Her parents were George P. Logan and Frances Lyon Logan, who were active in the North Church in Pittsburgh (Herald and Presbyter: A Presbyterian Family Paper, vol. XCI, no. 1 [Cincinnati, January 7, 1920], 10). This would seem to be the same church where Lindsay had been a pastor.
332 Wellesley College, “Wellesley College Record 1875–1912: A General Catalogue of Officers and Students,” Wellesley Histories, 7 (1912). Logan was also an active member of the Pittsburgh Wellesley Club (The Wellesley College News, 1, no. 24 [May 1, 1902], 4). The fact that, after her marriage, she continued to be identified as “Alice Logan Dunlap” rather than by her husband’s name—which is how most of the other Wellesley alumnae are identified in the College News—may give a hint of her independence and professional identity.
Alice Logan taught in PCW’s social service program for only that first year, 1908–1909. Her name does not appear in the faculty listing of the college catalogue for teaching any subject after that year. Three years later she married Robert Wyler Dunlap and the couple became long-term medical missionaries to China; he was in charge of the Chefu Hospital in Shantung.\textsuperscript{333}

For a successful program in social service, Coolidge contended, it is essential to find the right person to head the department. Required attributes included a graduate-level university education, extensive experience in governmental and private charity organizations, knowledge of the local setting and the city’s particular requirements, and an understanding sympathy for the broad range of needs embodied in individuals and families.\textsuperscript{334} Such a person was found in Luella P. Meloy. Meloy was brought from New York City to take charge of the program in fall 1909, its second year, and she served as its director and the head of the department of economics and sociology until her retirement in 1935.

Meloy, as noted above, was an 1884 alumna of the college and a native Pittsburgher. After graduating, she taught school in Buena Vista, Pennsylvania.\textsuperscript{335} Beginning in 1888–1889 and for the subsequent five years, she served as an assistant to the academic program and taught Latin in the preparatory department at PCW. During this time she also became involved in settlement efforts at the newly founded Kingsley

\textsuperscript{334} Coolidge, “An Experiment,” 93.
\textsuperscript{335} Alumnae Recorder, 1887, 7.
House. In 1896 she assisted Isabel Bevier, a PCW faculty member in natural sciences, with a government investigation of the chemistry of foods through the Kingsley House.\(^{336}\) These interests took her to Buffalo to engage more fully in settlement work, and then later to New York City in 1901.\(^{337}\) While there, Meloy first worked with the Charity

\(^{336}\) Alumnae Recorder, 1896, 54; also Alumnae Recorder, 1895, 26. In this same edition (1896) of the Alumnae Recorder is an essay, written by a “M. L.,” that depicts that individual’s experience of living at Kingsley House for a month, collecting data for the Pure Food Commission of the U.S. Department of Agriculture and working under the direction of Bevier (pp. 24-25). As no other person is identified in the alumnae note (p. 54) as assisting Bevier, it is tempting to guess that “M. L.” is a pseudonym for Luella Meloy, though this connection must remain at the level of surmise rather than certainty. “M. L.” described how she visited local families daily to weigh their food usage and also taught weekly classes to children and adults. She related how much she learned during that month, including how important it is to listen to what persons say they need rather than making this decision for them, a theme that will reappear throughout her later teaching and writings. “M. L.” discovered that home visiting “yields to the visited sympathy and help of one kind or another and to the visitor a practical knowledge of the worth, needs, and conditions of life of neighbors. . . . I learned in the familiarity of my daily visits that there is a love for the residents of Kingsley House which must go far toward making settlement life happy and satisfying.”

In 1900 Bevier left the PCW faculty to become the head of the Department of Household Science at the University of Illinois, a position for which she was well prepared and she found most congenial (Alumnae Recorder, 1903, 36).

\(^{337}\) Alumnae Recorder, 1900, 35.
Organization Society of New York City, and then for five years she held the position of Children’s Agent with the State Charities Aid Association of New York City. It appears that she kept apprised of happenings in Pittsburgh and at the college; for instance, in late 1907 she returned to the city and visited Janet Brownlee, the principal of the preparatory school. During this time she also studied at the New York School of Philanthropy. And during the several years after taking the PCW position, it was her practice to spend the summers in New York, studying at Columbia University, which awarded her a M.A. degree in sociology in 1914.

Twelve years after the program was initiated, Coolidge observed that “Luella P. Meloy brought back to her Alma Mater a rare combination of practical methods, advanced scholarship, and rich human experience and organized our scattered efforts and unrealized ideals into an academic course of study, Social Service.” (See the discussion of Meloy’s philosophy in chapter 4.) PCW’s School of Social Service most undoubtedly owed much of its early success to the conceptualization, supervision, and passions of Luella Meloy.

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338 Alumnae Recorder, 1909, 40.
339 The Sorosis, February 1908, 23.
340 Dysart, Chatham College, 134-135; Alumnae Recorder, 1916, 31. Meloy’s master’s thesis was “The Reaction of the Pittsburgh Survey,” under the direction of Professor Franklin H. Giddings. In 1916 she indicated that she was contemplating undertaking a Ph.D. degree, but she apparently changed her mind at some point.
341 Coolidge, “The Spirit of Service: An Appreciation,” address given at the jubilee celebration, 1920, typewritten manuscript.
Promotion

Five months into the start of the social service program, Logan related the following incident in the college’s student literary magazine:

“Oh, she’s going to Social Service—whatever that is,” and the speaker went flying through the hall with probably no more thought of what such a class was for or why some the girls went out every Tuesday for the whole afternoon. In the hall below, as I waited for the class to gather to go out on an expedition, I heard this remark and thought that no doubt many of the girls had just such an indistinct idea of this course. Many people in the city have asked about the work—called it sociology, economics, social science and even domestic science—and I have been glad to tell them the proper name of the course and explain a little of what we are trying to do.\textsuperscript{342}

Logan’s experience, as she told it, highlights well the issues involved in the promotion of the new social service course. Clearly even current PCW students were not fully aware of the new program or what it was about.

During the early years of the program, the college was faced with three tasks: first, it needed to get the information out that this new department existed; second, it needed to inform people about its purpose and correct any misperceptions; and third, it needed to locate students to enroll. All three of these efforts were directed within the PCW community itself as well as to the wider western Pennsylvania community. Potential students were sought both among students already enrolled in PCW’s regular baccalaureate program and women interested in becoming nondegree students (special students) who enrolled in only the social service certificate program.

\textsuperscript{342} Alice B. Logan, “Social Service,” \textit{The Sorosis}, February 1909, 5-7, here 5.
Print Advertising. A standard way to publicize was through print advertising. PCW used this method, advertising primarily in regional newspapers as well as a few other print publications. When Lindsay took office in late summer 1906, one of his five priorities for the school, slated for immediate attention, was to advertise PCW “in as many ways and as widely as possible with due regard to expense.”\(^{343}\) Now, in 1908, this objective was certainly in the process of being fulfilled, with many and varied examples of print advertisements.\(^{344}\) The college used primarily two types of advertisements, display ads and descriptive text announcements. They bought display ads, or block ads, in a range of sizes and with a range of content during these years. The text announcements tended to be several paragraphs long, like newspaper articles. It is not clear if they were paid advertisements as such, but the copy was evidently supplied by the college, as very similar wording is seen across different newspapers.

In advertisements that ran in 1908, the college highlighted the new social service program (in both types of ads). The social service course was often featured by itself, but other times it was listed along with music, art, and/or expression as special topics a student might choose to study. This focused promotion of the social service department held for only a single year, however. In the school’s 1909 and 1910 advertising, the new

343 Report of the President to the Board of Trustees, October 9, 1906. The other four priorities were assessment of the present status of the college and determination of future plans, filling faculty vacancies, repair of the college buildings, and connecting with principals of local secondary schools to find and enroll potential students. This was Lindsay’s first presidential report.

344 Abundant examples of print advertisements have been preserved in scrapbooks in the college archives, located in two boxes in the Chatham archive collection: “Scrapbook 1907–1909, Press Notes and Advertising” and “Scrapbook 1909–1910, Press Notes and Advertising.”
dormitory supplanted social service as the featured element, including photos or drawings of the building (which had just opened in fall 1909). The classes in music and expression were still often noted—but oddly, social service tended to be included with them less and less frequently. Clearly the idea of brand new accommodations, which had been built to include all the modern conveniences, was expected to be more initially appealing to a prospective student and her parents than the academic subjects she might study.

Community Involvement. A second way by which the college promoted its new department was by having its personnel go out into the larger community. As Logan reported, she served as an ambassador for the social service program, telling people what it was about and encouraging them to learn more (see above). The following year when Meloy replaced her, Meloy carried out similar activity. For instance, she would frequently be out in the community on speaking engagements; she joined local organizations and women’s clubs in order to make personal connections; and she attended national conventions to bring awareness of PCW to a wider audience.\(^{345}\) Moreover, the weekly visits by the social service class to different local charitable agencies also fostered familiarity. Though these visits were part of the social service curriculum, other members of the PCW community (students, faculty, and any other interested persons) would also go along.\(^{346}\)

These efforts fit within President Lindsay’s larger goal, during those years, to make PCW better known in the greater Pittsburgh area. In 1908–1909, for instance, he

\(^{345}\) Meloy, letter to Acheson, June 9, 1916.

recognized six faculty members, along with himself, who had given lectures, concerts, or sermons in various locations within the city and the surrounding towns.\textsuperscript{347} Forging connections with local preparatory schools and high schools was also a priority, with the president and faculty frequently making visits to the administrators and students of local schools, to inform them about opportunities for study at PCW and encourage applications from the girls.\textsuperscript{348} And in March 1909, the college, along with the Alumnae Association, hosted a large event for hundreds of local high school and preparatory school teachers.\textsuperscript{349}

\textit{Lectures.} Yet the most prominent and persisting method of promotion of the course is seen in the college’s scheduling of lectures about social sciences, social conditions, citizenship, and sociology. In these decades (1900s−1920s), PCW offered many scholarly lectures throughout the academic year on a wide variety of subjects, including literature, politics, history, theology, science, geography, and the like. They were primarily given by invited experts but also sometimes by members of its own faculty. But the college really began including lectures on topics related to social service, broadly understood, right at the time that the new program was initiated; thus, making this connection would seem warranted. All of these lectures, like most all the programs at the college in general, were open to the general public. Students were also required to attend all chapel services and other morning programs such as these. Therefore, we would expect, scheduling programming on social service topics was another effective

\textsuperscript{347} President’s Report to the Trustees, February 19, 1909.
\textsuperscript{348} President’s Report to the Trustees, February 19, 1909.
\textsuperscript{349} \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1909, 53; “College Notes,” \textit{The Sorosis}, March 1909, 24.
means by which to inform persons inside and outside the college community about the new social service course.

On November 5, 1907, Jane Addams gave a lecture at PCW on the topic “Settlements in England and America.” Although the new department would not be approved for five more months, we must understand Addams’s visit to the college as a

Addams (second from left) with the Faculty

350 In a bit of irony, M. Carey Thomas, the president of Bryn Mawr College, had been very much trying to get Addams to come to do a lecture tour of some of the large eastern colleges during this very time, which Addams had declined to do. PCW was able to get on her schedule—while larger, wealthier Bryn Mawr was not. Addams did later agree, however, to a much abbreviated eastern tour to be done that next spring. (Thomas, letters to Jane Addams, October 21, 1907; October 29, 1907; Reel 35, M. Carey Thomas Papers, Bryn Mawr College Archives)

Though she came to the city of Pittsburgh to speak on other occasions over the next several years, Addams also made another personal visit to PCW on November 25, 1924. Her address was on “Education in the Orient” (The Arrow, October 28, 1924, 7; the title of her address is noted in the 1925–1926 catalogue).
visible and significant step toward the college’s movement to incorporating sociology and social work into its educational mission. Hers was the inaugural address in a new lecture series presented by the school’s Alumnae Association. The goal of the alumnae was to obtain, for the edification of the college community, “the very best lecturers that could be secured, working for quality, not quantity,” and Addams did not disappoint.\textsuperscript{351} She spoke about the traditions of settlement work, particularly emphasizing her own efforts to build Hull House and her work with immigrant populations. The students reported how everyone thoroughly enjoyed the lecture and found it inspiring, that “one could not help but feel an interest in a work in which she herself is so vitally interested.”\textsuperscript{352}

Addams was then at the midpoint of her career, a public figure well respected for her writings and her activity in national progressive causes. Influenced on a trip to London by the settlement house Toynbee Hall, she had established Hull House in 1889, in a mixed immigrant Chicago neighborhood, to be an incubator for social programs that responded to the needs of the immediate community. Hull House was a cooperative boarding house, accommodating young women who were employed in the local factories alongside resident workers (mostly all women) who contributed their labor and financial support to its social projects.\textsuperscript{353}

\textsuperscript{351} Alumnae Recorder, June 1908, 9.
\textsuperscript{352} “Students’ Lecture Course and Alumnae Play,” The Sorosis, December, 1907, 24; see also “Alumnae Notes,” The Sorosis, October, 1907 26.
Addams strongly supported women’s higher education and argued that educated women should—even were obligated to—play a role in public life. Though coeducational institutions existed in Illinois at that time, Addams herself was a product of single-sex women’s education. She had yearned to attend Smith College, which had been founded a few years prior; her father, however, insisted that she stay closer to home and attend Rockford Female Seminary, where he served on the board of trustees. There, as she experienced the empowerment of living in a woman-centered environment, she blossomed intellectually. In her essay “Claim on the College Woman” (published in the *Rockford Collegian* in 1895) Addams argued that greatness consists not of erudition or refinement but of reaching out to care for the less fortunate in society, that women’s knowledge must best be put toward the service of others. It is not surprising, therefore, that the majority of the female resident workers at Hull House were college graduates—the type of vocation well suited, we might expect, for anyone completing PCW’s course in social service.

Following Addams’s speech in the fall of 1907, when the new social service department was announced in late spring 1908, it was first publicized and promoted at the alumnae program in early June, as noted above. From the time the program started in fall 1908 through the next few years, the college scheduled a burst of public lectures around social concerns. Most all of them were given by outside speakers who were professional social or charity workers, experts on a particular topic, although on occasion Meloy or

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Coolidge would also give a lecture. As is clear in the following list, up through 1915 or so there was a preponderance of public lectures on social service topics. That emphasis eased up during the latter years of the 1910s, as war concerns instead became the predominant topic for the college’s lectures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Date</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jane Addams</td>
<td>Settlements in England and America</td>
<td>Nov. 5, 1907</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen B. Pendleton (Head of the Associated Charities)</td>
<td>The Profession of Social Service</td>
<td>June 5, 1908</td>
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<tr>
<td>Florence L. Lattimore</td>
<td>The Pittsburgh Survey</td>
<td>Nov. 11, 1908</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lillian Taylor</td>
<td>The American National Red Cross Society</td>
<td>Dec. 2, 1908</td>
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<tr>
<td>Katherine R. Pettit</td>
<td>The Poor Whites of the South</td>
<td>Feb. 9, 1909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George W. Montgomery (Superintendent, School for Bohemian Girls, Coraopolis)</td>
<td>The Foreign Population of Western Pennsylvania</td>
<td>March 3, 1909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luella P. Meloy</td>
<td>Personal Experiences in Social Work</td>
<td>June 4, 1909</td>
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<tr>
<td>Luella P. Meloy</td>
<td>The Homeless Child</td>
<td>Feb. 2, 1910</td>
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355 The data for this chart have been culled from notices in *The Sorosis*, the *Alumnae Recorder*, and college catalogues. The information reported in these publications is not complete in all instances.

356 The event of this lecture became a text announcement published in local newspapers that was clearly intended to advertise the college (note especially the final sentence about the start of the spring term). The same description appeared, almost verbatim, in the February 3rd editions of *The Pittsburgh Post*, *The Pittsburgh Sun*, and *The Pittsburgh Gazette-Times*. It read: ‘Childless homes would be fewer could more of Pittsburgh’s people have listened to Miss Luella P. Meloy’s talk on ‘The Homeless Child’ yesterday morning at the Pennsylvania College for Women. Miss Meloy, who is in charge of the department of social service of the college, is a social worker of wide experience, and she charmed her audience yesterday with her pleasing personality. Miss Meloy has not acquired the ‘philanthropic smile.’ She made a strong plea for foundlings and abandoned children of the country. She said: ‘Institutions are a necessity as temporary homes for children, but
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Name and Title</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Date</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anna A. Hunter '03</td>
<td>Our Professional and Social Workers</td>
<td>June 10, 1910</td>
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<tr>
<td>Margaret E. McKinney '02</td>
<td>Response to Hunter</td>
<td>June 10, 1910</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dr. Edwards (Board of Health in Pittsburgh)</td>
<td>The Betterment of the Sick and the Poor</td>
<td>October 1910</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jean Hamilton (Civic Section, College Club of Pittsburgh)</td>
<td>Working Girls’ Clubs in Large Cities</td>
<td>October 1910</td>
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<tr>
<td>Susanne Beatty</td>
<td>The Juvenile Court</td>
<td>October 1910</td>
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<tr>
<td>William W. Keller (Assistant Secretary, Pittsburgh Child Labor Association)</td>
<td>(No topic given)</td>
<td>Dec. 7, 1910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charles F. Campbell (Director, Pittsburgh Workshop for the Blind)</td>
<td>Work among the Adult Blind</td>
<td>March 1911</td>
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<tr>
<td>Miss Wilbur (YWCA worker)</td>
<td>(No topic given)</td>
<td>Spring 1911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. L. McEwan (minister)</td>
<td>A City of Foreigners and Our Opportunities</td>
<td>June 9, 1911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cora Helen Coolidge</td>
<td>New Vocations for College Women</td>
<td>Oct. 11, 1911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anna A. Hunter '03</td>
<td>Women Economically Independent</td>
<td>June 6, 1913</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lucy Robertson</td>
<td>The Volunteer Movement and Its Significance to College Girls</td>
<td>Nov. 6, 1912</td>
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<tr>
<td>J. Royal Harris</td>
<td>The Social Conscience</td>
<td>AY 1913–1914</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dalton McClelland</td>
<td>The Student Volunteer Movement</td>
<td>AY 1913–1914</td>
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<tr>
<td>Allan Burns (Civic Commission)</td>
<td>Municipal Housekeeping</td>
<td>March 18, 1914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charles C. Cooper (Director, Kingsley House)</td>
<td>The Boys of Kingsley House</td>
<td>November 1914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luella P. Meloy</td>
<td>Reaction of the Pittsburgh Survey</td>
<td>Dec. 2, 1914</td>
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the child who is obliged to remain in one is greatly wronged, since it soon becomes institutionalized. The obvious effect of the life in an institution is the loss of individuality and the deadening of faculties in the formative years.’ Miss Meloy stated that only a small proportion of children in asylums are full orphans, since full orphans are more readily adopted. Children living in institutions are generally there through the shiftlessness, vice or misfortune of their parents, and the question of their future is a grave problem if they are never provided with homes.

The second semester of the college opens this week, and Friday night students and their friends will be given a reception by the faculty.”

357 There is a discrepancy about this speaker’s surname. The 1913–1914 college catalogue (p. 57) listed it as Robertson, whereas a note in *The Sorosis* (October 1912, p. 19) identified her as Robinson.
Special attention must be given to the support of the alumnae for the social service program. The Alumnae Association held a dinner and program in early June each year (note those dates in the list above). What is noteworthy is how often, during this

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358 These last five, from June 9, 1922, were all part of the same event, the annual alumnae program. Its overall title was “Echoes from the Social Service Department” and it featured presentations by alumnae of the social service course (see chapter 5).
span of years, this annual event featured presentations on topics connected to social work. Moreover, these annual programs did not always feature topical addresses—some years’ events did not include a topical program at all, but instead talks from members of the anniversary-year class, or updates from the president or dean about the state of the college or the current fundraising campaign, or the like—rendering it even more significant that such frequent and sustained attention was given to topics related to social service. This level of interest reveals that what Coolidge and Lindsay had hoped at the outset, that the alumnae especially would give the new program their support, had come to fruition. PCW’s alumnae had always been considered an important resource for boosting the enrollment of the college in general.359 Now the Alumnae Association clearly had come to support, and even take ownership in, this program. And it could not have hurt that one of their own was the program’s director.

Program Components

From the vantage point of over two decades later, Meloy and Coolidge reminisced about the early days of the department of social service:

When we began to teach Social Service we could not follow any light thrown on the road by the practice of any other colleges. I used to spend much time searching college catalogues to find out how they were doing the thing we wanted to do, but I could not discover that it

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was being done in any kind of way in any kind of college. The college had no pattern of social service courses, no textbooks, for they had not yet been written.

PCW was not merely adding a new program and a new department to the organization. That, most certainly, would be challenging enough. Rather, PCW was creating an entirely new type of entity that did not yet exist anywhere. How should young women best be prepared for engaging in charitable work? What topics would they need to know; what skills would they need to develop? And after answering such questions, Coolidge, Lindsay, Logan, and then Meloy would have needed to decide how best to meet those student needs, through class content, course duration, admission requirements, place and weight within the rest of the curriculum, commitments from outside partners, and more. The school was starting from scratch as it attempted to figure out the best content and scope for a collegiate social service educational program.

From the first, however, the program’s originators identified at least two characteristics particular to PCW that would allow such a course to be possible. One feature was the college’s relatively small size. The type of learning they had planned, they felt, could be done only in classes with limited enrollments. Large classes could not cover the material and impart the necessary knowledge and skills as well as could small classes. Another distinctive and essential characteristic of PCW was its location. Such education would be possible only in a large city, where many types of social work were

362 Coolidge, “An Experiment.”
actively being carried on and where there were many experts readily available for instruction and vocational guidance. The broad network of local philanthropic and charitable organizations, coordinated through the newly formed Associated Charities of Pittsburgh, provided the required opportunities for students to undertake their fieldwork and to learn the practical side of social work.\textsuperscript{363} The “instructor” for this type of social service course would need to be not only the college faculty, but also—and to as large of a degree—the city itself.

Theory and Practice

The anchor of PCW’s social service course was the conviction that the theoretical and the practical must be approached together. Lindsay and Coolidge conceived the course upon this combination—“the lecture and the laboratory.”\textsuperscript{364} Although none of the college’s official materials directly articulated this contrast, the emphasis on the inclusion of academic sociological theory, supported by the whole of PCW’s classical curriculum in general, is what would have distinguished its program from those (noncollegiate) social work training programs in other similarly positioned cities (e.g., New York, Chicago, St. Louis).

After running the program for a few years, Meloy became even more fully convinced that all social workers should receive their training in a college setting. To do

\textsuperscript{363} Lindsay, “The School of Social Service,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1908, 12-13; Coolidge, “An Experiment.”
\textsuperscript{364} Lindsay, “The School of Social Service,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1908, 12-13, here 12.
the work satisfactorily, social workers discover that they need to know the natural sciences, literature, languages, and mathematics. Every subject in the classical college curriculum was valuable and needed, she argued, if a social worker wants to advance very far in her vocation. Moreover, a graduating student appreciated the inclusion of such broader topics, such as political, economic, and national concerns, in addition to the formal “social topics”: because of them, she found the social service course even able to take the place of a contemporary history course. Making certain that students had this broad base of knowledge was a primary distinction between PCW and other training courses that focused on just the vocational.

Indeed, drawing any sort of line between theoretical and practical, or academic and vocational, was to engage in false dichotomy. Meloy expressed how she approached the discipline holistically:

In educational circles they are still trying to work out an old puzzle— Shall the student elect those studies which make him cultured or those which will train him for a vocation? I have heard educators say in substance that he must choose between the two, he cannot have both: that the subject which unites in itself both cultural and vocational value is a missing educational link. The answer is obvious. Social Studies—Civics, Economics, Sociology—especially if illustrated from life, should open the mind to culture and no less prepare it for the exercise of character and judgment in practical life.

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365 Meloy, “The Social Service Department,” *The Sorosis*, April 1914. She stated, actually, that she had formed two convictions since taking on the leadership of the department. Along with thinking that colleges are where social workers should best undertake their training, she had also become convinced that every college needs to have its own social service department.

366 L. C. [Leah Claster], *The Pennsylvanian*, 1918, 73.

The college was careful to maintain the academic quality of the social service
course. It was essential that the social service classes promoted scholarship and did not
detract from the scholarly value of the Bachelor of Arts degree nor discredit the academic
character of the college’s reputation. The practice work was planned and scheduled
carefully, so as not to significantly encroach on the time a student had for her other
classes.\(^{368}\)

Despite the fact that half of each social service class was dedicated to vocational
work, the college had no qualms about giving academic credit for these classes. It was
felt that these classes stimulated scholarship to an even greater degree than their
counterparts in the classical departments, in addition to providing a breadth of view and
enlarging students’ interests in ways they would not attain through traditional classes
alone.\(^{369}\)

Program Description and Features

The college catalogue introduced the social service course as such:

The purpose of these courses is to give opportunity for the study by
practical methods, of charitable, corrective, neighborhood, church and
kindred forms of social work, particularly for young women who
would prepare themselves for service in institutions and agencies,
whether under private management or public administration, to serve
either as paid officials or volunteers. The courses aim to consider the
fundamental principles of sociology and the social problems of
common interest and to give a broad outlook over this field of work.

\(^{368}\) Coolidge, “An Experiment.”

\(^{369}\) Coolidge, “An Experiment.”
They aim to combine theoretical study with practice as the best preparation for intelligent and efficient service. The theoretical course will be given in the college rooms, and the practical training at the co-operating institutions or agencies under the immediate direction of those in charge. . . . Students in the Social Service courses will receive instruction from the faculty in allied departments such as Bible, Ethics, Psychology, Education, Sociology, and English, as well as from special workers. Lectures will be given and social problems presented by persons of rare experience in their lines of work.

Structure. The course consisted of both a one-year and a two-year option. Each would lead to a certificate upon completion. The first year of the course could be taken during the freshwoman, sophomore, or junior year, and the second year taken during the senior year of the baccalaureate program. It was felt that the practice work of the second year was best deferred to the upperclass years, when students had achieved the requisite maturity. The course required two semester-hours a week throughout the academic year (for either one or two years): one semester-hour in the classroom, for the study of social issues; and one semester-hour in the field, engaged in practical work. Students would take the social service classes as their two-hour elective courses, in lieu of another elective. In this way students could complete a regular college course that would fulfill the entire range of requirements for a B.A. degree, and in addition be well prepared to enter into any area of social work upon graduation.

The course was also open to nonbaccalaureate students, or special students. Special students had to be at least eighteen years old and needed either to have a high school diploma (or studies amounting to its equivalent) or to have had demonstrated prior experience in some type of social work. The college also opened the possibility of an
exception to this requirement if a student could show promise that undertaking the course would allow her to successfully enter social service work. Personal references, to testify that a student possessed the character and proper motivation necessary for such a vocation, were also required of special students. Tuition was $125 per year, the same as for regular baccalaureate students, and special students also had the option to live in the college dormitory.

Course Requirements. The social service class descriptions read as follows.

In the 1908–1909 catalogue:

A. Theory combined with practical work, chiefly in the line of observation in carefully selected institutions. Lectures and discussions. Elective. 2 hours, through the year.
B. Theory combined with professional training by means of definite practice in some chosen line. Elective, open to those who have had Course A. Two hours, through the year.

When Meloy took over as head of the department in the second year, she refined the content and scope of the first-year course.

In the 1909–1910 catalogue:

A. Assigned topics dealing with problems of poverty and principles of relief, and with the methods of philanthropic agencies. Lectures on preventive and constructive agencies for social welfare. Discussions. Weekly visits in and about Pittsburgh. Elective. 2 hours, through the year.
B. Professional training, combining theory and practical experience in some chosen field. Elective, open to those who have had Course A. Two hours, through the year.
The focus of first year was *observation*. The class would visit several selected local agencies and organizations engaged in different areas of charitable and social efforts, under faculty supervision. The purpose was to give a general overview of the field, to enlarge the students’ basic knowledge. Based on this exposure, by the conclusion of the year, the student was expected to be able to decide intelligently where her particular interests and talents lay.

The focus of second year, for those students who opted to continue on, was *practice*. The student would engage in professional and technical work in the area she had chosen for her specialization. For one afternoon or evening each week, she would undertake actual service work with one of the approved local agencies or organizations. This work was jointly supervised by PCW faculty and the agency’s representative.370

Logan reported some of the components of the first year. She began the class with discussion of the Pittsburgh Survey, the results of which had just recently been released, including why it had been performed, how the data were collected and the conclusions were reached, and what potential benefits it might provide. The class then took up a study of the Juvenile Court, including its origin, the range of duties of its probation officers, and its methods for recordkeeping. They visited its courtrooms, while the court was in session, and its detention rooms. A unit on the various agencies that assisted children followed, including visits to an orphan asylum, a day nursery, an industrial school, a manual training school, a playground and recreation center, and a Carnegie Library club. In the spring term Logan introduced settlement and child labor

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370 Coolidge, “An Experiment.”
laws. The class then turned to the work of Christian associations, including visits to the Consumers’ League, the Red Cross Society, the Campaign against Tuberculosis, the Salvation Army, hospital chaplaincy, and classes for factory women. Logan urged the students, at every site they visited, to assess critically the positive and negative aspects of each place.\footnote{Alice B. Logan, “Social Service,” \textit{The Sorosis}, February 1909, 5-7.}

No course materials, syllabi, or the like have been retained that would help us to understand more precisely the assignments for students in the social service classes. Yet a few brief mentions of items do provide a sense of at least some the components that were included. For instance, each student was required to keep a cumulative notebook, which was graded by the instructor.\footnote{Meloy, letter to Acheson, June 6, 1916, typewritten.} Students were assigned to read and comment on articles about current events from newspapers and magazines, in order to become familiar with political and other current affairs and to develop lifelong habits of becoming daily and critical readers of these types of materials.\footnote{The \textit{Pennsylvanian}, 1918, 93.} And in addition to the regular visits to local agencies, the class would attend lectures and events in the city, as they did when Hastings H. Hart of the newly established Russell Sage Foundation was in town to give a lecture, hosted by the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce.\footnote{The \textit{Sorosis}, December 1909, 26.}

\textit{Course Objectives.} Similarly, there is no extant listing of the goals or objectives of the social service classes—what knowledge and abilities students were expected to demonstrate in order to successfully complete the program. But again, here and there
throughout the college’s materials are mentioned expectations for, or achievements of, social service students. Culling through these materials provides us at least a partial sense of what the students learned.  

Analyze real-life social conditions
Form intelligent opinions about public questions
Gain experience in dealing with human nature
Develop initiative and perseverance
Be able to work with people from all walks of life
Develop organizational and leadership skills
Understand the principles underlying government
Gain familiarity with the city and its philanthropic agencies
Understand the political, economic, and natural topics of the day
Understand oneself as a social being and all that entails, and how to relate to other social beings, who all together make up society

*Originality.* In 1914, Meloy said of the course’s initiation by Coolidge and Lindsay six years earlier, “their plan was an adaptation from the Course for Social Workers offered by Simmons College, Boston.”  

This statement represents the sole mention of the Simmons College program in all of the PCW materials. At the time of its

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375 This list is compiled primarily from material in Coolidge, “An Experiment”; Meloy, “Practical Sociology in the College”; and entries in *The Pennsylvanian.*

establishment in 1908, no connection to the program at Simmons, nor even recognition of its existence as a similar endeavor, was officially voiced. Simmons College, as discussed previously, had the first college-based social work program, begun in 1904 (chapter 1).

Simmons was created as a technical college for women and not an academically focused college, as was PCW. It offered only the Bachelor of Science degree. At the time when its School for Social Workers was initiated, the college was organized into four separate schools: the School of Household Economics, the School of Secretarial Studies, the School of Library Science, and the School of General Science.377 All students were enrolled in one of these schools for the four years of their matriculation.

Simmons’s social work course was for a duration of one year, and it offered three options for study: students in the baccalaureate program, students taking just the social work course, and part-time students (the last typically being already employed in service work). A certificate was awarded for completing the work of that year. For baccalaureate students, the social work course represented their fourth year of study. They would complete their first three years in one of the other Simmons College schools, then transfer to the School for Social Workers for their senior year. That year would include classwork, lectures given by the faculty and by professionals in the field, and

377 The School of Public Health Nursing and the School of Education for Store Service would also be added within the next decade (Kenneth L Mark, Delayed by Fire, being the Early History of Simmons College [Concord, NH: Rumford, 1945], 106-136). Also useful for information on the program are “75th Anniversary, Simmons College School of Social Work, a Retrospective on the Occasion of the Diamond Jubilee” (Simmons College, March 1980) and the Finding Aids for the School of Social Work, Archival Collection—RG 24. All copies of documents from Simmons College were provided by Jason Wood, University Archivist and Deputy Director, Simmons University.
supervised practice work. The fieldwork in local agencies would be ten to fourteen hours per week. The social science class is described as such in the 1907–1908 Simmons College catalogue, which would have been the most recent version available when PCW was planning its program: “An introductory course in social theory and descriptive sociology. Discussions of the evolution of social institutions,—domestic, political, religious, and industrial. Collateral reading, with written reports, on topics in the literature of sociology, and on the problems of social reform.”

The majority of students who enrolled in this program in its early years were persons from the community who came for just that single year, and relatively few Simmons baccalaureate students (and very few Harvard students) opted to take it.

There were, thus, very substantial differences in both structure and content between the Simmons course and the PCW course. Both incorporated practice work, or fieldwork, that was performed with various local charitable agencies. But unlike the PCW baccalaureate course, the Simmons course did not integrate the academic work in social service with academic work in other subjects; it was a completely separate final year. There were no required or recommended foundational courses in complementary departments, which might be elected during a student’s first three years. Nor were its nonbaccalaureate students required to take classes in complementary departments; they would have had only the social work class. And because those subjects were not even offered at the college, Simmons baccalaureate students would not have the broad liberal

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378 Like PCW, Simmons College also published a separate pamphlet to describe and promote its program, “School for Social Workers, Maintained by Simmons College and Harvard University,” Simmons University Archives.

379 Mark, *Delayed by Fire*, 122.
curriculum that PCW students would have had, including study in Greek, Latin, literature, philosophy, religion, art history, and the like. In all, a PCW social service student was prepared for her future endeavors quite differently from a Simmons College social work student. Both schools could be said to have a college-based program in social work—but that was where the similarity ended. If Meloy called the PCW program an “adaptation” of the Simmons program, it could be so understood in only the very loosest form conceivable.

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At the conclusion of academic year 1908–1909, the social service class gave a program for the PCW community. First Alice Logan described the work that had been undertaken and the local agencies that had been visited over the previous several months. Then those three forward-looking students who, back in September, had opted to try this untested venture, each gave a presentation on a particular area of interest. Elma McKibben spoke on the Consumers’ League; Frances Neel spoke on the Salvation Army; and Rosalie Supplee spoke on the Associated Charities.380 Surely there was great pride that this new program—considered so experimental, so innovative—had successfully made it to the end of its maiden year.

CHAPTER 4
THE FURTHER DEVELOPMENT OF THE SOCIAL SERVICE PROGRAM

As the academic year 1910–1911 opened, the social service program at the Pennsylvania College for Women had completed its first two years. And its permanent director, Luella Meloy, had finished her first year. Upon the foundation of this successful launch, the program was poised to advance quickly. “The Social Service courses are growing in favor,” Lindsay announced with satisfaction. “Twenty-eight students have entered this year.”

The total college enrollment in fall 1910 was one hundred twenty-five. Thus more than one in every five students had decided to register for the social service classes. This year the class would also visit an expanded group of cooperating agencies from those who were originally named, including the Pennsylvania Reform School of Morganza, in Canonsburg, Pennsylvania, and the brand-new Pittsburgh Workshop for the Blind.

After two years’ experience, the faculty were already identifying places for improvement upon the course’s original design, a process of experimentation and adaptation that would continue through the following years. With the 1910–1911 year they put into place two notable changes. First, in order to “secure more maturity on the

381 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 21, 1910.
part of the student,” the social service classes were now open only to sophomores, juniors, and seniors. The faculty also discovered that one year was not sufficient time to meet the educational objectives for students. “We find that the lengthening of the time during which the work proceeds in connection with other work brings a cultural effect not so easily attained when the same amount of practical work is carried in one year.” The college therefore dropped the one-year option; now the program would require a full two years of coursework and fieldwork for students who desired a certificate. During this year Coolidge was also starting to develop her ideas around emerging vocations for college-educated women outside of teaching, medicine, and other typical female occupations—a concern that would become important to her own advocacy and to later initiatives of the college, and for which the social service program would become central.384

Our college is a cultural institution the purpose of which is to educate students who come to us, so that each individual may realize the best there is for her, in the full use of her powers, in the true happiness she is prepared to make for herself and others, and in the help she can give in the home and in the community. If I had all the money any college president ever dreamed of, and then awoke to find it but a dream, I would not willingly change this high ideal of general culture for which

383 Coolidge, “An Experiment,” 92, 93.
our college has stood even in its days of adversity. Pennsylvania College for Women has always had good reason to be proud of the type of women it has year by year sent out into the community.

So wrote Lindsay, in spring 1912, for a report entitled “My Ambition for the College.”

He spoke here clearly about the mission, the identity, and the purpose of the school. As the trajectory of PCW continued over the next several years, the college further expanded its purpose and further defined its identity. It would be faced with new questions, for instance, about how it should best be constituted, how it could be more securely funded, where it should be located, and whether it should remain independent. PCW, during these years, would adapt itself for a new generation of women who brought a new type of student. These years would become a potent time of weathering challenges and shaping institutional identity.

This next period was also marked by turnovers in leadership. By the end of academic year 1921–1922, PCW would find itself in the same position as it was in 1906, with the departures of both president and dean at the same moment. The college would begin again with a new administrative slate. Thus 1922 marks the end of an era, another turning point in the institution’s history. It is therefore a fitting place to conclude our examination of the beginnings of the social service program.

During this period two major events strongly affected PCW: the war and the college’s jubilee commemoration. The college and its students were unsettled and engaged in special programming from the start of the war, and war efforts began more systematically with the entry of the United States in April 1917. Students sacrificed and

economized to their fullest ability, to be able to contribute to the cause. They held clothing and book drives along with numerous other fundraisers, to which they were proud to announce that every single student and faculty member contributed, to send to various relief projects. An auxiliary of the Red Cross was set up on campus and students pledged their time to sew, knit, and make surgical dressings. Financially, the war caused significant distress to the college. The annual deficit increased dramatically during these years and was covered only by special solicitations of subscriptions to guarantee the debt. As for the larger plans for development, all had to be placed on hold for the duration of the war. The four-year wait for their resolution made for an especially trying period. Yet the college’s response to the war also served as a source of institutional honor and achievement, as a “most creditable showing [that] will compare most favorably on a per capita basis with the service rendered by the other great women’s colleges in the country.”

Reflecting the college’s founding in 1869, the academic year 1919–1920, the fiftieth anniversary, was commemorated as a Jubilee Year. This milestone was likewise a source of school pride, for only a few other women’s colleges could boast of five decades of existence at that point. A huge celebration had been anticipated,

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387 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, December 4, 1918.
388 See the more detailed description of these events in Dysart, *Chatham College*, 148, 151, 155-158.
389 They included only Elmira College (Elmira, New York; founded in 1855), Vassar College (Poughkeepsie, New York; founded in 1861), Wells College (Aurora, New York;
planned, and prepared for the prior couple of years, to take place around the
commencement events in June 1920. The festivities included a banquet at a local hotel
for hundreds of invited guests, along with various other receptions and formal luncheons,
and two days of addresses by invited speakers, one day a “historical day” program and
one day an “educational day” program, the latter having a theme of “Women in the New
World.” The highlight of the jubilee celebration was a grand pageant, *Victory through
Conflict*, that traced humankind’s struggles and achievements from biblical times up to
the present, interpreted through music and dance.390 Though PCW had long presented
musical and dramatic programs for the public, in recent years it had created and staged
two other elaborate productions, in 1915 and 1916.391 *Victory through Conflict*, however,

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390 It was published as Mary W. Brownson and Vanda E. Kerst, *Victory through Conflict.*
The Music Written or Arranged by Walter Wild. The Dances Directed by Marion
Gifford. Illustrated by Woodman Thompson. (Pittsburgh: The Pennsylvania College for
Women, 1920).

391 *Paskkennodan*, which symbolized the growth of the city of Pittsburgh, in May 1915;
and a Shakespeare Festival in May 1916. The Dramatic Club (which included not only
students taking the classes in expression but all interested students) also produced some
significant plays and other dramatic works during these years (Dysart, *Chatham College*,
137). The college felt that such performances, “although not in the College Curriculum,
must have a great educational value for all the participants and contribute largely to the
eclipsed them both in intent and scope. It was an original creation, written by four
members of the faculty, and included vocal soloists, two Pittsburgh choral groups, and a
full orchestra, in addition to PCW students, alumnae, and their children. These
monumental productions, which were performed in the college’s outdoor amphitheater
and attended by thousands of spectators, served during these years to increase city’s
knowledge of, and appreciation for, this small college in its midst.

As discussed previously, a prime marker for the success of a college—and
perhaps the prime marker during this period in U.S. higher education, with its general
low rate of postsecondary attendance out of total population—was its enrollment
numbers. (See the figures for 1905–1910 in chapter 3.) They demonstrated how many
students a college was able to attract. To this point PCW had been using primarily three
methods to recruit students: print advertising in newspapers, magazines, and educational
publications; visits to area high schools by the president and faculty members, along with
hosting informational events on campus for high school teachers and principals; and
referrals from alumnae. The alumnae were relied upon significantly for ongoing,
enthusiastic support of the college, as well as to model in the community, by their very
persons, the benefits of a PCW education. For an example, the following is an editorial
in the 1913 alumnae publication:

Judging from all reports and appearances our Alma Mater has had a
very favorable year, but there is still the same need—more Girls. And
this is where each and every one of us has a chance to help our College
in the most practical and beneficial way. More girls mean more

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honor and influence of the College in this community” (Minutes of the Board of Trustees,
June 11, 1915).
money, and more money means independence, that, for which all women are reaching out. Fifty girls can be graduated with the same instruction, almost the same expense and as easily as can twenty. Why haven’t we fifty in our Senior Class? What is the reason? Girls go to college every year. Is it the lure of the big Eastern College?—the idea of a distinction that a diploma from one of them may give, the life there, or is it the old story of a prophet without honor in his own country? If it be one of these reasons, we, as individuals can help to overcome it by some good, solid and honest rooting. How many of us have persuaded one girl to try Pennsylvania? How many classes even can boast one girl won over to P. C.W. through their efforts? How many, who have daughters of their own, have graduated them from their own college? Answer these questions and then look on this side. P.C.W. produced us. We are able to go out into the world and stand shoulder to shoulder with those of similar training, without flinching nor loss. P.C.W. gave us the foundation and the ability to construct for ourselves. She offers the same to others. The debt is ours, let us pay it. Deeds, not words, count. Think it over. Root for our College and for a “Fifty Class.”

The energy and enthusiasm of the alumnae were palpable and, without doubt, surely benefited the college in numerous ways.

During this time, however, the college’s methods of recruitment became somewhat more professionalized. Probably most significant, in 1911 PCW began to hire “field workers” who would go out to visit area schools and individual potential students for the college and Dilworth Hall. In addition, the advertising budget was increased to

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393 For the first couple of years this process seems to have been a bit scattershot, with different persons engaged for each recruiting season: Miss Nolan in 1911; Mr. Baxter in 1912; and Marie Kendall and Janet Brownlee ’14 in 1914 (President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, October 20, 1911; February 20, 1912; June 11, 1913). In January 1916, though, an individual held the position of “field secretary” for four years, Mary Helen Marks. Marks would continue on to be elevated to other significant positions in the college (registrar, 1919–1922; dean, 1922–1952; acting president, 1933–1935).
$1500, and it formally engaged the help of persons within the college community who had some background in advertising.\footnote{Helen Randolph, a faculty member (German and Italian), and Jennie DeVore Porter '99, an alumna (President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, June 12, 1914; October 13, 1914).} One year a contest was even held for students and faculty to create new print ads for the college to use, with prizes going to the best submissions. And an illustrated booklet about the college was prepared for recruitment season in 1915.\footnote{President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, December 11, 1914.}

The combination of these updated processes yielded, by 1922, the highest enrollments to date. The college enrollment reached 221 students, an increase of seventy-seven percent during this twelve-year period (in 1910 the enrollment was 125). Seventy-five of this total were freshwomen, another record high number. Moreover, the faculty was also at its largest point, with thirty-one faculty members (twenty-three full time and others having some administrative duties).\footnote{President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, November 13, 1922.} In 1922 there were thirty-eight seniors. PCW had not yet quite reached a “fifty class,” as the editors of the alumnae journal exhorted.\footnote{As a point of reference, in 1913, when the alumnae editorial was written, the senior class numbered only seventeen. (The members of each class were printed in the college catalogues.)}

But it was certainly much closer.

In the spring of 1922, the outlook for PCW looked as promising, and its community was as optimistic, as in spring 1906, after the financial crisis was averted. In

With no little irony in light of the sentiments of the quotation above, Mary Helen Marks was a daughter of an alumna (Sara Fredericks ’81). She had even been named after PCW’s long-serving and much beloved President Helen Pelletreau (Dysart, Chatham College, 149). But she chose to attend Smith College rather than her mother’s alma mater.
one of his final statements, President Acheson declared how “the college with respect to its enrollment and academic advancement is in a most happy and prosperous condition. . . . The college has passed through a very critical period, but the outlook for the future was never brighter and I am firm in my conviction that the plans for the development of a larger and a better P.C.W. can be and will be consummated at no very distant date.”

Those plans and that consummation, however, would be carried out by other hands. Thus 1922 marked the end of one era in the college’s history, and the start of a new one.

**Administrative Transitions**

Lindsay had been serving as president for seven and a half years when, on January 28, 1914, he suddenly and unexpectedly passed away. He was only fifty-four years old and in strong health when he contracted pneumonia and died within the course of several days. One of the trustees recalled how he had heard Lindsay preach at a local church on Sunday, then the announcement of his death came during church services of the following Sunday. Lindsay’s premature death was an acute shock to the college community and to many in the city at large. At the time of his death he intended to serve at PCW for years to come and had many plans for the school. Lindsay was remembered as one who “saw a vision of what this college might be. With high ideals from which he never turned . . . he did his work. . . . He overcame difficulties, he secured

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money, he solved problems, he received and held the confidence of the strong men and women of this community. . . . The position and reputation and influence of the college under his leadership were growing steadily, and there seemed to be the promise of more rapid development. The Board promptly named Coolidge as acting president and formed a special committee to permanently fill the vacancy. Over the course of several months, in addition to Lindsay’s death was the unexpected death of a young staff member, serious illnesses and lengthy hospitalizations for some of the faculty, and a fire in the main building. In all, the academic year 1913–1914 was disruptive, sorrowful, and challenging for the college community.

The presidential search committee chose John Carey Acheson as the college’s next president, to begin his term on January 1, 1915. During this interim period of almost a year’s time, Coolidge was seen to have served most capably, seamlessly carrying on the business of the college and, in the words of a trustee, “more than fulfilled our highest expectations.” She was offered the presidency, but did not wish to have

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400 William L. McEwan, “Henry Drennan Lindsay: A Funeral Address,” *The Sorosis*, April 1914, 4-8, here 5. See also “The Inauguration of President Acheson,” 1915, booklet; induction speech by McClintock, 28-32.

401 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, January 22, 1914; February 6, 1914.


403 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, October 13, 1914. McClintock, the chair of the Board, recalled how J. B. Finley, a trustee, contacted the executive secretary of the Presbyterian Board of Education in New York for suggestions. The secretary recommended Acheson, and also recommended PCW to Acheson as the women’s college with the greatest opportunity in the country. It was this conviction that induced Acheson to accept the PCW presidency (reported in an unsigned letter to the Members of the Board of Trustees, Pennsylvania College for Women, June 6, 1922).
financial responsibility for the college and declined it.\footnote{Spencer, “What the Board of Trustees Is Doing (By One of Them),” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1914, 21-23, here 22; see also Acheson’s comments, President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, February 19, 1915; Spencer, “Our Dean,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1917, 10-12.} Acheson had served as the president of Kentucky College for Women for the previous twelve years.\footnote{The Kentucky College for Women, located in Danville, traced its origins to the Henderson Female Academy, which was founded in 1854. In 1860 its name was changed to the Caldwell Female Institute; in 1876, to the Caldwell Female College; and just in 1913 the institution had been renamed the Kentucky College for Women. An illustrated pamphlet from 1915 listed as its courses of study a two-year junior college course, a two-year home economics course, a music program, an art and expression program, and a preparatory program (https://archive.org/details/kentuckycollegef00kent/page/n7). In 1926 the Kentucky College for Women merged with Centre College (centre.omeka.net), and it is difficult to find much information about its existence and history. Lacking a four-year academic program, it clearly differed significantly in character and scope from PCW.} He was a graduate of Centre College in Kentucky (A.B. and A.M.) and of the Central University of Kentucky (LL.D.), and he had also held executive positions in the YMCA. But Acheson

...
also had strong family connections to western Pennsylvania and to current members of
the PCW community. On his paternal side he belonged to the Acheson family of
Pittsburgh and Washington (Pennsylvania); his uncle was the father of Mary Acheson
Spencer. On his maternal side he was a cousin of Mary Brownson, a member of the
PCW faculty, and in Iowa his mother had been a colleague of Helen Pelletreau, the
former president of PCW.406

President Acheson’s general educational philosophy, as well as his goals more
specifically for PCW, provided good continuity with the ideas and efforts already
developed by Lindsay and Coolidge. As he expressed in his inaugural address on “The
Mission of the Modern College,” Acheson saw a unique place for the college, differing
from both the university and the professional school. Women’s colleges had a great
opportunity for usefulness, he felt, a usefulness fledged through fostering intellectual
ideals and providing an intelligent response to the demands of the present age.

Acheson’s assertion that the modern college had a distinctive social mission fit well with
the instruction and ethos of the social service course:

The college that fails to develop social consciousness in its students is
shamefully mis-educating them. . . . The college is responsible for
clear and logical instruction in the social sciences and their allied
subjects. . . . The social mission of the college, then, does not lie more
in the way of formal instruction than in the nurture of a genuine social
spirit and in enthusiastic inspiration for practical social service. Every
influence on campus and in the class room should consciously be
exerted to develop in the individual students an attitude of mind that

406 “President Acheson” and Eliza C. McKnight, “The Inauguration of Dr. John Carey
Acheson, President of the Pennsylvania College for Women,” Alumnae Recorder, 1915,
3-4, 4-9; Dysart, Chatham College, 147-148.
will lead him to look upon the world as a laboratory wherein he may work for the social and moral uplift of the race.\textsuperscript{407}

We can imagine that Meloy and her students, sitting in the audience and hearing these words, may have breathed a sigh of gratitude for a new president who clearly understood the importance of social service ideals and their centrality to the college curriculum as a whole.

In spring 1916 Coolidge tendered her resignation, prompted by the need to care for her mother in Massachusetts. The Board declined to accept it, asking her to take a six-month leave of absence for the fall term instead. This time away only strengthened her conviction, and she resigned for good in spring 1917.\textsuperscript{408} The entire college community mourned her going and felt the loss acutely. Acheson wrote of Coolidge, “Her loyal devotion and intelligent management of college affairs during the ten years she has held the responsible position of Dean have been dominant factors in securing to the institution its present enviable academic standing. Her loss to the college cannot easily be supplied.”\textsuperscript{409} Coolidge herself recalled, surely with some pride, at how, when

\textsuperscript{407} “Our President’s Inaugural Address,” \textit{The Sorosis}, June 1915, 4-7, here 5.
\textsuperscript{408} President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, June 9, 1916; Minutes of the Board of Trustees, June 9, 1916; February 28, 1917; Spencer, “Our Dean,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 17, 10-12; Dysart, \textit{Chatham College}, 149-151. Though the details are not fully clear, Coolidge was also apparently on leave for a time in fall 1911. This leave may have been for similar family reasons, as there is reference to her mother and aunt living with her at the college in 1912 (President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, October 20, 1911; February 20, 1912; Minutes of the Board of Trustees, April 21, 1911; October 20, 1911; February 20, 1912).
\textsuperscript{409} President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, February 18, 1917.
she left her position, both the academic side and the social side of college life were well managed, running smoothly and working together harmoniously.\textsuperscript{410}

Chosen as her successor in the dean’s office was Florence Kellogg Root.\textsuperscript{411} Root had been a member of the faculty from 1910 to 1913, teaching Latin and Greek, replacing another faculty member who was on extended leave to complete a masters degree. After her service at PCW concluded, Root had joined the faculty at Smith College, where she had earned her A.B. and A.M. degrees. During this time she had also been pursuing a Ph.D. at Columbia University.\textsuperscript{412}

On May 1, 1922, President Acheson reported to the Board that the Kentucky College for Women had approached him and asked him to stand for election to return to the presidency there. The trustees were unanimous in their desire to retain Acheson, and a committee was formed with the task of formulating a plan by which he might be convinced to stay. It was commonly understood that he had become weary of continual fundraising and of the slow progress on the plans for enlarging the college. A flurry of meetings ensued over the next few weeks, with the trustees pledging to clear up the present financial deficit and to raise $1 million within the next year. But it was too little, too late for the Kentucky college’s decision process, and on June 2 his resignation was finalized, “accepted with sincere and heartfelt regret” by the trustees. Acheson had told them that “his decision . . . would be based solely on the question as to where the next ten or fifteen years of his life could be of greater service.” Yet only two years later he left.

\textsuperscript{410} Coolidge, untitled address on the position of dean, unknown occasion, 1917, typewritten manuscript.
\textsuperscript{411} Minutes of the Board of Trustees, May 9, 1917.
\textsuperscript{412} The Sorosis, May 1917, 36; Dysart, Chatham College, 129, 150-151.
the Kentucky College for Women to take up the presidency of Macalester College in Saint Paul, Minnesota.\footnote{Minutes of the Board of Trustees, May 1, 1922; May 6, 1922; May 17, 1922; May 29, 1922; June 2, 1922; Dysart, \textit{Chatham College}, 160-161.}

It was also the unanimous decision of the Board, at that very same meeting, to attempt to bring Coolidge back as president. She agreed. A mere three weeks later Dean Root tendered her resignation in order to become the new dean of women at Wooster College.\footnote{Minutes of the Board of Trustees, June 21, 1922; Dysart, \textit{Chatham College}, 166.} Helen Marks was then appointed to the deanship for a provisional, one-year term—at which she clearly excelled, in that she held the position until 1952. As for Coolidge, she held the presidency until her illness and death in 1933. Thus in 1922 a new chapter was to open for PCW, now with President Coolidge and Dean Marks at the helm.\footnote{Marks described this first provisional year as “one of the happiest years of my life.” She gave a sense of the working relationship between the two women, president and dean, and of the collaborative spirit of the college at that time: “It has been a rare pleasure to work with Miss Coolidge, and to have always at hand the benefit of her wise counsel, and the riches of her wide experience. What her presence has meant to the Student Body, you know as well as I. The many assurances of support from you, when I took up my new duties, and the feeling of close co-operation between the students and the Alumnae, have been strong factors in making this year what it has been.” (‘Dean Mark’s Letter,’ \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1923, 14-15, here 14-15)}

Enlargement Plans

After Acheson had been in the presidency for several months in 1915, he began to articulate new goals for the college. He saw it to be a season of opportunity, arguing that the time was ripe to make of PCW a really fine women’s college for the future. “There is
no college proposition in America that in my judgment is more promising for growth and
development.”416 Acheson proposed a broad and ambitious plan for the enlargement of
the college. He outlined three imperative needs: additional grounds for the campus, more
modern buildings and equipment, and an adequate endowment.417 Also of concern were
the requirements for endowment and equipment by national organizations, including the
Rockefeller Foundation and the General Education Board, that were becoming
increasingly standardized at that time.418

Site and Physical Plant. The college was once more running out of residential
space. For the class of 1916, if the college had had another Woodland Hall (the newer
and larger of the two dormitories), it could have been filled, and by 1919 the college was
having to displace the faculty from the dormitories and rent them rooms in private homes
in the neighborhood.419 Residency accommodations were at capacity, with no way to
increase facilities without constructing new buildings. A further problem was the public
perception that PCW had outdated equipment; it was losing students to colleges that

416 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, June 11, 1915.
417 Acheson, “From Our New President,” Alumnae Recorder, 1915, 10-12; “Dr.
Acheson’s Address,” Alumnae Recorder, 1916, 15-17.
Particularly, this would involve at least fifty acres of grounds, the construction of a group
of fireproof buildings to accommodate five hundred students and able to be expanded to
one thousand students, and an endowment adequate to cover the annual budget deficit.
418 President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, June 9, 1916; October 17, 1916;
McClintock, letter to Coolidge, n.d. (“about 1917 or 1918” in a later hand), typewritten.
Dysart’s comments provide helpful background in general for these developments
(Chatham College, 151-166).
419 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 27, 1916; Acheson, “Letter from
Dr. Acheson,” Alumnae Recorder, 1920, 11-12; also Acheson, “Dr. Acheson’s Message,”
Alumnae Recorder, 1922, 8-9.
could offer more modern accommodations. Marks, in her role as field representative, found that PCW enjoyed a strong reputation for its wholesome atmosphere and the type of students it produced. But parents wanted their daughters to have the safety and comfort of a modern dormitory. “Pittsburgh needs this college,” she concluded. “It needs the kind of women this college is graduating, but in order to grow as we want to grow we must have something besides a ‘spirit.’”

It was determined that, to expand the physical plant, more land would be necessary. The first attempt was to purchase property adjacent to the present campus, but the college found its owner unwilling to sell. The next option was to move to a new site. In 1916 the trustees investigated several potential locations, choosing a site in Aspinwall (in suburban Pittsburgh) that offered abundant acreage. The college entered into substantial discussions about purchasing options for the site, until considerations of all of Acheson’s enlargement proposals were interrupted by the war.

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420 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, February 28, 1917.
421 Helen Marks, letter to Acheson, October 23, 1916, typewritten. To illustrate her point, Marks told of the many high school girls she visited who asked whether PCW had a swimming pool. It was not so much the swimming pool itself, she discovered, but more the idea of a swimming pool. A swimming pool stood for the mark of a modern, forward-looking college. She confessed that when she was a girl and choosing a college to attend, she also wanted a swimming pool—even though when she was at that college, she never once swam in it. She just wanted to know that it was there.
422 McClintock, letter to Coolidge, n.d. (“about 1917 or 1918” in a later hand), typewritten.
423 Report of the Special Committee of the Board of Trustees, June 1916 (no date provided); President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, June 7, 1917; December 4, 1918; Minutes of the Board of Trustees, March 31, 1918.
Endowment Campaign. In 1912 the college engaged in an endowment campaign for $10,000 per year, pledged annually, to cover the annual deficit. With Acheson’s arrival and plans for enlargement of the campus, an amount of $1 million was seen as necessary to cover both scholarships and general operating expenses. He had high hopes that the people of Pittsburgh would see the benefits of improving the college and respond generously. After the war, the upcoming jubilee celebration served as a catalyst to reignite action on the campaign, and in June 1919 the special committee of the Board took up again its efforts, now “increased by the addition of several members and its powers enlarged so that it could act quickly and effectively.” By June 1920, with the goal raised to $3 million, the quiet solicitation phase of the campaign was well underway.

Potential Affiliations. From April 1920 through the next year, the Board was in protracted discussion and negotiation with Beaver College about the prospect of merging the two institutions. Beaver College was located in the small town of Beaver,
Pennsylvania, some forty miles northwest of Pittsburgh.\footnote{The college was chartered in 1853 as Beaver Female Seminary, changing its name in 1907. In 1898 it had begun to institute a four-year degree program. The college must have felt eager for dramatic change, for just four years later, in 1925, it relocated its campus to Jenkintown in eastern Pennsylvania.} Points of disagreement included whether PCW would relocate to Beaver, where the town had offered to donate a site of two hundred acres, and the relationship of ecclesial bodies to the school (Beaver College was affiliated with the Methodist Episcopal Church). In the end, an agreement could not be reached and the two institutions remained separate.\footnote{Minutes of the Board of Trustees, April 27, 1920; September 17, 1920; October 1, 1920; October 7, 1920; January 20, 1921; January 23, 1921; February 9, 1921; March 4, 1921. Dysart does a helpful job of untangling the issues in play (Chatham College, 159).} With regard to the social service program, a relocation of PCW to the small, rural town of Beaver would have been disastrous. The program was built on, and relied on completely for its efficacy, interaction with urban agencies for instruction and practice.

Then in spring 1922 arose a possibility of joining with the University of Pittsburgh, which was located roughly a mile away. The university’s chancellor suggested two different options, either a full merger or an affiliation. Either arrangement would have involved relocating the college, with new buildings to be constructed in a designated area on the university’s campus. Acheson thought the institutions too different to make it work, particularly because of PCW’s religious character, and the Board found fewer advantages than drawbacks to the idea.\footnote{President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, without specific date and labeled in handwriting as “Dr. Acheson’s report 1921–1922”; Minutes of the Board of Trustees, May 6, 1922; May 17, 1922.}

These discussions with Beaver College and the University of Pittsburgh, even though in the end they came to nothing, put the plans for the land purchase on hold and...
slowed down the progress of the capital campaign. Moreover, both prospects—moving
the campus from its present site and affiliating with another institution—met with strong
and vocal opposition from the many of the alumnae. They remembered the years
between 1917 and 1922 as a time of real danger for the autonomy their college. By
1922, after all these crises and considerations, the identity of PCW was reasserted and
renewed, as an independent women’s college located on its original campus on Murray
Hill.

Academic Program

The faculty were continually trying to improve the academic experience for PCW
students, and they instituted a series of small changes throughout these several years.
The college started to offer classes for schoolteachers and other women in the community
on Saturday mornings, taught by the regular faculty. And bowing to strong student
request, for a few years a secretarial class, likewise carrying no academic credit, was
offered for a few weeks during the summer. Elective courses could now be given in a
one-credit option in addition to the standard two credits, adding pedagogical flexibility

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430 Mary Helen Marks, address given at Founder’s Day, December 11, 1948, typewritten
manuscript.
431 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, April 18, 1913; Lindsay, “Letter from the
President,” Alumnae Recorder, 1913, 31-32.
432 There is some confusion about this course in the records. In the President’s Report to
the Board of Trustees of December 4, 1918, it is presented as a special war course and
mentioned as if it were something new that autumn. But the course is listed already in
the 1915–1916 and 1916–1917 catalogues—yet it is not listed in any later catalogues.
for the instructors. A new admissions process was developed that included personal interviews with members of the admissions committee, and an option for entering students to matriculate mid-year was added. The college shifted from a five-day (Monday through Friday) to a six-day (Monday through Saturday) class schedule, in order to better utilize classroom space and to more evenly distribute class obligations for students. Toward the end of this period, the college was also experiencing many fewer special students (those taking only music or art) in relation to regular baccalaureate students, a welcome move for the academic reputation of the college. In all, such additions and refinements demonstrated an academic institution that was creative, adaptable, open to new methods, and responsive to student and community need.

_Closure of Dilworth Hall._ A significant event during this period was the complete dissolution of PCW’s preparatory department, after it had been made a separate entity in 1907. The simple reason for this decision was that the college no longer needed to offer secondary-level instruction. In earlier decades there were fewer options for girls to receive a rigorous, academic secondary education, and the schools that existed were not standardized. Now, however, with the rise of public high school education, Pittsburgh-area girls were better able to be well prepared for college-level work before arriving.

433 Minutes of the College Faculty, February 23, 1911 (mistakenly written as 1910); May 24, 1911.
434 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, without specific date and labeled in handwriting as “Dr. Acheson’s report 1921–1922”; Minutes of the Board of Trustees, October 27, 1916.
435 Dysart, _Chatham College_, 164; Acheson, “President’s Letter,” _Alumnae Recorder_, 1917, 6-7.
436 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, October 31, 1919.
The academic year 1910–1911 was a turning point; the enrollment for Dilworth Hall dropped significantly that fall (by twenty-one students), and for the first time, the college proper was larger than the preparatory department. Coolidge welcomed this new situation as one of the small changes during these years that “help to make a higher standard all along the line . . . outside ourselves but very important for us—better prepared students, thus making possible a higher standard of scholarship; I refer to the longer courses [sic] and better work in the High Schools around us.” The academic quality of the area public high schools continued to improve over the next years, especially with the nearby Schenley High School that opened in 1916. To further complicate matters, the construction of a new city school in 1914, to be named Dilworth School, was starting to cause confusion with Dilworth Hall.

When it became clear that Dilworth Hall had become a liability rather than an asset, the trustees authorized its closure at the conclusion of academic year 1915–1916. A further advantage was that all the classroom space and equipment used by the preparatory classes could now be available for the growing college classes. Though at the time of the decision, the administration had hoped to be able to retain most of the Dilworth Hall faculty, it appears that they were laid off eventually, with sadness and

437 President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, October 21, 1910; April 21, 1911; Lindsay, “Letter from Dr. Lindsay,” Alumnae Recorder, 1911, 49-52.
439 President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, October 13, 1914; June 11, 1915; March 1, 1916; June 9, 1916; October 27, 1916; Minutes of the Board of Trustees, March 7, 1916; March 14, 1916; June 6, 1916; Coolidge “Annual Message,” Alumnae Recorder, 1917, 7-10.
regret on the part of the college. McClintock viewed the decision to lie at the heart of the school’s historic and central mission: “Its discontinuance was not only a financial necessity, but also, in an imperative sense, a necessary step towards the fulfillment of the purpose of the founders of the college and in the development of its true vocation as an institution of higher learning.”

Restructured Curriculum. The development of a new curriculum represented an undertaking of some years. A special faculty committee was formed in fall 1916, charged with drafting a revision of the entire course of study, and the restructured curriculum was put into place in academic year 1921–1922. Like the concerns for the physical plant, this curriculum revision was, in essence, an effort to modernize the college. As a member of the committee explained, “the college aims to minister to women in the most vital ways as they are to meet the demands of a new age in diverse activities.” To do so, they broadened their concept of the purpose and the content of the educational endeavor. PCW now understood its tasks as:

—To furnish the broadest and best training for young women who are to live the life of women in ordinary pursuits

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441 McClintock, letter to Coolidge, n.d. (“about 1917 or 1918” in a later hand), typewritten.
442 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 27, 1916; Acheson, “President’s Letter,” *Alumnae Recorder*, 1917, 6-7; Minutes of the Board of Trustees, June 9, 1921.
—To furnish the best foundation in general culture for those who look forward to professional or technical courses
—To select and train those who are by ability and character qualified for leadership

The entire course of study was structured around ten groups: classical languages, modern languages, education and psychology, English, history and political science, mathematics, music, philosophy, science, and social science. Each of these groups included both general overview courses and specific courses in predominant subjects. Significant flexibility was incorporated into the required and elective options. “The new policy marks the departure from the traditional degree requirements and brings the college abreast with modern thought and method in higher education.”443 After its inaugural year, the new group system was much appreciated by the students, and though requiring a few changes in particular details, in all it was judged to have been working “exceedingly well.”444

What is most notable for the purposes of this study is to observe the importance placed on sociology and social service in the new curriculum. Social service has been moved from the periphery to the very center of the work of the college. Social science, as shown in the list above, was one of the ten options a student may choose for her focus. And in all of the course groups were electives that contributed to the theory and practice of social science. But more revolutionary is that all graduates of the college would now

have studied in this field through courses required for all students: physiology and contemporary civilization in the freshwoman year, sociology in the sophomore year, and economics and political science in the junior year. Fostering an understanding of contemporary issues and identifying purposeful responses to them were highlighted as never before.

The designers of the new curriculum identified three objectives for student learning. All three reflected some of the same types of goals that had already been held for students in the social service classes (see above, chapter 3):

— to enlarge the opportunities for self-knowledge and increased personal power
— to enable a more thorough understanding of world conditions and problems, and the meaning of this new age
— to equip for service in a thoroughly effective manner

For the previous several years, in their writings and their speeches, PCW leaders had emphasized the importance of service, stressing that the purpose of one’s education should be toward service, in some form, for the greater good. Now this spirit of service has been intentionally and visibly embedded into the college’s academic program.

Faculty

The quality of the faculty throughout all the departments was a primary strength of the college. For a small, poorly endowed school, PCW seems to have been

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exceedingly fortunate in locating and retaining excellent instructors. Of all the school’s assets, it was the faculty of which PCW was the most proud and who were remembered the most appreciatively by the alumnæ. All three of the presidents serving during this period emphasized the excellence they saw in the PCW faculty—inspiring the students with high ideals of scholarship and personal integrity—and that when additional instructors were hired, the newcomers only raised the caliber of the faculty even further. Certainly there was general agreement with Lindsay in his opinion that “constant changes in the teaching force of an institution is always to be deprecated. It is only when a Faculty is thoroughly welded together and works in harmony, that the best results can be secured.”

Many of the PCW faculty members remained at the college their entire careers and became the pillars of the institution.

Committee Structure. During her time as acting president, Coolidge made an important step in 1914 when she arranged the faculty into standing committees. These committees would make decisions and take actions regarding the policies and procedures of the school. There were eight: cabinet, curriculum, classification (later renamed academic information), scholarship, documents, library, public occasions, and dormitory

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446 Lindsay, “Letter from Dr. Lindsay,” Alumnae Recorder, 1911, 49-52, here 49-50; also President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, October 17, 1913; October 13, 1914; Acheson, “From Our New President,” Alumnae Recorder, 1915, 10-12. For more detailed discussion of the accomplishments and personalities of some of the individual faculty members, see Dysart, Chatham College, 128-132, 162-163. She personally knew many of them.

447 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 13, 1914; Minutes of the College Faculty, February 6, 1915.
life. This committee organization gave more clear lines of authority to the faculty; it served as a beginning measure toward a system of shared governance.

Coolidge’s interest in the concerns of faculty authority and the governance of academic organizations continued. Some years later she undertook a research study into the role and influence of faculty in college administration. Coolidge conducted a survey of 132 colleges and universities with regard to the relationship of the faculty and the dean to the Board of Trustees; whether faculty have any voice in the selection of the president; whether faculty have any voice in the selection, salary, promotion, and dismissal of faculty members; whether there is a faculty cabinet; and whether faculty serve on administrative committees. Analyzing the data, she concluded that “while colleges and universities in general agree in spirit, many differences in methods of management have been brought about by experience, environment, tradition, and custom. It is impossible always to reduce these to a system, yet they undoubtedly give vitality and produce many of the finest characteristics of individual colleges and universities.” Coolidge presented the results of her research at the Conference of Presidents, Deans, and College Professors of the American Association of University Women in April 1924, and they were published in an article in the association’s journal.448 Now the college’s president, surely

448 Cora Helen Coolidge, “The Share of Faculty in College Administration,” The Journal of the American Association of University Women 18, no. 1 (October 1924): 12-16, here 12. The principal questions the for survey, which were requested to be answered by the presidents or senior administrators of the colleges and universities, were: (1) Does the faculty have any part in the appointment of the board of trustees? (2) May faculty members serve on the board of trustees? (3) Does the dean of the college sit with the board of trustees? (4) Do the members of the faculty have some definite means of communication with the board of trustees or regents? (5) Do members of the faculty have any voice in the selection of the president of the college or university? (6) Do members of
her study of the governance structures of these many other academic institutions
influenced the organizational relationships and policies developed at PCW during its next
decade.

Salaries and Retention. Though the PCW faculty were of high quality, they were
not—as one would expect at a financially challenged institution—highly paid. During
this period, retaining instructors was an ongoing problem, and over the years many left
for other opportunities.449 Those who remained did so out of loyalty to PCW and a
commitment to its mission. Other academic institutions were a draw, of course, as some
faculty members left PCW to elevate their careers at larger and more prestigious colleges
and universities. But the local high schools were also a draw, for they paid higher
salaries for teachers than did the college. As Lindsay ruefully related how he could not in
good conscience ask one faculty member to withdraw his resignation, “The amount
offered him in the public schools was a great deal more than we could afford to pay.”450

the faculty have any voice in the appointment of new faculty members? (7) If so, in what
manner? (8) If faculties have power in appointments, since about what year has this been
in vogue? (9) Are members of the faculty on administrative committees? (10) Do
members of the faculty have any voice in such matters as salaries, tenure, promotion,
dissmissal, etc.? (11) Is there a cabinet or council of the faculty?

449 In the anniversary issue of the *Alumnae Recorder* is a listing of some of the former
professors and their activities since leaving the college (1920, pp. 26-30). From even this
very limited list we get a sense of how hard it was to keep good faculty. The resignations
of instructors and other employees are noted in the president’s reports and Board minutes,
though very rarely their reasons for leaving or where they have engaged another job.

450 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 17, 1913. The faculty member in
question was William Martin, who had been teaching mathematics at the college since
1908. We also know that Emma Campbell, faculty member in English and the librarian
since 1906, resigned in 1915 in order to take a position at the Pittsburgh High School
(*The Sorosis*, February 1915, 23).
Asking for a raise instead of resigning did not prove a reliably remunerative strategy, either. The materials from this period record three requests from individual faculty members for salary increases; one was granted but two were denied (the latter including a request from Meloy). Moreover, when vacancies arose, the low salaries the college was able to pay made them difficult to fill with qualified instructors. If the college would find a way to offer one incoming instructor a higher salary, there was the legitimate concern that poor morale could then develop among the instructors with longer tenure whose pay remained significantly lower. After many years of such difficulties, in 1920 the Board did help to ease some of the financial strain for faculty members with an across-the-board raise of twenty-five percent.

The lived experience of serving as a PCW faculty member differed substantially across gender lines. Outside of a very few exceptions, the women were provided room and board. They lived in the dormitories, with the students, and took their meals at the college. The (relatively fewer) male faculty members did not live on campus. There was also a significant salary differential between the women and the men. A quick

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451 In 1912 Josephine DeVallay (French) asked for an increase of $200 to her salary; it was not granted and she promptly resigned (Minutes of the Board of Trustees, March 29, 1912). In 1916 Violet Holcomb (physics and philosophy) requested a raise of $300 and it was granted (Minutes of the Board of Trustees, April 7, 1916). But then two months later Meloy also asked for a raise, not specifying a particular amount. In her letter of request she explained the additional expenses required by her position as the director of the social service program for joining clubs and other organizations and traveling to conferences (Meloy, letter to Acheson, June 6, 1916, typewritten). Her request was apparently not granted, as in the next salary listing, Meloy’s amount for 1917 ($800) is the same as it was in 1916 (Minutes of the Board of Trustees, February 28, 1917).
452 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, June 6, 1918; Minutes of the Board of Trustees, June 6, 1918.
453 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, April 8, 1920.
comparison of the salary data from two representative years, 1913 and 1920, provides a sense of the disparity. In 1913 there were three male faculty members: William Martin (mathematics) with a salary of $1700, George Putnam (English) with a salary of $1800, and Carl Whitmer (music) with a salary of $2000 plus two-thirds of the net proceeds from private music lessons. In that year the salaries for the female faculty members ranged from $650 to $1000, with an average of $733. In 1920 there were also three male faculty members: Elmer Bailey (English) with a salary of $2500, James Garner (chemistry) also with a salary of $2500, and George Lawson (philosophy and biblical literature) with a salary of $2813. In that year the salaries for the female faculty members ranged from $937 to $1625, with an average of $1250. (These amounts include the twenty-five percent increase granted in 1920.) In that the interests of this study lie with the social service program, it is also pertinent to observe that Meloy’s salary was just about average for the women, $700 in 1913 and $1250 in 1920.454 A corresponding inequity in pay existed also at the level of the president. Lindsay was paid $5000 per year, plus residence. But when he died and Coolidge was made acting president, her salary was only $3900.455 Then when Acheson was hired, he was similarly paid $5000.

454 Minutes of the Board of Trustees, April 18, 1913; April 8, 1920. The faculty engaged for the next academic year and their salaries are usually provided in one of spring sets of trustee minutes.
455 The arrangement made was that Coolidge would be paid $150 more per month while she served as the acting president. Her salary at that time was $2100 (which had been raised from $1800 when she was hired eight years prior). (Minutes of the Board of Trustees, March 5, 1906; May 11, 1906; April 18, 2013; April 17, 2014)
Parity finally prevailed by 1922, however, for when Coolidge was brought back to be president, her salary was also now $5000.\textsuperscript{456}

The Growth of the Program

The social work program at PCW became a strong force both within the college and outside it, throughout the Pittsburgh region. From its initial three students, it accelerated rapidly. Interest in the program was high, and without doubt it proved to be an idea whose time had come. The program’s first certificates were awarded in 1912, to seven graduating seniors. The next year, 1913, was the first year in which a special student completed the program and earned a certificate. Assessing the situation after three years of leading the department, Meloy was almost surprised at how far the students had progressed. She confessed that she began the enterprise “with a very meagre stock of optimism,” but the students had developed vitality and initiative beyond her expectations. They had become able to discover for themselves what work in the community needed to be done, undertake observations and make conclusions, and even give her suggestions valuable for her own research.\textsuperscript{457}

During these years the program by no means remained a static entity. Both Meloy and Coolidge were continually gauging the content of the curriculum and the

\textsuperscript{456} Minutes of the Board of Trustees, October 13, 1914; June 10, 1922.
progress of the students, and they periodically made changes for improvement. As time went on, with experience they saw better what items from the original plan of study worked well and what needed to be tweaked. Perhaps the rapid changes in the disciplines of social science and sociology required similarly alert attention to the curriculum and promptness in making corrections to fit the needs of society and the students who would serve it. “In no field of knowledge does the point of view change more rapidly than in the field of social study. Utterances which were novel and forceful in 1913, sound decidedly old-fashioned in 1917. We are all investigating for ourselves, and having learned the trick of examining evidence, we are as willing to correct false impressions in the world of ideas about society as we are in the world of material things.”

The rate of change in the discipline and its practices required an agile academic program, able to keep pace.

How can we measure this rapid growth? Whereas we would like to know how many students the social service program enrolled on a regular basis, that information has not been preserved. Students who earned certificates are usually indicated along with the lists of graduating seniors in the catalogues or in the minutes of the Board. But there were many more students who took the social service and sociology classes without desiring to complete all the work required to earn a certificate. In a few places in the college publications are indicated some numbers, many with ambiguity as to what exactly the figures represent or how they compare to prior years. Nonetheless, they do serve to provide us some sense of the size of the program during this period.

458 Meloy, “Social Service,” The Sorosis, January 1917, 9-12, here 11; also Coolidge, “An Experiment.”
As noted above, in 1910 the program had twenty-eight students. Four years later, in 1914, it had thirty-seven students.\footnote{President’s Reports to the Board of Trustees, October 21, 1910; April 17, 1914.} By 1913 the enrollment in the first-year social service class had become so large that it had to be split up for its weekly site visits, one section going on Monday afternoons and another section going on Wednesday afternoons. This situation appears to have continued at least through 1916.\footnote{The Sorosis, October 1913, 28; Meloy, letter to Acheson, June 6, 1916, typewritten.} The year 1916 must also have experienced an especially high number of special students, with the first-year social service class consisting of two-thirds special students. Noncertificate students were also then increasingly taking sociology and economics courses.\footnote{The Sorosis, November 16, 1922; Meloy, letter to Acheson, June 6, 1916, typewritten.} In 1917 twenty-four students were doing field work.\footnote{The Sorosis, December 17, 1925.} And a graduate student in social service is noted for the year 1916–1917.\footnote{The student, Mary Jane Paul, proves something of an enigma. She was listed as a graduate student in social service in 1916–1917, but in 1917–1918 and 1918–1919 as a graduate student in spoken English (formerly known as expression) instead. She seems to have become an assistant in both the spoken English and the sociology and economics departments in 1917–1918, but the following year, in just the spoken English department. Paul was also noted as receiving a certificate in spoken English in 1918. From 1919 through 1925 she was included in the regular faculty list for spoken English, i.e., no longer just an assistant in the department. But she apparently never finished her master’s coursework, for only her A.B. from Vassar College was ever indicated. No substantive information about her appeared in any of the other college publications, and thus her role with the social service program remains unclear.}
Meloy, when speaking in 1914 of how the program had grown steadily since its inception, chose the simile of a plant. “We do not regard the Social Service department as a full grown plant,” she explained, “but we can see that is bearing fruit and we believe that it has strong roots.” The department would indeed continue to bear much more good fruit through the next several years. The following are some of the more notable areas of its development through the early 1920s.

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Changes in the Course

The basics of the social service course were outlined in the yearly course catalogues. The best way, therefore, to obtain an overall understanding of the progression of the course is by means of a comparison of the catalogues; it allows us to examine how the rudiments of the course were developed over these years. In the main part of the yearly catalogues were course listings by department, with brief descriptions of the course content, credit hours, prerequisites, and whether required or elective. The social service classes were indicated here, though the name of their department changed over time: first Sociology and Education, then Sociology and Pedagogy with the 1909–1910 catalogue, and then Sociology and Economics in 1912–1913 and later. The program was thus initially linked with the discipline of education, but as economics became a recommended/required class for certificate students (and education no longer was), perhaps economics seemed a more logical partner.

In the backs of the catalogues were special sections that more fully described the social service program and the music program. This section was first titled “Courses in Social Service,” then changed to “School of Social Service” with the 1912–1913 catalogue. It gave the rationale for the program, identified the cooperating local institutions and agencies, provided particular admission instructions for special students, and other information. With the 1917–1918 catalogue this extra section was eliminated altogether.
Structure and Requirements. As noted above, the first significant changes to the program came in 1910, with the elimination of the one-year certificate option and the disallowing of freshwomen to the program. The suggested complementary areas of study that students might take were expanded and broadened, adding biology, economics, modern languages (German, French, Italian), and gymnasium practice to the previous areas of ethics, psychology, education, sociology, English, and Bible. Such a change fits with the idea, often expressed by Meloy, that the social sciences are connected to most all areas of academic interest, and to life in general.

It was in 1912 when major changes were introduced.\textsuperscript{465} An optional third year was offered for any students who had begun the program in their sophomore year and desired additional study and practice to enter social work professionally. A new course numbering system was adopted: 1-2, for the first year (theory and observation); 3-4, for the second year (theory and practice); 5-6, for the optional third year (advanced study). A cumulative essay, or thesis, was now required for certificate students, “based upon knowledge gained by the student in an original investigation.” And the recommended complementary classes shifted away from education, Bible, and English, but now included history, music, and education through play (storytelling). Then in 1913 more topics began to be included in courses 1-2 and 3-4, including immigration, public health, dependent children, juvenile delinquency, administration and supervision, and statistics.

\textsuperscript{465} The 1911–1912 catalogue has been lost and is not available to us. Thus any or all of the changes we find in the 1912–1913 catalogue may have actually been implemented in 1911. For the sake of convenience, however, and because we have no way of knowing otherwise, they will be treated as new items in 1912.
was dropped (course 5-6 was eliminated), but the course value for social service 3-4 was increased from two credit-hours to three credit-hours. An option was also introduced for students to do their fieldwork during the summer vacation rather than during the academic year, as advance preparation for the required thesis.

In 1915 the college began what seems to have progressed into a five-year process of trying to find what worked best for special students (nonbaccalaureate) who wanted to earn a certificate. A credit-hour amount was added for the first time: thirty credit-hours to be divided between fifteen credit-hours in required subjects (social service courses 1-2 and 3-4, sociology and economics, chemistry, storytelling, play and games) and fifteen elective credit-hours in other college departments (biology, psychology, history of education, ethics, Bible, modern languages, music, and physical training were recommended). In the 1916–1917 catalogue some greater flexibility was incorporated into the required courses, allowing special students to choose also among aesthetic dancing, dramatic appreciation, ornithology, education, hygiene, dietetics, municipal chemistry, civics and immigration, and music. The following year (1917) the requirements were tweaked yet again, now requiring fourteen credit-hours from a fixed list (social service courses 1-2 and 3-4, sociology, economics, immigration, social legislation, storytelling, and play and games), with the remaining sixteen credit hours left to the student’s choice among the previously recommended departments. Two years later, in 1919, the requirements were further tightened, to twenty-six credit-hours of required courses from a fixed list and only four credit-hours of elective courses. A cautionary statement was also introduced into the 1919–1920 catalogue, indicating that
though the minimum possible time for earning a certificate as a special student was two years, students were advised to plan on committing three years to the endeavor.

This series of changes reflects what must have been extended experimentation to determine what process would work most successfully for special students. The faculty were committed to combining theory with practice in the work of the program, a commitment that extended to the education of the nonbaccalaureate students as well as the regular students. The repeated reworking of the requirements for special students reveals, we might conclude, their ongoing attempts in giving these students a sufficient and broad academic foundation without the full requirements for a bachelors degree. The question must have been how to provide the special students enough of a liberal educational background (the “cultural course”) to distinguish PCW’s program from the more limited practical, skills-predominant programs offered by the social work training schools of the day. The faculty would have been facing a question of how to stay true to the college’s traditional mission of academic quality, yet also provide a service to meet the community’s increasing need for social workers in its many chartable organizations, positions for which a woman would need some postsecondary education but not necessarily a full baccalaureate degree.

*Description.* For the first ten years of the program’s existence, an extended description of it was provided in each year’s catalogue. This description presented the purpose of the social service course and its benefits, both to student and to society. With the 1917–1918 catalogue this description was dropped when the special social service
section in the back of the catalogue was eliminated. Most likely, the course had become so large and so well integrated into the college by this time that an explanation of, and rationale for, it were no longer needed.

The initial description of the program has been given previously (chapter 3). In 1910 this basic description was modified a bit, to emphasize more strongly the contemporary need for good social workers “with collegiate education” and how the program “will prepare them for efficiency.” But from 1912 through the next few years, the program description was rewritten regularly. The description as revised for the 1912−1913 catalogue reads as such:

The demand for social workers of college education is to-day greater than the supply. So-called “Social work,” to be effective, must be done by workers of trained mind, who have knowledge of many subjects; and this training and knowledge cannot be acquired without great difficulty outside of a college. By means of such special training as is offered in these courses, supplementing the study of the arts and the social sciences, the student can make the work of the college curriculum available for practical use in social service. In its special courses the College recognizes the value of all work which aims at the betterment of society, the appeal which such work makes to many educated women, and the opportunity for preparing for it which college courses afford.

The new description highlights the uniqueness of the course, emphasizing its character as a type of education that would be difficult if not impossible to receive elsewhere, and how it prepares students in many areas. And language about improving the social condition is also included. It continues on to enumerate the range of types of women who would benefit:
The aim of the social service course is to give special education to three classes of workers: first, those who would enter paid work; second, those who would give intelligent service as volunteers; third, those who seek to learn, from the lessons of past experience and from thoughtful practice, the best methods for use in the social activities of home and church.

Surely any potential student would be able to see herself in one of these categories, and thus correspondingly see herself as suited to the program.

The following year the program description was rewritten once again. From the 1913–1914 catalogue:

In these days of social awakening society demands the service of educated women. In the home and church and in neighborhood groups are needed women who are familiar with the best methods of philanthropy. In the public school, which promises to become the central agency for social reform, are needed teachers with the social viewpoint and the spirit of service. In many kinds of professional, civic and philanthropic work the demand for workers with college education is greater than the supply. The college woman of today, not content to spend years in studying for cultural satisfaction only, responding to the spirit of the times, is eager to make her acquirements in knowledge and training count for the general good. In its courses in Social Service the college recognizes both the demands of the times and of the student. Nowhere are the mental training and broad knowledge offered by a college course of more practical use than in so-called “social work.” By means of such special training as is offered in these courses, supplementing the arts and the social sciences, the student can relate all her studies to social work.

Starting off with a reference to the “days of social awakening,” the description now aligns itself with modernity. She who sees herself as an up-to-date woman, the “college woman of today,” should undertake social service education. Interesting also is the reference to public education; a frequent contention of Meloy and others at the college
was how useful the course would be to students who wanted to become schoolteachers (which for years had been most common profession chosen by PCW graduates).

In 1914 there were some small alterations but nothing substantial in content. For the 1915–1916 catalogue, however, the description was rewritten again:

Educated women are turning more and more to social service. They are eager to make their attainments in knowledge and training count for the good of others, to keep pace with social progress. The call for service comes from individuals, churches, civic agencies and philanthropic organizations. The spirit of service is not enough. To be efficient as a professional social worker, and no less in the ever-widening volunteer field a woman needs mental discipline and extensive knowledge. But even the ordinary studies of a college curriculum added to a spirit of service is an insufficient equipment. The social service worker soon discovers that she needs to know the principles which have been built upon the experience of others and are used by expert social workers of to-day. Adequate preparation for social service includes special studies in Sociology and Economics, application of these studies in some practical way, and the best general education obtainable.

The tenor has been shifted once more. The desire of the prospective student to do good for others, her kind heart, is recognized. But she is told that that desire, by itself, is not enough. To be useful, she needs to add knowledge of the principles that have been established in the field to back up her altruistic spirit.

What can be seen from such a comparison is how carefully the faculty were crafting the presentation of the social service course. The degree to which the faculty were intentionally selecting language and ideals according to how they might appeal to young women, to attract them to the program, cannot be deduced. But the frequent reformulation of the descriptions can certainly be viewed as reflecting a program, and the
field at large, that were re-evaluating themselves and adjusting accordingly during these years.

Unique Challenges

The social service course proved to be of great value to the institution and to its students, but it also brought certain complications for all involved. Its benefit demanded a significant level of commitment and a degree of sacrifice on the part of students and administration alike. The program as a whole and the individual social service classes presented particular challenges that the other classes throughout the curriculum, in other disciplines, did not.

For the Students. Meloy, rather colorfully, described the dilemma facing the student: “To put such a course into the curriculum was an innovation. Here, also, was a problem—to allow a girl to take a college degree and at the same time give her the opportunity to study sociological theory, to know social economy, to visit institutions and welfare agencies, to try her prentice hand on field work, and with all this to avoid killing the girl.”\footnote{Meloy, “The Social Service Department,” 
\textit{The Sorosis}, April 1914, 3-5, here 4.} No PCW girl was killed, of course—but completing the course was not without its pain. One issue was the reading required. As textbooks for college courses in sociology and social work had not yet been produced, the available publications were
poorly written and too conceptually abstract to be well suited for students.\textsuperscript{467} Another challenge was working with supervisors and clients who could prove difficult, and who were not under the oversight of the college. The primary challenge, however, seems to have been the time commitment. Students had the full coursework responsibilities of the baccalaureate program, plus their additional fieldwork responsibilities. At the very least, the certificate program required roughly one-fourth of a student’s time, and some individuals devoted significantly more time than that. Surely some of these concerns were behind the caution introduced into the 1918–1919 catalogue: “Students must provide for the giving of extra time to field work or to the investigation required for the thesis.” They were also most likely why the faculty started to give students the option to complete some of their fieldwork during the summer vacations, so as to reduce students’ burden during the academic year.

Earning the certificate was indeed a significant accomplishment. It reflected not only the attainment of academic knowledge and practical skill, but also the woman who achieved it had proved that she possessed persistence, patience, and strength of character. Only the most motivated and dedicated students would be able to meet the sacrifices and fulfill the responsibilities. There was a reason why graduating seniors treated the certificate akin to a badge of honor: “The certificate in Social Service, like any certificate, is evidence of property rights. It signifies the ownership of experience and of achievement, as well as of special knowledge. . . . [The student] has persisted in her

\textsuperscript{467} Meloy, “Practical Sociology in the College,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1911, 23-25.
social studies because of a genuine affinity for them. . . . What the certificate stands for is her sufficient reward for all the sacrifices she has made to secure it."  

For the Administration. The program also presented unique challenges to the institution and its administration. There would have been the logistical issues of transporting groups of students to the weekly site visits, of scheduling visiting lecturers to speak at the college, and simply managing all the personnel issues resultant from the scores of professionals from local charitable agencies who were now supervising PCW students. But most of the strain of running the program fell upon its director. Meloy had obligations unique to her position, obligations costly in terms of both time and money. As Lindsay reported at one point, “I have given Miss Meloy additional work so that she has a very full schedule and her social service work necessitates some personal expense in the way of street car fares and luncheons, as she is obliged to be away from the building for a good deal of her time.”  

In order to be familiar with the persons and activities of the city, she needed to join numerous local clubs and organizations and attend their meetings. And in order to promote PCW’s program to the social science and philanthropic world at large, she had to attend regional and national conferences and other events. At one point she was even teaching outside the college, at a school for librarians.

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468 The Pennsylvanian, 1916–1917, 111.
469 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 20, 1911.
470 The Sorosis, January 1914, 20.
The teaching of the social service courses also included duties and responsibilities not involved in teaching classes in other departments. For instance, the instructor needed to attend the class in social service courses 1-2 on their site visitations, and to supervise the fieldwork projects for students in social service courses 3-4 and 5-6. She needed to grade the student notebooks from the classes. To arrange details with cooperating agencies, Meloy spent much time on phone calls and on visits in person, as well as repeated efforts to gain favor with other local agencies as potential new partners. Moreover, she found that the special students required far more continual, and sometimes even remedial, supervision than the baccalaureate students. In 1916 Meloy requested that, in order to relieve her of some of these duties, an assistant who would work two days per week be provided to the department, a request that was granted.471

Expanded Local Partnerships

When the program was initiated, it was expected that the practical components (the site visits of the first year and the fieldwork projects of the second year) would be learning activities for the students. Through them, the students would acquire the skills and perspective that would make them valuable future workers. As the program grew, however, it came to be that in their connections with local organizations, the PCW

471 Meloy, letter to Acheson, June 6, 1916, typewritten; Minutes of the Board of Trustees, June 9, 1916. Notes indicate that two recent graduates of the program were initially hired (sequentially) to serve as the department assistant, Seba South ’16 in 1916 and Frances Boale ’16 in 1917 (The Sorosis, October 1916, 22; November 1917, 27).
students were not just learning—benefiting themselves—but also providing a vital benefit to the community. The faculty found the students to be civic-minded and broad-ranging in their interests; “all are eager for active work and volunteer in many directions.”\footnote{Coolidge, “College Notes,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1911, 52-53, here 52.} The program started with only a short list of cooperating organizations, but these grew exponentially over the years, encompassing virtually every area of Pittsburgh’s charitable and philanthropic engagement with its population. Though not so originally conceived, these student class projects became important service activities that added real, observable value to the philanthropic efforts of the city at large.

The first year of the program (social service courses 1-2) was focused on theory and observation, and the class made weekly site visits to charitable agencies throughout the greater Pittsburgh area. Those agencies and organizations came to include the following: Associated Charities of Pittsburgh, Carnegie Library, Pittsburgh Free Kindergarten Association, Pittsburgh Playground Association, Young Women’s Christian Association, Juvenile Courts, Pennsylvania Reform School of Morganza, Pittsburgh Workshop for the Blind, Heinz Factories, Industrial Home for Working Men, McCreery’s Department Store, Market Street Mission, Protestant Orphan Asylum, Home for Colored Children, Association for the Improvement of the Poor, Sarah Heinz House, Trinity Church (of downtown Pittsburgh), Girls’ Friendly Society, Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company, Washington Park Recreation School, The Continuation School, Western Pennsylvania Institute for the Blind, National Organization of Girl Scouts, West...
Penn Hospital, City Hospitals at Mayview.\footnote{There is no record of all of the agencies and organizations with which the program engaged for these site visits, but the ones listed above are culled from various mentions here and there throughout the materials, especially issues of the student literary journal \textit{(The Sorosis}, April 1911, 22; October 1912, 15, 17; November 1916, 22; December 1916, 37; January 1917, 42; March 1917, 36; April 1917, 30; May 1917, 35; March 1918, 22; May–June 1918, 34). This listing must be understood as representative and not complete. In 1916–1917 and 1917–1918 \textit{The Sorosis} published brief reports from the college’s departments and programs in each issue, including the social service department, which helps immensely our knowledge of some of the regular activities of the classes during at least these two years.} One of the students in the class described the typical site visit:

The so-called “visit of observation” is an important part of the week’s work to the student of Social Service 1-2. Sometimes we visit large institutions, at other times we invade the small rooms of some charitable building. When we go, twenty-three strong, accompanied by a teacher or two, we never pass quite unnoticed. But whether we are distributed through the halls of an institution or massed inside a small office, we always find an expert social worker, ready and anxious to explain to a class from the College, the peculiarities of his particular type of social work. Usually the questions which we would ask are anticipated by these instructors, and we always listen eagerly for stories from real life and social work. On these visits we have become acquainted with many teachers outside of college walls.\footnote{\textit{The Sorosis}, February 1918, 22.}

The second and optional third years of the program (social service courses 3-4 and 5-6) were focused on theory and practice, and the students performed individual fieldwork projects throughout the year. “Nowhere is growth more apparent than in the variety and importance of the field work carried on by more advanced students.”\footnote{\textit{The Pennsylvanian}, 1915, 87.}

Some of the students projects included organizing and managing clubs of various sorts (different types of library clubs, different types of clubs for girls, a working women’s
Student Leading a Girls' Group, 1923

cub, a club for domestic servants at the YWCA, a Camp Fire Girls club in public schools), performing neighborhood visiting and investigation through the local charity organizations, working with the local settlement houses, organizing public recreation for children, performing hospital social work, and facilitating families’ saving habits.\(^{476}\)

There were also opportunities for larger projects. For instance, in November 1916 the class helped to set up an exhibit hosted by the Public Charities Association of

\(^{476}\) Again, this is not a complete list but only the projects that happened to be mentioned in the college publications; *The Sorosis*, October 1913, 28; April 1914, 4; March 1917, 33, 36; *The Pennsylvanian*, 1916–1917, 111.
Pittsburgh. Its purpose was to educate the public on mental illness.\footnote{The Sorosis, December 1916, 37. “The subject of the exhibit was ‘The Feebleminded,’ and it was designed for the education of the public, as a means of securing, through legislation, better care of mental defectives.”} And throughout the 1917–1918 academic year the class carried out an extensive research project with the Irene Kaufmann Settlement, the city’s largest settlement house at the time, located in the populous Hill District. The research involved over five hundred girls who lived near the settlement house. Each was visited by the students in order to collect information on her family and home life, her schooling situation, the conditions in her neighborhood, and her intellectual and recreational interests. They tabulated and assessed the data from these investigations, and the results of the study were to be published in the yearbook of the Irene Kaufmann Settlement and also presented at a meeting of the National Conference on Settlements.\footnote{The Sorosis, December 1917, 25; January 1918, 19-20; May–June 1918, 34. The directors of the project, the Tellers, were particularly conscientious in finding work that would suit the experience and abilities of each student. The title of the project was “The Work and Play of 500 Grammar School (Preadolescent) Girls Undertaken by the Irene Kaufmann Settlement in Co-operation with The Pennsylvania College For Women,” and its official description was as follows: “At least five hundred complete schedules covering five hundred different girls living in the general neighborhood of the Irene Kaufmann Settlement, will be filled out through information secured by students of the Pennsylvania College for Women. Their field work will be under the supervision of Sidney A. Teller, Resident Director of the Irene Kaufmann Settlement, and of Mrs. Julia P. Teller, Director of Girls’ and Women’s Work. As the schedules are filled out and O.K.’d by either Mr. Teller or Mrs. Teller, they will be turned in to Miss Meloy, of the Pennsylvania College for Women, who will supervise the interpretation of the schedules, and assign the different parts of the study. Every student working on the study, will go over all the schedules in one phase or another, to tabulate data, and to interpret that data. An outline map of the neighborhood will be furnished by the Irene Kaufmann Settlement, upon which will be placed by the students, the location, by address, of the children whom they have visited, and the location of the neighborhood agencies, such as schools, playgrounds, moving picture shows, etc. This map will be at the Irene Kaufmann Settlement, which will be the center from which the investigators}
useful community engagement. It was a community partnership that provided both an opportunity for in-depth learning on the part of the students and an output that was of real, practical benefit to the work of the organization.

In June 1917 PCW students were presented with a singular opportunity when the annual meeting of the National Conference of Social Work, with over four thousand delegates, was held in Pittsburgh. Students were encouraged to attend the presentations and other events, and it was an occasion for them to become familiar with the ideas and persons in the field who were active on the national level. They were eager “to see and hear the social workers whom we have met in the Survey and for whom we have searched so diligently the pages of ‘Who’s Who.’”\(^{479}\)

Professional Organizations

Four organizations that were established during these years are significant to the purposes of this study. Two of these were created directly under the auspices of the social service program. The influence of the program on the other two was less immediately direct. But the visible and broad-ranging activities of PCW social service students and graduates, now reaching throughout the Pittsburgh community and serving as prime examples of the professional abilities of college-educated women, surely helped to pave the way for the creation of those two organizations as well.

College Club. The College Club of Pittsburgh was formed in January 1909, substantially through the enterprise and the energy of Coolidge and for the benefit of PCW alumnae. Like the Association of Collegiate Alumnae (ACA), it provided an avenue for social connection and advocacy for college women, but its requirements for membership were less restrictive—any woman who had completed at least two years of college-level work, at any baccalaureate-granting institution, was eligible. It was estimated that around one thousand women in the Pittsburgh area met this criteria. The College Club of Pittsburgh therefore gave college women who were not eligible for ACA membership a similar option for collegiality. Many ACA members, however, also joined the College Club.

The ACA, which had been founded in 1881, had a set of colleges and universities that were corporate members, and any woman who had received a bachelor’s degree in
arts, science, or literature from that list was eligible to join. The association’s purposes were to work for high educational standards for women and for the institutions at which they enrolled, to perform statistical research on topics related to education, and to financially support the studies of female students through fellowships. It had several branch organizations, by geography, and Pittsburgh’s ACA branch was particularly active.

The standards for corporate membership were high, and strictly maintained. They included elements such as the admission and graduation requirements for students, the academic qualifications of the faculty, whether any faculty gave instruction in preparatory departments (in schools that had them) and the ratio of college students to preparatory students, how many women served on the Board, the value and quality of the property (grounds, buildings, furniture, equipment, etc.), and financial assets and deficits (endowment, investments, mortgages, etc.). 480 It is not clear whether PCW had ever officially applied for corporate membership and was denied (as countless schools were) or, knowing that it would not meet the financial criteria, did not try. After the final separation of the college and preparatory faculty in 1907, that deterrent would have been resolved. But it was always the lack of adequate endowment and other financial resources that was the primary element blocking PCW’s pathway to ACA membership. 481


481 In the words of the president of the Alumnae Association, in her annual report addressing the PCW alumnae, trying to get them to be more generous in their financial
The planning and early meetings of the College Club were hosted by PCW and held in its chapel. Coolidge was elected vice president and Spencer was elected to be one of five directors. Interest was strong and immediate; already by early May the association had over three hundred charter members, representing forty-eight different colleges.  

Collegiate Vocational Bureau. The College Club of Pittsburgh was an important development not only because of its own activities but also because it spawned the Collegiate Vocational Bureau. The College Club provided a network of interested, college-educated women already in place and accustomed to working together, with mailing lists and other means to contact them already established. For three years committees from the College Club researched the needs of the area and began making preliminary arrangements. It sent out questionnaires to local businesses that might be potential employers, asking them about their requirements for employees and the types of positions they had available or might create if they found qualified workers. In July 1915 the Collegiate Vocational Bureau was opened, originally in one of the rooms of the support of the college, “Some of you ask: ‘Why, then, are we not a part of the Association of Intercollegiate [sic] Alumnae?’ A matter of mere money. Our requirements are recognized as all right, our standards are without reproach, our work is acclaimed as having much merit, but our finances seem to have a notoriously bad reputation.” (Jane DeVore Porter, “Address by the President, Mrs. George Porter, ’99 at the Annual Meeting, June 12, 1914,” Alumnae Recorder 1914, 13-17, here 16.) It was not until 1925, after the endowment drive begun in 1922 drew in sufficient funds, that PCW was approved by the ACA (now renamed the American Association of University Women) (Dysart, Chatham College, 171).

College Club until it moved to more spacious offices. It acted as a clearinghouse of information, matching employers with suitable educated employees. And it also offered guidance to women about what type of employment would best suit them and, if they needed further training, how best they might obtain it.483

Coolidge had been thinking about women’s vocational concerns since at least 1911. New lines of work were becoming available for women, outside the traditional teaching and medical professions, that were appealing, personally rewarding, and well paid. Recent research had identified sixty-nine new vocations in which college-educated women were already working. A full twenty of these new occupations incorporated various types of social work. New vocational bureaus had just opened in Boston (the Women’s Educational and Industrial Union, in 1910) and in New York City (the Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations, in 1911, which was operated by the alumnae organizations of eight eastern women’s colleges). Inspired by these emerging efforts and cognizant of local needs, Coolidge dreamed: “A chain of bureaus organized and directed by college women in all sections of the country is the hope ahead. Already Pittsburgh is being asked to aid in collecting data of use in determining the number and value of new occupations and in this alert, alive city, we can surely find opportunities to lend a

hand.”  Over the next years, her voice was among those urging the College Club to move in this direction; when it did, the Pittsburgh bureau became the fifth in the nation.

PCW worked closely with the Vocational Bureau, both through the efforts of its alumnae and through the anticipatory interests of those of its students who intended to enter a paid occupation. In later years, thanks to the financial support of the Alumnae Association, the director of the Chicago Collegiate Bureau of Occupations regularly came to town for a series of lectures and personal conferences with students at the college. 485

In 1917 Coolidge served as the Pittsburgh representative at the first conference of the Central Committee of vocational bureaus, which was established to enable greater cooperation among the various bureaus across the county and to formulate national policies. These experiences caused Coolidge, in 1918 and back home in Massachusetts, to be solicited as the chair of the National Committee on Bureaus of Occupations for Trained Women, a position she held until returning to the PCW presidency. 486

Cora Helen Coolidge Club. In spring 1918 an opportunity was created for social connection and professional networking. All graduates of the social service course and advanced students who were candidates for the certificate could join this association, which met bi-monthly. Outside speakers were sometimes brought in for these meetings.

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In honor of Coolidge and in recognition of her strong support of the social service
department and activities from its very beginnings, the Cora Helen Coolidge Club was
chosen for its name. Even in its early years the club had the strong enthusiasm of its
members for the level of cooperation and camaraderie it engendered; the club sparked
new knowledge and inspiration, opened avenues for collaboration around projects, and
simply allowed for familiarity with what the other graduates were doing. A few years
later the club became a member of the new American Association of Social Workers
when it was formed in June 1921.\textsuperscript{487} It was impressive that after only ten years of
existence, the alumnae network of the program was large enough and strong enough to
constitute such a vigorous association.\textsuperscript{488}

\textit{Lambda Pi Mu.} Then in fall 1921 a club was organized to focus solely on the
current students. The name was chosen in recognition of, and gratitude for, the tireless
efforts of Meloy, incorporating her initials (Luella Price Meloy, or LPM). The original
purpose of the Lambda Pi Mu club was to give the students an opportunity to become
better familiar with the social agencies, activities, and professionals in Pittsburgh, by
inviting social workers from the community to discuss their work for each meeting.\textsuperscript{489}

Over the next few years the club’s activities broadened to include performing group

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{487} \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1922, 29; socialwelfare.library.vcu.edu/organizations/american-
association-of-social-workers/
\item \textsuperscript{488} \textit{The Sorosis}, May–June 1918, 34; Meloy, “The Cora Helen Coolidge Club,” \textit{Alumnae
Recorder} 1919, 56; \textit{The Pennsylvanian}, 1919–1920; Meloy, “An Ideal and Its
Realization,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, June 1933, 8.
\item \textsuperscript{489} \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1922, 77; \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1923, 23; \textit{The Pennsylvanian}, 1922–
1923.
\end{itemize}
service projects, including hosting annual Christmas parties for children at a local settlement house, supplying current magazines and other literature for the servants’ library, and planning benefit events (a tea one year, a bridge competition the next) to raise money for the student scholarship fund.\footnote{As mentioned in the new student newspaper, \textit{The Arrow}, December 18, 1923, p. 6; January 22, 1924, p. 2; February 6, 1924, p. 6; October 14, 1924, p. 3; March 24, 1925, p. 3; April 21, 1925, p. 5. \textit{(The Arrow replaced The Sorosis.)}}

Increasing Significance of the Program

Those inside the college, and in Pittsburgh at large, saw the value of the social service department from its inception. Now, however, it was receiving attention on the national level. Indicative of this situation is the comment of Frank Pierrepont Graves, the founding dean of the Graduate School of Education at the University of Pennsylvania. Graves had come to the opinion that “Surely nothing has done Pennsylvania College for Women more credit, or has been more in keeping with her spirit of liberality, than her Department of Social Service and her work in social relief.”\footnote{Quoted in Cora Helen Coolidge, “Pennsylvania College for Women: The College on the Hill,” \textit{Club Dial} (White Plains, NY: The Contemporary Club, 1932), 16-17, 43-45, here 43-44.} Academics and other professionals in the fields of higher education and of the social sciences were given

\footnote{The date of this quote is uncertain. Coolidge stated that Graves made this statement while he was serving as dean. The Graduate School of Education was founded in 1914, and Graves left his position there in 1921 to become the president of the University of the State of New York, and he later became the New York State Commissioner of Education. Therefore, the best we can conclude is that Graves’s statement is reflective of PCW’s social service program between 1914 and 1921.}
chances to become more familiar with what the college was doing, fostering even greater respect for PCW because of it.

**Coolidge’s Address to the ACA.** In April 1914, PCW’s social service program was featured at the national conference of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae (ACA), by means of a presentation by Coolidge. 492 Coolidge was an active member of the ACA and attended the annual conference every year; she was also at times the president of the Pittsburgh branch or its named delegate to the conference. One of her purposes in attending these conferences, she stated, was to represent PCW, desiring that it would become better known, with the hope that it might soon be admitted to ACA membership. Florence Root, after she assumed the deanship in 1917, also attended the ACA conferences regularly. 493 (Coolidge and Root were members of the ACA by virtue of being graduates of Smith College.) Over the years Coolidge lobbied (unsuccessfully) for the conference to be held in Pittsburgh at some point, and in 1917 she extended a formal invitation that the Biennial Convention in 1921 meet there, with the goal of “bringing a

492 It was the Thirty-Second General Meeting of the Association for Collegiate Alumnae, held in Philadelphia, April 13-17, 1914. The minutes and other information constitute the content of the next issue of the association’s journal (*Journal of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae* 7, no 4 [May 1914]).
notable gathering to Pittsburgh to emphasize the education of women.”\textsuperscript{494} Such activities also show how prominent and well regarded Coolidge was on the national level.

Since 1910 the ACA had been holding day-long meetings for college and university deans in conjunction with the larger conference.\textsuperscript{495} The Conference of Deans of Women was held at Bryn Mawr College on April 14, 1914, with fifty-two deans from across the country in attendance. The topic for the evening event was “Conference on Vocational Opportunities and Guidance,” with the general question, “Should existing undergraduate courses be related to later vocational work, to receive credit or to shorten the period of apprenticeship?”\textsuperscript{496}

Coolidge’s address was “An Experiment in Pennsylvania College for Women in Relating an Undergraduate Course to Later Vocational Work.” It appears that Coolidge’s presentation may have been the primary, or possibly the only, address of that evening.\textsuperscript{497}


In 1917 Coolidge reported that she had been attending the Conference of Deans of Women for at least the previous five years (Coolidge, untitled address on the position of dean, unknown occasion, 1917, typewritten manuscript).

\textsuperscript{496} The general topic is found on the inside back cover of the *Journal of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae* 7, no. 1 (January 1914). The question is noted in the explanatory remarks preceding the reprinting of Coolidge’s essay in the *Alumnae Recorder*, 1914, 23.

\textsuperscript{497} An exhaustive search for the content of the evening’s program turned up nothing. The May 1914 issue of the association’s journal gives the minutes of the conference (see n. 492, above), including some of the items discussed at the dean’s conference (pp. 87-88), but not any information regarding the evening event. We do know that Coolidge’s was the only presentation published in the journal. For that reason we can perhaps understand it to be the featured, or even perhaps the only, presentation at the event. The schedule
It was later published as an essay in the association’s journal. In it, Coolidge argued that, when the conditions were favorable, so-called vocational work situated within a traditional cultural curriculum could make a quite positive addition to a baccalaureate college. She described some of the features of PCW’s social service course and assessed the characteristics that had allowed it be workable and to become successful over the past six years.

It is possible that the example of PCW’s program influenced the initiation of the social service department at Bryn Mawr College. Bryn Mawr’s program was started in the academic year 1915–1916, as noted previously (see chapter 1). It is highly likely that Bryn Mawr’s president, M. Carey Thomas, attended at least portions of the dean’s conference that year—which was right on her campus. Thomas had been exceptionally involved in the ACA for years, and her efforts had been central to the association’s reorganization process the previous year, in 1913. And in 1921 we know that she did for certain attend the dean’s conference in addition to the general ACA conference. If nothing else, Thomas would have been aware of Coolidge’s essay when it was published in the association’s journal.

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and program participants for these dean’s meetings for earlier and later years likewise proved impossible to find (the year 1915 seems to be an exception, with the planned program for the conference, which was held in August in San Francisco that year, noted in the May issue of the journal). It thus appears that they, unlike the events from the main conference, were not regularly printed and promulgated anywhere. The student newspaper at Bryn Mawr, The College News, would likely have included information about this type of significant event on campus. But alas, it was not started until September 1914, and the dean’s conference occurred in April.

498 Coolidge, “An Experiment.”
Like the process undertaken with the establishment of PCW’s social service program, at Bryn Mawr there was also no widespread discussion of the prospect of adding such a department until it was done. And like President Lindsay before her, President Thomas simply proposed the idea to Bryn Mawr’s Board of Trustees, who adopted it at that very meeting (in mid-February 2015).500 Bryn Mawr’s social service course—or social economy, as it was called there—was at the graduate level, offering M.A. and Ph.D. degrees, open only to women who had already earned their B.A. degree. But it did adopt two of the elements Coolidge had stressed in her presentation as having proved essential to the success of PCW’s program. First, Bryn Mawr’s program was similarly academically focused; theory was given as much or more weight than practice. And second, Bryn Mawr also was deliberate in finding the right person, with the right set of abilities and experience, to lead the program. With some effort, Thomas convinced Susan Kingsbury to leave Simmons College and take up this new position at Bryn Mawr. Like Meloy at PCW, Kingsbury stayed in that position for many years, until she retired in 1936.501 Therefore, it is not at all out of the question that Thomas and Bryn Mawr

500 Minutes of the Board of Trustees of Bryn Mawr College, February 19, 1915. In the autumn and winter preceding the decision to begin the department of social economy, there is nothing in Thomas’s generally copious correspondence about this idea (September 1914 through January 1915; Reel 131). Thomas just brought it to the Board in February, and there is a simple statement that they approved it. A comparison can be made with Thomas’s and the college’s process when establishing the Phebe Anne Thorne Model School a few years earlier. With that new—and similarly rather radical—addition to the academic program of the college, the materials show that she had been thinking about it for a few years already beforehand (Reel 122). (M. Carey Thomas Papers, Bryn Mawr College Archives)

501 For general information about the program as well as Bryn Mawr College in general, see Cornelia Meigs, What Makes a College? A History of Bryn Mawr (New York: Macmillan, 1956); and Delores Griffin Norton, “Harkening to Uncommon Drums: The
College may have heard first-hand from Coolidge, in April 1914, about how needed and beneficial the social service course at PCW had become, and then that next spring decided to start its own program.

*Lillian Wald’s Jubilee Address.* During the jubilee celebration to observe PCW’s fiftieth anniversary, one day of the festivities was designated an “Education Day,” as noted above. The event included three speeches from distinguished invited guests. Mary Emma Wholley, the president of Mount Holyoke College, had the topic “Intellectual Relationship.” She addressed the social responsibility of colleges to stand against human suffering, but also against cheap amusements and general recklessness. William Allen Neilson, the president of Smith College, had the topic “Political Relationship.” He argued that women no less than men should be educated for roles in politics and that they would bring intelligence and needed idealism to political concerns. The third speaker on the docket was not another college president, nor anyone from the world of formal higher education at all. Instead, she was a social reformer. Lillian D. Wald had the topic “Social Relationship.” That Wald was chosen for “education day” is a clear nod to how important service work had become to the college by 1920, as having a respected role in the college’s educational mission. The occasion of her address at the college marked a

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502 Dysart, *Chatham College*, 157-158. The titles are listed in the program for the event, and they clearly appear to have been assigned to the speakers in order to create a theme. Dysart had the manuscripts of the three speeches available to her in the 1950s when she was preparing the college history.
connection between the social service efforts of PCW and social reform on the national level.

Lillian Wald’s particular area of activism was public health reform. She was raised in Cincinnati and Rochester by middle-class immigrant Jewish parents. At sixteen she applied to Vassar College but was turned away for being too young; she then spent the next few years at home until, at twenty-two, she impulsively decided to attend the New York Hospital School of Nursing, followed by the Women’s Medical College. When given the opportunity to teach a home nursing class to immigrant Jews on the Lower East Side, Wald found her calling. She came to recognize that the whole of a person’s circumstances, both social and financial, must be treated, and not just a particular illness. Wald and a fellow nursing student lived for two years in a tenement apartment, treating patients from their home, then opened the Henry Street Settlement in 1895; the settlement expanded quickly in a neighborhood where its services were greatly needed. Along with health care, it added housing assistance, children’s clubs and recreation, English classes and other education, social events, and arts activities. Wald further initiated the movement to place nurses in New York’s public schools, and on the national level her advocacy for the needs of children helped to establish the federal Children’s Bureau within the U.S. Department of Labor in 1912. In 1920, when she came to PCW, Wald had recently published her first book, *The House on Henry Street*.503

Throughout her career she continually drew a connection between the care of patients and the larger missions of social justice and progressive government policy.\(^{504}\)

Speaking at PCW, Wald argued the need for what she termed the “new education.” She decried the current state of affairs, in which the greater public was either unaware or indifferent to the deficiencies of the present system—schools closing, teachers leaving the profession due to unsustainable salaries, children perceived to have any sort of deficiency being deemed uneducable. For a matter so crucial to democracy, she contended, congressional attention to the situation and appropriations for it were shamefully inadequate. The nation could not experience true freedom until everyone recognized that education is not a thing apart from the life of the people; true Americanization could be realized only through the development of all persons according to their abilities. And the knowledge brought by immigrants must be merged into the cultural life of the nation. Wald told her audience that “Pittsburgh, like New York, is enriched by the gifts and traditions of foreign folk. Your Settlements, like the Settlements in other places, have found craftsmanship and spiritual qualities wholly unrecognized and almost extinguished, because of indifference to what the stranger

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brought, and because of contempt for the stranger himself.”505 Social settlements, she felt, had been better able to support a broader and inclusive type of education because their methods were more flexible than those used by the public schools.

The model of “new education” that Wald conceived incorporated home life and community life. “On this occasion, I would make my plea for an education that penetrates into the home, that enters into the life of the people, and takes account not only of the child, the adolescent, the graduate student, but also of the powerful forces which are the mainsprings of human action, quite outside the field which deals with education.”506 Only through this type of education, she maintained, can we all be full human beings and serviceable to society and to the world. The educated home must be recognized as the cornerstone of civilization. To attain these ideals, teachers need to know their pupils as distinct personalities—to visit the homes of the students, to become acquainted with the parents, to understand their traditions and their particular concerns.

Wald found a strong overlap between social service and education. She related how a recent job opening in social work received many applications from highly capable teachers who desired an avenue for more holistic and liberal methods of teaching than allowed by their current positions in the public schools. Both professions shared a common bond through their interests in serving the entire range of people’s needs, within in the community and not separated from it.


506 Lillian D. Wald, “Speech Delivered at Fiftieth Anniversary of the Pennsylvania College for Women,” June 10, 1920, typewritten manuscript.
As she concluded, Wald issued a challenge to PCW faculty and students to act on the ideas she proposed:

Pittsburgh is in many respects unique, even in this industrial land of ours. In early days the meeting of the rivers opened up gates for our sturdy, pioneer forbears, who ventured into new lands and set up there fine standards of home and country. Is it not possible for a woman’s college in this city,—for so many the gateway into a new world,—to lead its youth into the still more marvelous world of the new education? What a splendid contribution it would be for women, socially self-conscious as never before, to make their college the training place of teachers who should conceive of education as starting in the home, spreading out of it into the kindergarten, the elementary school and finally enter our higher institutions of learning, thereby perfecting our youth in all aspects of life as a human being. The way is as yet quite untraveled. You, too, can be pioneers in education, its methods and its scope. . . . Perhaps this women’s college, placed at the meeting of the rivers, will dedicate itself to the new education that will train teachers and train pupils to reach a citizenship that will glorify our industrial communities and spread their beneficent light throughout the world.507

*Centrality to the Student Experience.* As noted above, sociology, economics, political science, and social service became core elements of the revised curriculum in 1921. But it is evident that such concerns had developed widespread appeal among the student body much earlier. The social service course was not a niche interest; rather, many students found their way to the department’s classes and showed curiosity in its activities. For instance, from an initial enrollment of a mere three students in 1908, by

507 Lillian D. Wald, “Speech Delivered at Fiftieth Anniversary of the Pennsylvania College for Women,” June 10, 1920, typewritten manuscript.
1915 about half the sophomores, juniors, and seniors were taking classes in the department.508

In no place can this centralization be seen more clearly than the student literary journal, *The Sorosis*. The main part of each journal typically consisted of literary material: short stories and poems, and sometimes an essay on a particular topic. The latter pages included college news, personal news, exchange items from other college’s student publications, jokes, and advertisements. What is significant is that though *The Sorosis* was only rarely given a unified theme, not once but twice during these years, in both 1914 and in 1917, the students chose to publish it as a thematic issue around social service.509 They replaced the literary content with items about social work theory and activity.

The April 1914 issue was identified as the “Social Service Number.” Its student editors explain their reasons for making this decision in the issue’s main editorial:

> There are many phases of College work which are being developed along different lines, but none perhaps are of more practical value in the every day work of a college graduate than the Social Service phase. This department contains studies which touch nearly every point of life after graduation. The social service graduate may not take up work directly in connection with that department, but wherever she goes she will find knowledge and experience has made smooth the road and perhaps solved a difficult problem. In the life of today the social knowledge plays a leading part, magazines are full of it, public speakers talk of little else. Everywhere is the call for efficient social workers to help straighten out the perplexed tangle which confronts the earnest minded reformer. We are very proud of our Alumnae, so many

508 *The Pennsylvanian*, 1915, 87.
509 A memorial issue to President Lindsay in February 1914 and an issue commemorating the college’s anniversary in June 1920 were the only other instances of thematic issues during this time period.
of whom have volunteered their services to aid in this great work, and 
even now, in the short time since the founding of this department in 
our college, have made names for themselves in this great field which 
has put forth such an earnest call.

In the issue, in place of the typical literary pieces were materials all about social service. 
It contained three primary essays, one written by Meloy (“The Social Service 
Department”) and two written by alumnae of the program about the service work they 
were currently performing (“The Associated Charities Visitor” by Rosalie Supplee ’11, 
and “The New Public School System” by Claire Colestock ’13). Then the volume 
included reports on the social service projects the current year’s graduating seniors had 
been doing (a musical class experiment, social work in the public school system, and a 
Camp Fire Girls club). Also included was a listing of all the program’s alumnae to date 
and their current activities.

The January 1917 issue likewise featured social service. The student editors 
challenged the PCW community to make “The Spirit of Service” the theme for the 
upcoming year:

One of the most valuable traits that is added to a college girl’s 
character, one of the most satisfactory ideals after which she strives, is 
the spirit of service. If a college education means to a girl nothing but 
fun, or, on the other hand, nothing but work, how can it possibly have 
any practical value for her or for those with whom she comes in 
contact? Her life becomes so much broader and more influential if she 
can apply her acquired knowledge to some practical ends. There are 
many occupations in which this energy can be directed—in the home, 
in the church, in social work of any kind. A girl feels that four years 
of college life is worth while, if, in that time, she makes practical, 
through activity, the realization that somewhere another needs her 
services, that somehow she can help lift another’s burden.
No other course in college has so vital an influence in stimulating this spirit of service as the Social Service course. Our girls who have done practical work in this connection—settlement work, playground work, investigation, or friendly visiting—feel that they have given of themselves, although in a small way, to help society, and that they are a small part in the large movement to uplift humanity. If, as college women, we go out into the world ready and willing to serve it along whatever lines our talents lie, our college education will indeed have been worth while. With this in mind, we can make our ideal for 1917 the “spirit of service.”

The volume also included an essay by Meloy (“Social Service”), along with material from alumnae (“Investigation,” an essay about the rules and procedures for conducting social work investigations, by Seba South ’16; “Wanted: A Playground,” a poem about children’s recreation, by Mildred Weston ’13) and from a current senior (“Moral Education for Children under Five,” an essay by Louise Reinecke ’17). An updated list of alumnae and their activities was again provided.

What we discover from these two publications is evidence of how thoroughly the ideals of the social service course had permeated the student body at large. Moreover, when reading through the whole body of student and alumnae publications, what is striking is how very frequently the topics of service, social work, and the social service course and personnel were incorporated and highlighted. At this time PCW also had special certificate programs in music and expression—but they were included considerably less frequently and less visibly. As the two editorials demonstrate, the students were much drawn to the idea of how social service could prove beneficial to whatever they decided to do in life after graduation. They intensely desired to, in some manner, make their educations useful—useful not only to themselves, but more
especially to the larger world. And the sense of pride they had in their teacher, in the
service activities being done by their fellow students, and ultimately in their school for
being so modern to have such a program, is palpable.

Luella Meloy’s Social Philosophy

Luella Meloy was the face of the social service department for twenty-six years. Her wisdom, experience, research, scholarship, and opinions shaped a generation of students. We have no record of the specific content included in the social service classes. Yet from Meloy’s writings we can glean a sense of some of the things she must have taught in the classroom and how she must have modeled for the students what a professional social worker should be. Meloy did not publish anything in national publications. But she did write several short essays on social service and related topics for the college publications over the years. It is from them—and in her own voice—that we are able to derive a sense of how she conceptualized her discipline and how she approached the profession of teaching.

510 Meloy’s unpublished master’s thesis, “The Reaction of the Pittsburgh Survey,” from Columbia University in 1914, is held by only that university’s library and I have not been able to gain access to it.
Interrelatedness of Society

The basic premise of Meloy’s thought was interrelation. She stressed how every responsible social service effort is based upon this concept. All persons are interdependent with one another, and any lines we might draw, any categories we might devise, are ultimately only artificial. At the same time, those who are engaged in social work must recognize the uniqueness and individuality of the persons with whom they interact.

The first lesson which the student of social subjects learns is a lesson of inter-relations. There is no single cause for poverty, as there is no single cause for wealth. The eyes of jealousy can always discover downward-reaching tendencies in those who appear to stand upon high platforms, and the eyes of the social worker can always disarm aspiration and poetry in the very poor. There is no such thing as being independent of others. It is not exact, even, to speak of the “rich” and the “poor.” For those of us who are rich in some ways, let us say, in specialized knowledge, confess to poverty of more than one kind, and those whom we call the “poor” may be rich in some of the most valuable things of life.511

This interrelatedness is based on a basic sense of humanity, and a humanity that leads to sympathy when confronted with the distress of another human being. Yet maturity requires that a social worker straddle a tight line between holding measured compassion and being overcome with emotion.

It should teach her the essential unit of humanity. When she sees defective lives and studies the efforts that are being made to alleviate

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and correct them, her sympathies should be enlarged. She should learn on one hand to avoid weak sentimentality in the presence of suffering and on the other to experience feeling at once rational and tender for all who suffer, without regard for class distinction.  

Interrelatedness challenges any attitude of hierarchy, and social workers must be always on guard against a presumption of superiority.

The modern view of interdependence, of social responsibility, and of social work as a social necessity rather than as a social grace, has spread rapidly during the last ten or fifteen years. . . . Sense of superiority went out with the old charity. For the hard work of social uplift, the modern charity must divest itself of all unnecessary garments, especially of the cloak of priggishness.

There is likewise a sense of reciprocity in the work, as those involved will receive benefit as well as give it. Oftentimes, even if there is benefit, we do not see it immediately and need to maintain faith in our efforts nonetheless. The worthiness of any service endeavor is in the very attempt itself to make the world better, and not necessarily the result; one may never know how much influence she has had.

The college girl who goes out to work with a group in the social settlement, or as a friendly visitor, soon learns that what she gets is of more value to her than what she gives. Her knowledge links itself up with everything else which she learns. The principle of inter-relations again! But by the same principle, she cannot estimate the value of her own work. Should she fail in the reclamation of the individual, she has learned her duty in respect to the environment, and her work must have had some influence upon it for good, however slight. The true social worker, in her own home, in the church, in the school room, feels her responsibility for the environment of her community, she

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directs her energy toward its betterment, and moreover, she knows that it can be made better.\textsuperscript{514}

The concept of interrelatedness obligates everyone to engage their energies toward improving society. Ultimately, putting persons into categories of helpers and those who are helped renders only a false dichotomy, for everyone is both a giver and a receiver of social work.

On the one hand the service which we give to society is only what we owe, and on the other hand that while we are serving society we are getting back a rich return. Take, for example, some of the things in which the Poor are rich, such as true charity, courage, and family love. The Poor teach us these things very freely. . . . It follows from the lesson of inter-relations that we must all, everyone of us, be social workers, and that we all need to have social work done for us.\textsuperscript{515}

Meloy held that there are certain character traits necessary for professional social work. Though, in our interrelated society, everyone is called to perform service for one’s fellow human beings, not everyone is cut out to be a professional social worker. The proper knowledge and theory are important, but so is the proper personality; “the social worker needs a most generous equipment in the way of both character and mental training.”\textsuperscript{516} As for personality traits, having excellent social skills—the ability to interact positively and appropriately with others who are unlike oneself—is a given. But if a woman wants to enter into professional social work, Meloy contended that she also needs assertiveness and personal courage.

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\textsuperscript{514} Meloy, “Social Service,” \textit{The Sorosis}, January 1917, 9-12, here 12.
\textsuperscript{515} Meloy, “Social Service,” \textit{The Sorosis}, January 1917, 9-12, here 11, 10.
\textsuperscript{516} Meloy, “The Social Service Department,” \textit{The Sorosis}, April 1914, 3-5, here 4.
\end{flushright}
Any trained worker will mention essential qualities for beginners and probably no two will put the same quality first. I should say that to advance to a position of prominence and to become a worker whose services are sought after, you should have an easy, friendly way of addressing people, and a degree more than the average of self-confidence, because so much of modern charity is initiative, not to say aggressive. You should be a leader with the same ability for directing others which is required in a teacher.\textsuperscript{517}

Even if some women are not well suited for professional work, there are many other types of work in which they can profitably engage. All efforts are equally worthwhile, and all benefit society at large. Motherhood and schoolteaching, for instance, if performed well, depend upon the same understandings and methods as professional social work.

The mother is a direct social worker in an intensive field. The school teacher is a social worker, direct and indirect, certainly in an extensive field, and intensive to the extent of her capabilities. I cannot see that the so-called professional Social Worker . . . is doing anything more than the public school teacher can do. She is different in that she uses special tools and that she works more directly with and for people who suffer from an obviously injurious environment.\textsuperscript{518}

And for those women who opt for volunteer work, if that best suits their personality or their financial circumstances, social study is likewise beneficial. A woman educated in social theory brings much value wherever she places her efforts.

As a means of vocational training, practical sociology prepares the girl for social work, provided that her natural bent is in this direction. It is not desirable that all girls should enter social work, strictly so-called.

This work requires a hand-to-hand conflict with life, for which all girls are not equal in health and courage. But even if she has not the strength for paid work, or if it is not necessary for her to work for her living, her social studies should give her a sane, broad view and an intelligent interest in philanthropy. She should make a valuable worker in church and charity.\[519\]

Meloy conceded that her ideas were not static but dynamic, and that they had changed over her years in the field. Sociology was a new and rapidly evolving discipline in those years. It required its scholars and practitioners also to continually be in a process of reevaluation, to continually let go of what they previously approached as truisms.

I remember the time when I was sure that the whole secret of human quality lay in heredity. Later when I became a Social Worker . . . I was equally sure that the whole responsibility must be placed upon environment. And now—well, I am afraid that, to the girls in the Social Service classes, I am a good deal of an old fogy because I am beginning to look backward toward heredity.\[520\]

Motivations for Social Service

The impetus for introducing social science into the curriculum came from these same types of students who, Meloy joked, saw her as “an old fogy.” Meloy’s experience was that it was the college students themselves who wanted an education that was not only intellectual but also practical.

I believe that the introduction of practical work in connection with courses in Economics and Sociology is an index of a demand on the part of students. They feel their need of a science of a kind that can be

taken away from books and applied to the everyday world to which so much of the theory that is taught in schools seems unrelated.

For the girl who is willing to dig into poorly-written books of abstractions, searching for light on the problems that concern the life of the common people. I have seen her do it. She wants to know something of that life by actual observation; to go out and see what the social workers of her own city are doing; to read about what social workers are doing in other cities. Nor does she do these things merely for the excitement of getting out and sightseeing. The college woman of today has so much liberty that she would soon tire of looking at a succession of brick or wooden buildings, occupied by social workers and by women and children of more or less poverty, and equipped with domestic science outfits and bakeries and laundries more or less improved, unless they teach her something about the problems of human life and suggest to her ways in which she can make her service count.521

A college experience should not be a time for retreating from the world, but instead for entering into it. In learning about areas of life with which her previous upbringing had not familiarized her, the students’ eyes will necessarily be opened. It is only in this way that they will be able to determine where their interests and passions lie, where they can profitably enter into that larger world.

Let her immaturity be duly discounted, she is nevertheless eager to see life as it is. Social studies should at least show her how to look squarely at life. She will, it is true, see many ugly things which would be hidden by the veil of illusion which many parents like to spread before the eyes of their daughters, but is it a kindness to show the girl who is thirsting for truth in a fictitious world whose real ugliness and real beauty must be realized sooner or later? Sociology should reveal to the young traveler an open road where she may read the story of life from the faces of living men and women. In so far as this study leads

her to that road and opens her eyes, to that degree does she like it and demand more.  

Once young women understand clearly some of the problems that exist in society, they are eager to try to ameliorate them. Meloy found that most students had an innate altruistic nature, that they wanted to do good and serve others, if only they knew exactly how best to do so. Current college students had

a traditional belief that every woman who graduates is bound to give something to the world—a sort of “Pay your bill” obligation. All of us who have been at P. C.W. are like that. [Also] was the warm heart of youth. “And so it is true,” says the girl as she begins to grow up, “that the world is full of misery. What can I do about it? My college must help me to learn how.”

The ultimate issue was the purpose of education itself. Meloy held that the proper role of education was to prepare a student for service toward others. Any elitism that a college-educated woman might be tempted to hold, as one of the relatively few women to have entered into higher education, must be rejected.

She has the advantage of freeing herself in early life from that intellectual snobbishness which is the handicap of so many college graduates. If she has really thought about the theory she has studied, if she has been a sympathetic observer of social workers and if she has made a beginning, however weak, in some work of her own, she has learned that her education is not an ornament to set her above the less favored of humanity, but a means to be used for service.

Meloy related her experience of being a social worker and gave the students glimpses of what the profession was like from the inside and on a daily basis. She made clear the enjoyable and the less enjoyable aspects of the work, for it contained both: “You will find that the disagreeable things and the compensations, that occur in each day’s work, are very much the same in any branch of scientific charity which you undertake.”

But throughout Meloy’s writings it is clear that, for her, it was the compensations that won the day. What shines through is her passion for the work and for the whole range of people she encountered through it. “To love the work and to find in it such a fascination that you will never be willing to leave it, you need a heart-deep curiosity as to the lives of all human beings.”

It was that “heart-deep curiosity” that compelled her. Meloy was always looking for, and discovering, a surprise—and indeed, the prospect of finding the unexpected was a most delightful aspect of the work. “No matter what you find out, it is always what you don’t expect, and at the close of each day’s work, you have compiled a story fresh from the book of life.”

She depicted the experience of being a caseworker, visiting urban households.

There is drudgery in this tramping from street to street in all kinds of weather, in this entering of the poorest houses in the city and in climbing to top floors, and in persistently framing and asking questions which will draw from unwilling lips the story of the past and the names and addresses of those who can corroborate or contradict that story. But to the right kind of temperament all such drudgery

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counts for nothing, because at the top of every tenement, behind every closed door at which you knock, waits a surprise.528

In these essays Meloy chronicled a few of the various people who had surprised—and inspired—her. There was the impoverished janitor who barely had enough money to purchase food for her own family, yet shared what she had with a neighbor who was about to be evicted. There was the newborn baby, abandoned on a threshold, who was adopted into a loving family, a “trouble baby” becoming a “joy baby.” There was the little girl named Harriet, living in a crowded tenement, whose spirit nonetheless shined with purity and hopefulness. There was the widow who scrubbed floors for two long shifts each day, who had dignity and pride that through her hard work she could provide for her children. If one consciously looks for the beauty in all people, Meloy explained, one will find it.

If you will walk through a slum district some day in the spring you may see a geranium blooming in a tin can on a window-sill high above the street. When I see such a flower I am reminded of the courage of the scrub-woman, of the loveliness of Harriet.529

It was the adventure of social work that fascinated Meloy. And it was this sense of adventure that—throughout her twenty-six years as the head of the department—she passed along to her students.

To me . . . social service was an adventure to which it was my pleasure to introduce college students. I have always regarded coming in contact with the lives of others as a means of escape from the dullness and limitations of a personal working life. When, in the character of a social service visitor, I knock at a door, there is always something on

the other side which I do not expect. I may be greeted with a touch of sympathy which is like a romance. It may be a mystery which carries the challenge of an unsolved problem. It may be a glimpse of the beauty of human nature from an angle where I have never stood before. Whatever the experience may be, it is new and it is my own. This adventure I have delighted to share with many college girls.\textsuperscript{530}

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As the PCW community looked back from the vantage point of 1922, they saw how far the social service program had come. The level of growth over the previous fourteen years, from its pioneer days up to its current strength, was nothing less than remarkable. It was an extraordinary accomplishment. The college had a strong sense of pride in what had been achieved and a sure spirit of optimism for the program’s next stage.

Your college has been a pioneer in social service. Many of you remember that this was true in 1908, and later. We had no patterns to copy or adopt of social service courses as they were given in other colleges. . . . We had to be inventors of ways to teach social service in college. What I would tell you is that in 1922, no less than in 1908, we are doing a new thing. In the old days, our department existed as a mere fringe upon the edge of traditional college practice. The new thing is that today the best of what we have learned about social service circulates through the heart of the college curriculum. We

have not copied from any other college either our principles or our methods. Here again, we have been inventors.\textsuperscript{531}

CHAPTER 5

THE ACHIEVEMENT OF SOCIAL SERVICE STUDENTS AND ALUMNAE

The Pennsylvania College for Women was rightly proud of its social service program. Since its inception in 1908, it had come a very long way—in terms of growth and influence—in a relatively short period of time. It had benefitted from the dedication of the faculty, especially the director and the dean, and had enjoyed the support of the president, alumnae, and the local charitable community at large. And from the start, the program had captured the enthusiasm and elicited the hard work of the students.

We might also wonder about the performance of the program. How well did it do? Was it meeting its desired objectives? What were its students learning in their classes? How were they faring after graduation? Did the program prepare them well for their future endeavors, and were they becoming productive and useful members of society? Such questions, regrettably, are not fully possible to answer with the types of materials that have been preserved. They do not allow us to evaluate the program in any comprehensive manner—if, and in what ways, it was doing well or poorly; where it was missing, and where meeting, the mark. We simply do not have that information. Yet some of the material available does allow us to examine and see, with a certain level of detail, how successful the program was. We can, therefore, trace out some of the markers of achievement for the students, while they were in the program and after they graduated, and correspondingly of the program itself.
The faculty had always tried to promote a continuity between what was done in the course and what the students would do after graduation. Likewise, they had tried to instill the idea in the students’ minds that the study of social service could take them anywhere and be useful in a wide variety of future endeavors. The world, as Meloy would tell them, is indeed “one big social workshop.” The activities in the classes were intentionally conceived to prepare students for their endeavors after leaving PCW. Meloy provided an example of one of the social service students as she was engaged in her fieldwork project.

As I was coming home yesterday with one of the girls whom I had accompanied on her “Stamp Route” I thought that this girl might never become a so-called “Social Worker,” she might never mend many broken homes by this kind of visiting, but if she should become a teacher she would surely, because of this experience with life, put more enthusiasm into the teacher’s work of building character in children. For she knows now exactly what that poverty and misery are which the teacher should work to prevent by education.

She continued on to explain how such a student would meet the expectations for the course.

We are very proud of those of our certificate girls who are in professional social work—they are proof of my statement that the course is bearing fruit—but we have done much more than to put about one-third of our Social Service graduates into positions. The others have gone into other work or into their homes with broadened sympathies and a knowledge of social conditions drawn from experience.532

In other words, one measure of the success of the program was how many of its graduates continued on to become professional social workers. But a broader, and ultimately more

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532 Meloy, “The Social Service Department,” *The Sorosis*, April 1914, 3-5, here 4-5.
accurate, measure of its success was how its graduates used the knowledge and sympathtics they had gained during their college years to benefit whatever walk of life they ultimately chose.

Student Learning

The first issue to be examined is that of student achievement. Already considered have been some of the types of activities in which the social service students were engaged, especially with their site visits and their fieldwork projects (chapter 4). The task here is to get a sense of how these students engaged their coursework and what understanding they derived from it.

One possible way to approach such concerns is through student writings. Over these years six essays on social service topics were published in the student literary journal. These essays provide a sense not only of what aspects of social work appealed to the students but also how they approached that work. All six of these essays were written by baccalaureate students who earned social service certificates. We cannot know with certainty whether they represent the fieldwork projects required in the second year (or optional third year) of the social service classes. Nor can we know the relationship these writings may have had to the thesis required for the certificate (in their current form, a couple of them would certainly have been too short for such an assignment). Yet it is quite likely that at least some of these writings do reflect topics the students chose to do
for their final-year fieldwork projects and are close in form to what they might have submitted for their theses. The published essays are:

“The Conditions and Needs of Ambridge, Pa., with Reference to Social Service” (Grace M. Wilson ’13) Wilson described the situation then facing Ambridge, a small manufacturing town about twenty miles northwest of Pittsburgh that had experienced a recent influx of immigrants, and argued for the need of a settlement house there to assist in relief work.

“Vocation Bureaus for Educated Women” (Alice M. Greer ’16) Greer explored the recent movement to establish vocational bureaus in various cities, including why they were necessary for the current generation of women and the methods by which they helped women secure employment.

“Investigation” (Seba South ’16) South presented the policies and methods properly used to investigate a family’s request for charitable assistance, including how to incorporate the cooperation of all pertinent agencies and the most promising ways first to elicit factual information from individuals and then to assess it accurately.

“How the Teaching of Biology Can Fulfill the Function of the Modern High School” (Grace Woodrow ’16) Woodrow considered the curriculum of the public high schools, arguing for the importance of incorporating human biology, how it can teach social responsibility, the best methods to use, and what issues of a sexual nature should and should not be included.
“Americanizing the Alien through Education” (Martha J. Crandall ’17)

Crandall addressed the concerns of teaching the adult immigrant population, including an evaluation of some of the most and least beneficial pedagogical methods commonly used, an argument for the importance of having an introduction to civics and social customs, and suggestions for how to ease the difficulties of adjustment for recent immigrants.

“A Story of a Girls’ Reformatory” (Elinor Newell ’20)  Newell described the practices and organizational structure in place at a local reform facility for young women, including the benefits of the type of education employed, of the farm work, of the citizen-government system, and of the other activities for the improvement of the students’ character and social behavior.

A method by which to assess this student work is through a comparison to the program’s objectives. These objectives, as observed earlier (chapter 3), are nowhere stated in a discrete listing, but rather they are culled from writings by the faculty. Nor do they all suit well the content and purposes of these published student essays; thus it is not appropriate to expect that all the objectives will be demonstrated in these six essays. Yet approaching the essays with an eye on the objectives does provide a sense of student learning and achievement in the course.

533 Analyze real-life social conditions; Form intelligent opinions about public questions; Gain experience in dealing with human nature; Develop initiative and perseverance; Be able to work with people from all walks of life; Develop organizational and leadership skills; Understand the principles underlying government; Gain familiarity with the city and its philanthropic agencies; Understand the political, economic, and natural topics of the day; Understand oneself as a social being and all that entails, and how to relate to other social beings, who all together make up society.

274
All of these students met the objective of becoming familiar with the city and its philanthropic agencies. The primary topics of their work were the local agencies themselves, and the students all demonstrated good basic understanding of the agency they described. There are, however, two further directions that this knowledge took. First, some of the students became knowledgeable about not only Pittsburgh organizations but also those in other cities, e.g., how adult education in English was carried out by agencies in Rochester, Detroit, and Cleveland (Crandall); and the varying ways of running a vocational bureau in New York, Boston, and Philadelphia (Greer). Second, some students learned first-hand how the various charitable agencies often
needed to share information and work together to fully treat social problems. South considered how, in the past, “one agency would not give definite or useful information to another, and it was difficult to find out just exactly what agencies knew about the case. In a single family there are many needs, and one agency cannot take care of them all, and so there are the different sorts of places for different kinds of relief.”\textsuperscript{534} With more modern investigative methods, she discovered, most all the charitable organizations had now implemented procedures by which information could more readily be shared. Crandall also learned about the necessity of agencies’ cooperation:

\begin{quote}
In the work of Americanization, so long neglected, now so urgent, many functions of government and society are concerned, such as our employment systems, our courts, and our social protective organizations. But all of these must co-operate with our public school system if the best results are to be obtained; for the Americanization of our foreign-born workmen is too vast a project for one force alone. The swiftest hope of America lies in the active practical co-operation of all agencies.\textsuperscript{535}
\end{quote}

Although such expertise is difficult to show in a written document, some of these six students were able to demonstrate that they achieved the objective of improving their organizational and leadership skills through their projects. Greer imagined the job of manager from the inside, how such a person needed skills of judiciousness in addition to knowledge of the employment market:

\begin{quote}
Women who are strong and willing to work are always needed, but when special training is accompanied by tact and forcefulness, large opportunities are opened and success assured. Therefore, it is often a part of the daily duty of the manager of a collegiate vocational bureau
\end{quote}

to point out to women who come for advice not only where they can get the special training required, but also to suggest the commercial value of self-reliance and pleasing manner.\textsuperscript{536}

South’s essay on how social service investigations were carried out emphasized the organizational structure of the enterprise, with all persons performing their proper roles to make it run efficiently. And Wilson, especially, showed how deliberately and thoroughly she had thought through how a settlement house should be operated:

> It means very serious and careful thought to organize a Settlement House, for there are many things connected with it which are not often thought of at the beginning. The beginning should be small, but the progress constant. Many of the problems should be at least thought out early. . . . All good things take time and often those that are done slowly amount to more in the end. Ambridge is ready for a Settlement House, but whether or not it will be established depends upon the interest and careful consideration of it by the people of means, intellect and fellowship who live therein or nearby.\textsuperscript{537}

Most of the students met well the objective of being able to work with people from all walks of life. South filled her essay with examples and little stories about the wide range of types of persons—differing ages, backgrounds, intellectual abilities, moral character, etcetera—whom she had to navigate to create accurate case records. Newell recognized that the different personalities and ethnic backgrounds of the individuals in the reform facility required different methods of instruction, just as Woodrow found rural versus urban backgrounds also to require different teaching methods. Wilson discovered that there were persons of at least sixteen different nationalities in the town of Ambridge,

\textsuperscript{536} Alice M. Greer, “Vocation Bureaus for Educated Women,” \textit{The Sorosis}, January 1916, 25-33, here 33.

many who did not speak English, for whom neighborhood visiting was needed; and Crandall likewise encountered differences along ethnic lines. She argued that “We are beginning to realize that peoples living side by side do not necessarily constitute the nation and that quite as important as our economic and industrial problems, is the problem of creating one nation out of many peoples.”

These students showed that they met the objective of gaining experience in dealing with human nature. Woodrow came to recognize that high school students needed a gradual exposure to the concepts of human biology, so as not to be shocked, and Crandall learned how best to encourage immigrants who were overwhelmed by all the strangeness of a new society and culture. Wilson experienced how human needs were common across all peoples:

> What is most needed, in my opinion, in this community, is a Settlement or Neighborhood House, around which the lives of these people can center without regard to nationality, religion, creed or sex. Here the people could bring their joys and sorrows and not only find someone to sympathize and rejoice with them, but also find understanding and a desire to aid them and interpret their needs.

South, however, learned that human nature can also be fickle; sometimes it is the nature of people to be deceptive, and other times people do not fully understand their own needs:

> The causes for which an applicant comes for help are varied, and it is the business of the worker to get at the basis of the cause and to find out just what is the best thing to be done in the case. Inefficiency, ill-

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health, waywardness, unemployment, unstable character, evils of bad housing, ignorance and immorality are all well-known causes. But they have such a way of intertwining themselves that it is difficult to get at the true cause. The applicant must be understood, for he may not really represent his greatest need. It may be the most urgent thing in the world, it may be what he thinks he can get or it may be what he thinks he wants. And these supposed causes require investigation.540

The students also met well the objectives of analyzing real-life social conditions and of understanding how all social beings are in relationship and together constitute society. They all depict an awareness of social conditions, seen through the particularities of their different projects. Wilson’s concern was with how the inhabitants of a town, both long-term and recent residents, can come together across their differences and form a social network that benefits everyone. Crandall, somewhat similarly, gained an appreciation of how to integrate individuals: “Teaching the adult immigrant is a very different problem from teaching the child immigrant. It is not only a question of providing courses in English and kindred subjects, but rather giving the immigrant the kind of instruction which will help him become adjusted to his surroundings as rapidly as possible.”541 Newell became familiar with the social conditions of troubled young women: “The whole plan of the school is to afford an opportunity for the delinquent girl to stop and think, for her to get away from the suggestive, complex city life to the simpler, open country where her body may be built up in health and strength by farmwork, and where a social type of mind may be produced through a system of

541 Martha J. Crandall, “Americanizing the Alien through Education,” The Sorosis, October 1917, 3-17, here 7.
individual and group responsibility.”\textsuperscript{542} And Woodrow emphasized how individuals are interdependent: “The whole function of the modern high school may be summed up in the expression ‘social efficiency,’ two words that are decidedly overworked in this day, but which seem to express just what is needed in this case. No one has ever lived entirely to himself. This is especially true today in the complex structure that our modern city and industrial life has brought about.”\textsuperscript{543}

In all, the particularities of these six student essays are less important than the overall impression they provide. From the topics they chose and the language they used, quoted generously to allow the student voice to come through, it is apparent that PCW’s social service students were an impressive group. The students clearly became knowledgeable and articulate, able to think rationally and express themselves coherently. They approached their fieldwork projects with enthusiasm and intelligence, and their sympathetic spirits did not prevent critical assessment at the same time. Perhaps we can credit Seba South for best expressing what she and her fellow students all experienced and learned during the course: “Our experience has taught us that this work is very helpful to the needy and creates an interest in the worker to get out and do things for others. We really see how the ‘other half’ lives, and we are anxious to help lift the burden from their shoulders as best we can.”\textsuperscript{544}


280
Certificate and Graduation Rates

A significant factor in any given academic program is the number of students it graduates. As previously noted, it is impossible from the materials preserved to know how many students enrolled in the social service and sociology classes. But we do have information on the students who graduated and who earned certificates. Listings of the names of the graduates for each class were printed in most of the college catalogues from these years, in addition to being included in the minutes of Board meetings each spring. The first social service certificates were awarded in 1912; thus, this analysis will include data for eleven years, from 1912 through 1922.

There were two types of students who earned certificates: those who were in the full baccalaureate program and also earned the Bachelor of Arts degree in the same year as they were awarded the certificate; and those who were nonbaccalaureate students, or special students, and earned just the certificate. Therefore, the number of social certificates awarded in any given year is important, but also important is the proportion of these certificates earned by baccalaureate students to those earned by nonbaccalaureate students.
The total number of social service certificates awarded range from a high of eleven, in 1919, to a low of four, in 1921. The years 1913, 1914, and 1916, with nine and ten students, likewise had large classes of certificate students. What is also noteworthy is the substantial variance in the proportion of special students to baccalaureate students. For instance, the 1912 class, the 1916, and the 1922 class had no special students at all, and the 1913, 1920, and 1921 classes had only a single special student. On the other end of the spectrum, in 1915 the certificate class was composed of all special, nonbaccalaureate students except for a single baccalaureate student, and in 1918 there were only two baccalaureate students who earned certificates, in comparison to six special students. Over the course of these eleven years, twenty-nine percent of the students were special, nonbaccalaureate students (twenty-four, out of a total of eighty-two). What we see in
these figures is the wide variation we might expect from a small sample, that is, the relatively few total PCW students. But these variations also must have led to difficulties for the department in planning and implementation, especially as the faculty discovered that special students required more attention, in general, than the regular baccalaureate students.

The college, during these years, awarded three types of special certificates: music, expression, and social service. (In 1917 the department of expression was renamed as the department of spoken English.) A comparison of how many of these certificates were awarded in each given year provides a useful perspective.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Social Service Certificates</th>
<th>Music Certificates</th>
<th>Expression / Spoken English Certificates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1912</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1914</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1915</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1916</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1917</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1918</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1919</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1922</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Throughout this time the fewest certificates overall were earned in expression/spoken English, with many years having no students at all. More students earned certificates in music. But by far the most certificates earned were in social service. The largest group of music certificates awarded (four, in 1916 and 1921) equals the smallest group of social service certificates (in 1921 also). We cannot say, however, that the size of the social service department was that degree larger than either of the other two departments, as many students came to the college just to take weekly lessons in music or expression and were not the type of student to have interest in enrolling in all the classes required to earn a certificate. Yet the differential remains striking, especially with regard to the relative newness of the social service program compared to the long-established music program.

A further issue concerns the proportion of certificate students to the class at large, that is, out of each year’s total class, how many of the graduating seniors were also social service certificate students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Graduates</th>
<th>Baccalaureate Certificates</th>
<th>Percentage of Graduates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1912</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1914</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1915</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1916</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1917</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1918</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1919</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1922</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Just the figures for the baccalaureate certificate students are important here. Again, we find significant variations from year to year. What is noteworthy, however, is to see those classes that had a relatively large proportion of social service students. In 1913 and 1914 a full forty and forty-one percent, respectively, of the entire class were earning social service certificates. Such a large proportion surely affected the character of the class as a whole. Other years enjoyed more modest percentages, with a low of only eight percent in 1918 (which, coincidentally, was the year with the highest number of nonbaccalaureate certificate students). Seeing such large figures, it therefore should not be surprising that the social service program became so central, so relatively quickly, to the college at large.

Alumnae Activities

For the final three years of his presidency, each autumn Lindsay prepared a count of the types of pursuits undertaken by the graduates of that previous June. Out of seventeen graduates in 1911, nine had found positions either as teachers or social service workers. “Most of these have very good positions—one is principal of an academy in North Carolina where she is in charge of other teachers and has the entire discipline of the school.”\(^\text{545}\) (This graduate was also a student in the social service course.) In 1912, out of a graduating class of twenty-one, he reported that “all who desired positions either

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\(^{545}\) President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 20, 1911. That student was Rachel McQuiston.
in teaching, library work or social service were able to secure them, and some of them exceptionally good positions.” Ten of these graduates went on to paid positions and three went on to further education. Five became high school teachers, another one of whom was a principal “of a High School in the West with several teachers under her and a good salary.” There was one graduate each in professional library work and social work. “All report themselves delighted with the positions they have secured.” And in 1913 Lindsay prepared a count of all the graduates over the previous six years since he had become president, which totaled seventy-nine. “Of this number 40 are now teaching, 5 are married who were teachers, 5 are engaged in Social Service work in a professional way, 3 are in library work, making a total of 53 who are workers. A number of the others have married and,” he added, perhaps with a smile, “I presume are workers too.”

This listing represents the only calculation of the activities of PCW graduates during the time period of this study, at least that has been preserved. A few items are noteworthy. First is the unmistakable sense of pride both in the accomplishments of the students and in how a PCW degree was valued by employers. PCW graduates would not only be able find paid employment if they wanted it; they could further expect to be competitive to land good jobs. Second is the prominence of teaching as a career, a situation also evident in how many alumnae report teaching, usually high school, as their occupation in the annual alumnae journal. And third is how marriage prevented or interrupted the careers of PCW graduates, a situation also seen in the self-reporting in the journal.

546 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 18, 1912.
547 President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, October 17, 1913.
Proficiency of Graduates

Such information is useful in providing a sense of the future activities of PCW graduates in general, at least for those few years. For the purpose of this study, of course, we are interested more particularly in what transpired for those students who completed the social service course. A first question is how many ultimately did choose to enter professional social work after graduation. By April 1914—that is, through the class of 1913—it was reported that seven students had secured professional social work jobs. Other students were offered positions, but they were for some reason unable to accept them.\textsuperscript{548} From 1914 through the next five years, it was said that roughly one-third of graduates of the social work program were holding professional, paid positions at any given time, and that many more performed volunteer service.\textsuperscript{549}

A second question is how well these students performed in their new positions. A few anecdotal mentions provide the sense that at least some of the PCW social service students became successful in their new careers and that their expertise was recognized and appreciated. At one point Coolidge reported how one of the 1912 graduates applied that autumn to begin a course at “one of our best-known schools of philanthropy.” The school officials examined her work and determined that she had already made fully

\textsuperscript{548} President’s Report to the Board of Trustees, April 17, 1914. This information is also included in Coolidge, “Letter from Miss Coolidge,” \textit{Alumnae Recorder}, 1914, 18-20.

\textsuperscript{549} Meloy, “The Social Service Department,” \textit{The Sorosis}, April 1914, 3-5; \textit{The Pennsylvanian}, 1915, 87; \textit{The Pennsylvanian}, 1919–1920, 72-73. The language in the 1919–1920 yearbook, however, so closely matches that of the 1915 yearbook that we can wonder if this percentage reflects a new calculation or was simply copied from the earlier year’s yearbook entry on the social service department.
sufficient preparation for a professional position, and she was immediately offered one.⁵⁵⁰

A comparison with information elsewhere suggests that this student was most likely
Cosette Spence, who first worked for the Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children in
Philadelphia and later became a superintendent of a district of the Juvenile Court, also in
Philadelphia, where she was noted to be a “high salaried worker.”⁵⁵¹ The school that
deemed her too advanced for their program, therefore, would most likely have been the
Pennsylvania Training School for Social Workers. Furthermore, a 1913 graduate became
an assistant in a social settlement; after only her first year in the position, she was chosen
as the headworker in charge of establishing a new settlement.⁵⁵² Nor was it only students
taking paid positions who excelled in their endeavors thanks to the course. Coolidge
related an encounter she experienced regarding one of the social work students who
performed volunteer service after graduation:

More interesting still is the training of efficient volunteer workers. I
am always glad to hear of our graduates who take up some form of this
work because of the interest aroused by this course. Not long ago I
was at a dinner of social workers and overheard the new extension
secretary of the Pittsburgh Young Women’s Christian Association
saying, “I have sixty-four volunteer workers, but the most efficient one
is Miss ———,” naming a former student in this course from a
wealthy home.⁵⁵³

⁵⁵¹ “Social Service Alumnae,” The Sorosis, April 1914, 16-17; “Social Service
⁵⁵² The Pennsylvanian, 1915, 87. Two students from the class of 1913 were involved
with settlements, Christine Cameron and Grace Wilson. They lived in the settlement
homes as resident workers, at Woods Run Settlement House and Kingsley House,
respectively (Alumnae Recorder, 1914, 53-54).
In terms of these statistics and anecdotes, a dilemma arises about who counted as a graduate of the social service program. We might expect that it would have been only those students who had officially completed a certificate. The program began in academic year 1908–1909, but the first certificates were not awarded until 1912. In two lists of the activities of “social service alumnae,” however, individuals from the classes of 1910 and 1911 were also included: two students from 1910 (one of these a nonbaccalaureate, or special, student) and five students from 1911. All three of those students who took the initial year of the course in 1908 were among them. Moreover, of these seven women, only one appears not to have chosen to undertake professional or volunteer work after graduation. The others were active in responsible positions, and two of them (Clarissa Blakeslee and Rosalie Supplee) went on to experience distinguished service careers in high-ranking positions across the country and around the globe.

In that an option for a certificate was available from the very beginning of the course, it remains unclear why all these students were not awarded certificates. What is clear, nonetheless, is that the college considered them full-fledged graduates of the social service course. In 1918 Supplee was even elected to be the first president of the Cora Helen Coolidge Club—which required that its members be “graduates of the Social Service Department.” These seven graduates were not included in the calculations of the previous section, which were limited strictly to official certificates awarded. Here,

however, because the college clearly recognized them as established graduates of the
social service course, their post-graduation activities will be included in the assessments.

Occupations of Graduates

In an attempt to gain greater precision into what PCW social service students did
after they completed college, we can assess the information available. Because of the
limited nature of the material, however, this investigation will necessarily be able to yield
only a snapshot of their future endeavors. Students’ post-graduation activity was
reported in four places. The primary location is the alumnae journal, the *Alumnae
Recorder*, which was published annually before 1926 and quarterly thereafter. Every
year, each alumna would be requested to submit information about her current situation
and life experiences, to be published in the journal. Each class had a class secretary, who
would compile what information her classmates had indicated, in some cases along with
what she was able to learn of their activities through her own efforts. In addition, the two
issues of the student literary journal, *The Sorosis*, that had a social service theme (from
1914 and 1917) included a listing of where some of the graduates had been involved.
Also, in the other monthly issues, very occasionally would the work experiences of
graduates be included with other information about the department. And for three
consecutive years (1922, 1923, and 1924) an “honor roll,” a short list of PCW alumnae
who held prominent positions in any field, was included in the *Alumnae Recorder.*
During this time, unless a woman was exceptionally noteworthy in her profession, she
would not be mentioned in the local press. Thus, the college publications remain our sole source of information on these alumnae.

This information on graduates is, regrettably, not as complete as would be ideal for such an assessment. First, not every alumna reported her information; some simply did not respond to requests, and some did not respond every year. Second, the availability of information is also dependent on how faithfully the class secretary carried out her assignment. In some of the journals there is simply no report at all from certain class years, leaving us no information about any of the graduates from that class. And third, what was published is not necessarily as accurate and detailed as what the alumna may have submitted about her occupation (which may have included a title and some greater description of her work). The class secretary wove a narrative about what her class was doing rather than strictly recording the activity of each individual. In many instances the organization with which a graduate was connected would be identified, but not exactly what she did there; in other cases, the class report would include only vague statements that she was “involved in social work” or the like.

Another area of limitation concerns the special students who earned a social service certificate but were not in the baccalaureate program. Not belonging to a class, these students were not included in the class reports in the *Alumnae Recorder*. The Alumnae Association had a category of associate membership, which was open to any student who had completed at least a year of regular college work or who had earned a certificate in music, expression, or social service. But, presumably feeling less connected to the college than the regular students, relatively few former nonbaccalaureate students
opted for associate membership. Some of the special certificate students were included in the 1914 and 1917 lists and department reports in *The Sorosis*, however, allowing us limited information about their post-PCW work activity. But for most of the special, nonbaccalaureate students, we are left with little to no information about how they used the knowledge they gained from their certificate program.

*Types of Pursuits.* The available information from these three types of sources was compiled for each of the eighty-nine graduates of PCW’s social service course from its beginning in 1908 through 1922, the end point of this study. (See the full list in the appendix.) The temporal range of consideration was ten years past graduation date. A decade would seem to be sufficient time for a graduate to become reasonably established in a career, if she so chose. This amount of time also allows us to see how she progressed professionally, or if she changed jobs or even her occupation over the years.

A close look at what was recorded about the activities of the alumnae yields certain general impressions. It appears that PCW social service graduates were able to readily find employment if they wished to have it, and to have their choice of jobs. Those who seem to have been the most ambitious were quite active, moving from job to job and holding several positions over the decade. It is also noteworthy how many alumnae, whether they entered careers in social work or in other vocations, held jobs outside of western Pennsylvania and moved around the country between jobs. Somehow these women were able to make national, and even international, connections. Those alumnae who were the most active during these early years of their career tended to
continue to be throughout the latter decades as well, moving on to positions of more and more authority. Some would write essays for later editions of the *Alumnae Recorder* about their professions and their experiences.

For those women who chose to marry, a few indicated holding a professional position after the marriage, but that was rare. Even those graduates who had been involved in volunteer activities generally did not report such work after a marriage. After a wedding was announced, children seemed to come quickly and frequently. It is quite likely that these women, caring for young children and maintaining a home, did not have the time to take on volunteer service work. Looking at their information for only ten years after graduation may be a limitation in this sense, in that these alumnae might well have engaged again in service activities after their children were grown and they were no longer burdened by childrearing duties. Students who did not enter a profession after graduation and returned to live with their parents were often described as “at home.” A rather surprising number of these young alumnae indicated that they were caring for ailing parents.

Another somewhat surprising discovery from the reports in the alumnae journal and the honor roll lists is that there were some PCW alumnae doing professional social work who had not been certificate students. These graduates may well have shown an interest in the field during their college years and been among the many students who took some of the social service and economics classes, yet chose not to complete all the requirements for a certificate. Or they may have developed this professional interest after leaving college. This situation may reveal two aspects of the contemporaneous labor
market—that social work positions were open to women without the credentials and experience of social work training (from PCW or a specialized training school), and that there was a strong workforce need for college-educated women to fill social service positions.

From its very earliest promotional material, the college had positioned the social service course as useful toward a wide variety of interests and pursuits. The 1912–1913 college catalogue (as observed in chapter 4) articulated this sentiment in greater detail, describing three categories of women who would be well served by the content of the program:

The aim of the social service course is to give special education to three classes of workers: first, those who would enter paid work; second, those who would give intelligent service as volunteers; third, those who seek to learn, from the lessons of past experience and from thoughtful practice, the best methods for use in the social activities of home and church.

Ten years later Meloy also spoke of intentionally structuring the program to serve three categories of women:

In planning our courses we have had in mind three classes of students: (1) those who marry, that they may extend the influence of the home wisely for the benefit of the community; (2) those who teach, or enter other professions or business, that no matter by what name their work may be called, it may be in reality “social service”; (3) those who become professional social workers, that they may have the best possible collegiate education in social science before beginning their professional work.\

Though both three in number, these categories line up differently, in that the later list explicitly included women who planned to be teachers. Such a shift is not unexpected, as over the years, in the faculty writings, the teaching profession was more and more frequently linked with social science and sociology. It was argued that having some background in social science would be of great benefit to schoolteachers, for two primary reasons. It would help teachers to comprehend the many different cultural and economic backgrounds from which their students came, and the experience of visiting households in the community would allow them to bring to their teaching a first-hand understanding of the children’s home life. Also, social service education would further help teachers to appreciate the long fingers of poverty, and how educating the young was the most effective way to lift up the next generation out of impoverishment.

Incorporating the categories outlined in both of these listings, this assessment will utilize four categories in classifying the types of activities undertaken by PCW social service alumnae: (1) those who were engaged in professional social service work; (2) those who were engaged in volunteer social service work; (3) those who were engaged in teaching or another profession; (4) those who were homemakers. Because there is little to no information available for most of the twenty-five special students, the counts include only the sixty-four baccalaureate graduates of the social service program.
1. Professional social service work 29 (10 career women)
2. Volunteer social service work 6
3. Teaching or other profession 22 (5 career women)
4. Homemaking 7

Alumnae are placed in category 1 if they engaged in paid, professional social service work—either full time or part time—at any point during their first ten years out of college. Many did not do so for the entire ten-year span. What constituted social service activity for both the paid and the volunteer categories is broadly determined, to reflect the wide range of interests and objectives incorporated into the social service course itself. In the complete list, these different categories of activity are indicated with either a “p,” for professional, paid work, or a “v,” for volunteer work (see the appendix). For many of the activities noted in the Alumnae Recorder, it is clear that they were professional positions; for many others, it is clear that they were unpaid, volunteer positions. But there is a level of uncertainty for many others. In particular instances the context within the class report is a help in classification, in that the class secretary would sometimes describe the activities of the career women together (thus, professional) and the activities of the women who were “at home” together (thus, volunteer). Yet the classifications between professional and volunteer must remain a best guess in many instances due to the imprecision in the information available.

If an alumna was a teacher who indicated that she also was active in service volunteer work of any type, she is placed in the teaching category, in that her primary
vocation was teaching. For this generation of college women, it was common to teach high school or grammar school for a few years out of college prior to marrying, and this tendency is seen among PCW alumnae as well. In the homemaking category are placed those alumnae who reported only marriage and children. It is important to recognize that this classification does not conclusively signify that these women did not engage in any activities outside the home—in their church, in club work, for the Alumnae Association, or the like—merely that they did not report any for the Alumnae Recorder. In that their children were clearly the primary delight of many of these young alumnae, it is understandable that they might feature births and early childhood milestones more readily than any volunteer work they may also have been doing at the time.

What becomes clear from these calculations is how many PCW social service students entered a vocation during their first decade, at least for a short while. The vast majority of social service graduates held paid positions either in social service work or in teaching—fifty-one, out of a total of sixty-four, or eighty percent. Their college educations clearly prepared them well for the workforce, and the invited speakers on vocations that were occurring more and more frequently at PCW during this time seemingly gave young women useful guidance on how they might use their education professionally in the world. Moreover, of these fifty-one professional alumnae, fifteen can be categorized as “career women.” They would be the social service alumnae who did not marry during the ten years’ time and who reported that they were working
through at least most of that period. Ten of these career women were in social service professions, and five of them were teaching at the high school or college level.\footnote{The social service career women included Clarissa Blakeslee ’11, Rosalie Supplee ’11, Mary Gray ’12, Cosette Spence ’12, Jeanne Gray ’13, Grace Wilson ’13, Alice Laidlaw ’16, Grace Woodrow ’16, Leah Claster ’17, Elinor Newell ’20. The teacher career women included Helen Grooms ’12, Louise Fletcher ’13, Pauline Burt ’14, Frances Boale ’16, Kate MacKenzie ’17.}

*Professional Social Workers.* In the post-graduation activities of the alumnae who held professional positions, we find a wide range of interests. PCW social service graduates found a multitude of avenues by which to use the knowledge and experience they had gained through completing their certificates. Some of their work was in the more traditional areas of charity work that had been developed in the late 1880s and 1890s. And some alumnae found work instead in emerging fields that were lately incorporating the new disciplines of sociology and other social sciences.

Settlement work, along with other work that was directly related to industrialization and immigration, remained popular. PCW social service alumnae became affiliated with settlement houses in the greater Pittsburgh area, but also further afield in New York City, Philadelphia, and Boston. Alumnae served as visitors, caseworkers, surveyors, and investigators for various organizations, often coordinated through the Associated Charities. They investigated neighborhood and family situations, as well as assessing the conditions for factory workers. A few alumnae worked in a visitor capacity with the social service ministries of local churches and other religious
organizations. Positions with the juvenile courts in Allegheny County and elsewhere, another established area of social service by that time, were also held by a few graduates.

Social workers were increasingly integrating the areas of employment and health care, and PCW graduates became active in these newer fields as well. As hospitals added social service departments to their administrations, PCW alumnae were among their ranks, in hospitals throughout Pittsburgh and in other cities. Among the alumnae were a visiting nurse and a specialist in psychiatric social work. And one alumna chose to go into physical education. With regard to the field of employment, social service graduates were involved with the vocational bureaus of charitable organizations. But several were also employed by private companies, to help serve the human resource needs of these businesses. Several department stores and even an electric company hired PCW social service workers for their employment departments. Two other alumnae found work as an insurance counselor and a traveler’s counselor.

Two organizations were represented prominently among alumnae activities during these years—the YWCA and the Red Cross. PCW graduates had responsibilities in some of the YWCA’s many endeavors, including Camp Fire Girls, high school girls clubs, employment assistance, and programs for women in industry. And they were involved with numerous branches of the YWCA, including those in Pittsburgh, McKeesport, Wilkinsburg, Erie, and Washington, D.C., along with the central YWCA. The war especially brought a great need for women’s talents in the Red Cross, both in the United States and abroad. PCW social service alumnae held positions responsible for providing
assistance to refugees, veterans, and home communities affected by the devastations of the war.

Within all these fields and all these organizations, many of the alumnae were especially drawn to work that involved the needs of children. They taught classes and led clubs for children and adolescents. They worked with playground associations and other recreation projects. They served in the Girl Scouts organization and in the Children’s Aid Society. They were children’s librarians; they worked in the court system to find children temporary foster homes when needed; they undertook surveys on behalf of children with disabilities. It seems that most every branch of social work included divisions that focused particularly on children.

To give a fuller picture of what some of the alumnae were doing, the following are examples of a few of the more accomplished women. The activities of two of them were fortunately described in a little greater detail in the college materials than others, providing a more immediate impression at their work and abilities.

**Grace Wilson ’13**  Wilson began her career in settlement work as a social worker, later promoted subsequently to be a manager, of three area settlement houses (the Kingsley House, the Lillian House, and the settlement in Ambridge). She shifted focus to vocational concerns, becoming the employment secretary in the Employment Bureau of the Central YWCA, and during the war she was engaged in social work overseas.

**Alice Laidlaw ’16**  Laidlaw was first employed in the advertising department of the McCreery’s department store in downtown Pittsburgh. She subsequently developed
an interest in YWCA work and held various positions in that organization through the next several years, focusing on women in industry, and she became the General Secretary of the Wilkinsburg branch of the YWCA. Laidlaw also undertook further study at Columbia University.

**Mary Foster ’13** Foster was likewise involved with women in industry, but one of her jobs was to be “embedded,” that is, to work undercover in a factory in order to discover and analyze the conditions for the workers. She could tell her classmates that she was engaged in this work, but she was not allowed to divulge any details about the identity or the whereabouts of the factory. “Miss Foster’s first position in social work was that of Visiting Housekeeper. Recently she has been engaged for an important position in the welfare system of a large manufacturing establishment in a neighboring city. By way of training she is working side by side with the girls in different processes of the industry. The fact that she has been engaged for another kind of work is unknown to the girls who are now her fellow-workers. She has already won high praise—it is said that in her division of the industry she is the best girl at the machine.”558

**Rosalie Supplee ’11** Supplee started her career as a visitor with the Associated Charities and in the placement department of the Juvenile Court, and also did further study at Columbia University. She developed an interest in medical social work, becoming an investigator with the Pittsburgh Maternity Dispensary, then a researcher on children with disabilities for a hospital organization in New York City and a field agent for the Child Welfare Commission of Connecticut in Hartford. Supplee enrolled in the

558 “Social Service Department,” *The Sorosis*, February 1918, 22.

301
new summer course in psychiatric social work at Smith College, which led to a position as a psychiatric social worker at the Marine Hospital.

Jeanne Gray ’13 From the first, Gray entered the specialization of physical education in higher education. After going on for further education in this field, she supervised the physical education department at the New York State College for Teachers and was the gymnastics teacher for a summer program at Cornell University. Gray progressed to become the State Supervisor of Physical Training for Pennsylvania, in Harrisburg, and then back to Cornell University, as the Associate Director and Advisor to Women in the Department of Physical Education.

Clarissa Blakeslee ’11 Blakeslee began her career in the social service department of the University Hospital in Philadelphia and undertook further study at the University of Pennsylvania. She was also involved with children’s work through the Associated Charities there, before she took on international assignments with the Red Cross. Blakeslee was “in Berlin when war was declared in 1914, and in Paris when the armistice was signed. Besides her work in Macedonia and Constantinople, also did Red Cross work among the refugee children in France. While in Macedonia, contracted typhus and when convalescent was ordered home. Refused to go and went on to Constantinople where she worked for a year and a half.”

In terms of student learning and future productivity, the social service program exhibited itself to be effective and highly successful. Over the fourteen years of this

study, it could count eighty-nine graduates, plus innumerable more students who had been influenced by taking the department’s classes. The program was allowing young women to gain understanding and professional maturity while students, to explore their interests and develop proficiencies, and then to find their places in the home and in the community after leaving the college. Many of the graduates served the city of Pittsburgh in some capacity or another, and numerous others served in more distant locations. The influence and scope of the young social service program was increasing year by year, as the number of its alumnae out in the field increased, with more and more graduates going more and more places, working in more and more organizations.

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In June 1922, at the annual dinner of the Alumnae Association, the program was devoted to the theme “Echoes from the Social Service Department.” It was highly unusual for the annual dinner speeches to be focused around a particular topic rather than a variety of subjects. Yet at this moment, the officers of the association chose to feature their colleagues who were involved in professional careers in social service. The panel of speeches comprised: “Introductory” by Luella Meloy ’84; “Red Cross” by Rosalie Supplee ’11; “Y.W.C.A.” by Grace Wilson ’13; “Work in the Near East” by Clarissa Blakeslee ’11; “Medical Social Service” by Grace Woodrow ’16; and “Department Store
Social Service” by Elinor Newell ’20. (Blakeslee’s address was read by a classmate, presumably because she was currently at work in the Near East and unable to attend the alumnae events that year.) The panel included an alumna from the very earliest days of the social service program—one of those three original students who had started the course in 1908—all the way up to the present, with an alumna only two years out from her college experience. It also highlighted the breadth of the types of service work in which PCW alumnae were engaged. The evening was an occasion at which the legacy of the social service program shone brilliantly. By chance, after leaving the college five years prior, Coolidge was at this event, having been called back to Pittsburgh in an emergency the previous day. Word had spread that she was agreeing to take up the presidency, causing great joy in the room.560 Surely there was similar joy that the program she had originated had come into maturity, and an appreciable feeling of pride and achievement at the professional accomplishments of its students. Formed by the ethos of “a spirit of service” while in college, the alumnae were now visibly out in the world, personifying that service far and wide.

560 Dysart, *Chatham College*, 161.
CHAPTER 6

EPISODE

In writing history, we dredge the past, searching for what has become submerged. Thus the primary goal of this investigation and the narrative it produced has been recovery. Its purpose has been to recover information about an event that has not previously been familiarized in past scholarship. In such a sense, this research is part of the larger efforts in women’s historiography to study those persons and events that have not been given attention in traditional historical scholarship, which has tended to highlight men’s activity. It involved looking at an activity that has received absolutely no attention in later scholarship (the social service program), occurring at an institution whose history has received almost no attention (the Pennsylvania College for Women), and brought them both to the fore. Its task has been to take what had been invisible to us, in the early twenty-first century, and rendering it newly visible. The concept of reclamation, therefore, lies at the heart of this enterprise, of claiming back to us part of the heritage that had been lost to us.

As observed previously, Linda Eisenmann’s concept of institution building, of women creating and sustaining their own institutions to serve their own needs, is particularly apt (see chapter 1). This concept represents a useful framework for interpreting the establishment and growth of the social service program at PCW. Those persons who founded and administered the early college were engaging in institution
building, to meet the educational needs of nineteenth-century women, and then those persons who founded the social service program entered into another action of institution building, now to meet the changed needs of the current generation of women in the early twentieth century.

The act of reclamation, however, cannot end with this, or any other similar, study. Our ultimate goal must be to determine how the story of this event fits into the story of women’s educational history at large, and then into the story of human educational history. Though undoubtedly interesting and even potentially fascinating, individual phenomena such as a new educational program in the city of Pittsburgh at the beginning of the twentieth century gain full significance only when understood within a broader context. A larger historiography is the end objective.

It begins the task of writing a history of education that includes women’s issues, interests and experiences as part of the whole. One of the ongoing and generally unmet challenges of crafting a history from the perspective of a marginal group—be it women, African-Americans, poor students, teachers, the working class—is to go beyond reclaiming the group’s stories and move toward integrating their perspective into the overall understanding. We know this as historians and try to achieve it in our writing. Yet we often fall back upon the explanation that the “new” history is not yet sufficiently advanced to work its way into our carefully constructed mainstream.\(^{561}\)

In considering how to create a framework for writing a history of women’s education, Eisenmann speaks in terms of building blocks.

Identifying the building blocks is an important initial step. Next may be taking those individual blocks and finding the patterns and

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generalizations that cohere around them. Once the patterns are visible, they can be laid on top of the standard story and compared for places that match and places that do not. In some cases, the women’s pattern may reveal parallel institutions, such as the women’s colleges or coordinate schools that resulted from their being shut out of established settings. At other times, the pattern may precede a development in the mainstream story, such as women’s creation of accrediting and standardizing bodies, a method that would be taken up later by mainstream institutions. Still other patterns may show how women, assigned an issue because of its “feminine” connections, pushed a development that changed the entire history.562

The present study represents one more such building block that has now been identified. We look forward to the day when it, along with countless others, are fit into a larger whole that broadens our understanding of women’s participation in the history of higher education.

The establishment of the social service program at PCW has the potential for appreciable significance for this broader historiography, as it aligns with all three of the prospective patterns Eisenmann suggests. PCW fits the pattern of a parallel institution, created when women were shut out of male-exclusive settings and providing collegiate education to women for over three decades before coeducation became available in its geographical region. Its social service program, along with those other early social work programs at women’s colleges, precede the entrance of social work and sociology into the curricula at men’s colleges and coeducational universities, thus reflecting the pattern of women’s activities blazing the path for a subsequent development in the mainstream story. And the growth and professionalization of social work in general falls into the

pattern of women taking a perceived “feminine” activity of caretaking and building it into a legitimate public vocation.

It is my hope that the ultimate import of the present study, therefore, lies in its simple existence, as now one more of these building blocks, ready and waiting to be constructed into a larger edifice when another historian decides that the moment is ripe to set about such an endeavor.

Progressive Thought

The social service program at the Pennsylvania College for Women was birthed during the Progressive Era, and in many ways it was a product of its time. Progressivism was a broad-based reform movement, a response to some of the unwelcome social changes brought about by modernization in the latter part of the nineteenth century. Such an attitude of reform was taken up on the college level as well as the community and national level. Acheson particularly articulated how women’s colleges had a responsibility to foster intellectual ideas and to provide intellectual responses to the demands of the current age, which PCW clearly did (see chapter 4). But when reading through the entirety of the materials produced by PCW’s leaders during these years, one is struck by the sheer earnestness of the discourse—PCW persons seemed always trying so hard to improve, always leading with an attitude of institutional and communal reform.
The development of the concepts and practices of social work as an arising profession was one of progressivism’s reforms. Service work was viewed as what was owed to society; not a social grace but a social responsibility. Women were particularly involved in these concerns of social reform, and it therefore should not be surprising to discover the movement’s influence at a women’s college. The students who attended PCW were representatives of a progressive-minded generation, a generation who wanted different things from their educations than had had their mothers. This new type of students desired to know about actual, and not idealized, life; they wanted to observe the problems of life and learn what they could do to help fix them. The push for the social service course was accelerated by this rising breed of reform-minded young women.

Education was an area of particular interest in progressivism, and the impact of theories of modern educational reform is seen similarly at PCW. The ideas of John Dewey and Jane Addams appear to have been especially influential. Dewey emphasized the need for public and private education at all levels, no less for girls and women than for boys and men. He held that education is essential in order to uphold a civil society; if democracy is to be successful, all citizens must have a good education. Education is thus fundamental for, and instrumental to, creating social change. PCW’s leaders, especially Lindsay, came to view as the purpose of college education to make women productive citizens. The college’s establishment of student self-governance was an exercise in teaching young women the tenets of citizenship, how to cooperate as members of a civil society. Along with other progressive thinkers, Dewey emphasized the importance of pragmatism, that the purpose of education should be not only academic but used for
practical ends. The social service program was an embodiment of pragmatism, with its inclusion of practice and fieldwork along with academic sociological theory. As Meloy held, the purpose of a PCW education was not to be an ornament to set a student above the less fortunate, but rather a tool to be employed for useful service (see chapter 4). Dewey also made a connection between social work and primary- and secondary-level teaching, a connection similarly reflected in the college’s emphasis that its social service program would be of benefit to students who planned to become schoolteachers.

The ideas of Addams were likewise influential in the development of the social service program. If Dewey was more a philosopher of pragmatic education and democratic community, Addams was more a creator of these ideals; Dewey analyzed them, but Addams lived them. Her thought was more directly related to social work as it was practiced. Addams inspired the concept of municipal housekeeping, the idea that women’s superior abilities in mothering and homemaking allowed them to apply these proclivities and skills to larger public, municipal affairs. Many PCW students followed this trend, shown by the large proportion who focused on children’s needs in their fieldwork projects and their professional and volunteer positions after graduation. Settlement houses, of which Addams’s Hull House was the foremost example, replicated civil society in microcosm. The aspect of reciprocity was an essential component in settlement life, the conviction that settlement residents and community residents both gave and received benefit equally from one another. This same concept of reciprocity was taught in PCW’s social service classes—that all persons are interrelated, that any attitude of hierarchy or superiority went out with the old philanthropy, and that “rich” and
“poor” are artificial categories. The college as a whole adopted egalitarian standards for its student body, attempting to model an intentional democratic community in which students from wealthy families and students who received scholarship funds lived in the same rooms and were treated alike. Like settlement life, PCW students practiced living in a reciprocal community.

Institutional Mission

When it was created, the social service program was generally viewed as a suitable component for the Pennsylvania College for Women to add to its academic program. Yet as the years went on and it became more established, the program did not so much reflect the college’s purpose as it actively shaped institutional mission. A school’s mission need not remain static over the course of its history. Core elements may remain the same (in PCW’s case, providing academically focused baccalaureate education to women), while certain subsidiary values can be introduced, be removed, or shift in level of importance (in this case, the expected use of that college education after graduation).

The college saw a reason and an opportunity to establish the new department. There were demonstrated workforce needs in Pittsburgh and demonstrated student interest. On a national scale, the professionalization of social work had begun to show a need for the formal education of its practitioners, and progressive ideology was pressing
for social reform. The school’s physical location in an urban center and its small size rendered it ideally situated. In all, Coolidge and Lindsay saw a need and found a way to meet that need with the resources that PCW currently had. They took a risk on doing something of a different type than the school had done previously, but they expressly coached the new endeavor in a way to highlight aspects of continuity (see chapter 3).

Up to this point, however, the mission of the college had not been actively framed in terms of public service. Instead, variations on the idea of “cultured womanhood” had been established as the purpose of a PCW education. The college catalogues up through the early 1900s speak of providing cultural learning, fostering a refined scholarly taste, encouraging Christian character and enhancing Bible knowledge, developing moral character, and the like. Not included was any mention of service to the community; a woman’s PCW education was presented in terms of primary benefit to herself and to her anticipated household.

At first the social service course was peripheral, but it soon became centralized. The departmental literature stressed how beneficial the course would be for all students, not just those who intended social work careers. Many students started taking some of the classes even if not doing the full certificate course, and the department was featured in public lectures and student publications. Its integration into the student experience was complete when sociology and economics were made required courses. PCW became known outside the college for its social service program, as the Collegiate Vocational Bureau was started and as more and more alumnae held professional social work positions throughout the city and the nation. Presidential rhetoric about the purpose of a
PCW education began to highlight service: Lindsay emphasized how graduates would be prepared to become useful and valuable members of a democracy; Coolidge emphasized how a broad education prepared students for lives of usefulness; Acheson emphasized that students would be prepared to work for the social and moral uplift of humanity (see chapter 2). In all, the social service program started to shift the entire college discourse to feature public service, the good that its students might do in the community as well as in the home. In later years the phrase “a spirit of service” started to appear in the materials. By this point, preparation for service (of any type) had been perceived as central to the mission of the college. The spirit of service was not merely a motto; it had come to define the identity of PCW.

The importance of social work to the college has continued to this day. Chatham University has maintained an academic program in social work. Though the university currently boasts masters-level programs in various other disciplines, social work is still offered, as it was at the beginning, at only the undergraduate level. The school’s bachelor of social work degree (B.S.W.) is highly ranked. Particularly significant is how the current version of the program retains most of the original elements. It joins a liberal arts foundation to social work, and students take a broad range of courses in affiliated subjects. Fieldwork is held off until the senior year, after students have had substantial theoretical preparation, and practical experience is integrated with classroom learning. Practicing social workers from the local area come to campus to teach and provide site supervision of field projects. And like the small college that it once was, class sizes are kept small to enhance student learning. Social service has enjoyed a long and rich
heritage at the school, and it still remains an important part of the university’s ongoing educational mission.

Higher Education Context

Within the higher education landscape, the Pennsylvania College for Women and its social service course were ahead of their time. The program was a true forerunner in the arena of college- and university-based social work education. PCW’s course came about during the years when charitable agencies were starting their own training schools. It was not until the 1920s, at least fifteen years later, when the subject of social work started to be widely integrated into university education. PCW was thus on the very earliest end of what would later become a growing trend; its program had settled into a flourishing maturity by the time when larger universities were only starting their programs. This venture was a simply remarkable accomplishment for a small, poorly endowed college. PCW pulled off a feat that was completely new and quite radical for a college heavily invested in its traditional, classical curriculum. For many years the only place where a student could get a liberal arts-based social work education was at the Pennsylvania College for Women.

Because it was a liberal arts college, PCW was well equipped to teach the new model of scientific charity. It already had in place strong academic programs in the sciences—biology, chemistry, psychology, physiology, mathematics—fields that social
workers now needed to know in order to carry out their work. At its inception, Lindsay made a commitment that the course would employ the best methods in social science and sociology (see chapter 3). And as the field changed rapidly over the years, the faculty honored that promise, keeping the curriculum and the fieldwork practices up to date. Students were taught the methods of differential social diagnosis, the skills to evaluate each individual situation and assign a remedy according to its unique presentation (see chapter 1). We see the students’ comprehension of this concept through their sketches of the individuals they encountered during the course of their fieldwork projects.

Four women’s colleges had early programs in social work and social service, before these subjects were added to universities’ course offerings. This situation should not be surprising—and indeed, we might wonder that there were not more. Social work was a predominantly women’s field. And it was women’s colleges that had long experience in the best ways of educating women. Women’s entry into coeducational universities was relatively recent, and they often found themselves in an unsupportive, even hostile, climate when they arrived. Women’s colleges, on the other hand, would seem the natural and logical place for teaching this newly opening women’s vocation.

The programs at these four colleges were all unique, all specially drafted to fit the particularities of each school. The varying missions, historical backgrounds, and student bodies of the colleges affected the contours of the social work courses they developed. Simmons College was a brand-new technical college. Its program was shared with, and financially supported by, a larger men’s university. Most of its students were not baccalaureate students but came from the community to take just the social work course.
The other three institutions were liberal arts colleges. This course was the first vocational
element that each introduced, and these colleges were thus in a position of having to offer
a rationale for such a change. PCW emphasized that its course would be based in theory
and that the students would still get the full liberal curriculum; the social service
component was an add-on, not a replacement of any of the classical curricular
components. Bryn Mawr College, with its strong graduate department in other fields,
answered this concern by focusing its program on academic research over practice and
offered it at only the graduate level. Smith College positioned its foray into
vocationalism as an answer to the needs of veterans, as representing the college’s
contribution to the war effort. Most of its students were already college graduates, or if
not, they had substantial experience in the field. All four of these early programs were
thus quite distinct from one another, providing differing models of how the teaching of
social service to women might be approached. PCW was always comparing itself to the
larger, wealthier eastern colleges, knowing that it was their academic equal while
questioning why it did not receive the same degree of recognition and financial support as
did they. But in entering into education for the social service field, PCW was instead
ahead of her eastern sisters.

The college was also a forerunner in the higher education landscape of western
Pennsylvania and Pittsburgh. In the latter part of the first decade of the twentieth
century, both the Carnegie Technical School (with the Margaret Morrison Carnegie
School for Women) and the University of Pittsburgh (recently made coeducational) came
to the city; the former newly founded and the latter relocated from Allegheny City. All
these institutions were in the same area of Pittsburgh; all three were situated on Fifth Avenue, a major artery running through the East End of the city, and within a mile of one another. PCW’s longevity in comparison to them is notable. By the time the two newcomers arrived to the neighborhood, PCW had been long established there for almost forty years. The two new institutions certainly must have represented competition for students. And in the 1920s both of them started to offer classes in social work as well. But it also proved an opportunity for PCW to more clearly define its identity as a historic liberal women’s college, in contrast to a women’s vocational school (such as the Margaret Morrison Carnegie School) or a coeducational university (such as the University of Pittsburgh).

* * * * *

In early August 1910, Dean Coolidge was vacationing at the Massachusetts seashore. Word came to her from Pittsburgh that one of the college’s first-year students was planning not to return for her sophomore year. Coolidge interrupted her holiday to write a kind response to the student, whose name was Elizabeth Snowden McCague:

My dear Elizabeth,

Your note has been forwarded to me where I am getting a breath of old ocean at Gloucester, Mass. I am very sorry indeed to hear that you think it impossible to return to College. I shall hope a

317
little longer that you may find it possible, for sometimes things
brighten unexpectedly. It seems to me that you had made such a
decided gain during the year that your succeeding years might prove
very satisfactory and an excellent investment for the future. You must
indeed come to see us often, for we shall miss you very much. We are
going to have a full house and I hope a large college by the time it is
all “gathered in.”

Give my love to Claire; I am sorry that she must lose her room-
mate. Please accept my sympathy for your personal disappointment,
my own regret to lose one of my nice girls and my hope that you may
sometime find it possible to complete your course.

You must be enjoying Chautauqua. I have always heard such
pleasant reports of its location and enjoyments.

With much love —
Cora Helen Coolidge

Whatever circumstances were keeping the student from being able to continue her
education must have somehow “brightened unexpectedly,” for she graduated on time
with the class of 1913. Betty—as she came to be known—made a scrapbook during her
college years, which contained this note from her dean. Betty went on to become a
seemingly exemplary student, engaged in numerous activities. She was selected by the
faculty for the prestigious Omega Society, a literary society that admitted only a handful
of students. She was also president of the YWCA, secretary of her senior class, an active
member of both the German club and the student volunteer group, and wrote occasional
pieces for The Sorosis.

It would make a perfect story if we could also say that Betty was a student in the
social service course, preparing to enter social work after graduation. But she was not.
Instead, Betty became a schoolteacher. It is possible, of course, that she enrolled in some
of the classes in social service and related subjects, as it seems that many students did.
Betty taught at local high schools during the next several years. She also continued her education, earning a masters degree in classics at the University of Pittsburgh, and in later years she spent several summers studying at Cornell University. Betty never married, becoming a professional career woman. Her roommate Claire Colestock, whom Coolidge mentioned in her note, also graduated in 1913 and likewise became a career woman, as the director of physical education in the Pasadena city school system in California.

After her mother died in 1925, Betty moved farther afield to Chambersburg, Pennsylvania, to begin teaching Latin at Penn Hall, the girls’ school that had been formed when Wilson College discontinued its preparatory department in 1906. Over the years she reported how she absolutely loved teaching and never wanted to retire, although she eventually did in 1960. She was quite engaged in local and national clubs and other groups of various sorts, and became an avid traveller. And Betty was a contributing and devoted PCW alumna up until her death in 1980. She served as an officer of the Alumnae Association for a period of time, did several stints as the 1913 class secretary, and when back living in the Pittsburgh area after retirement, she seems to have been on campus for college events with great frequency. Betty’s personality shines through her class reports in the Alumnae Recorder. She was intelligent, witty, good humored, and appears to have lived her life with an upbeat, forward-looking outlook.

Why relate this little story? Because it exemplifies the spirit of the Pennsylvania College for Women during these years. Certainly this event demonstrates how a single thoughtful gesture from a professor or administrator has the power to change the course
of a student’s life. This student not only stayed in school and completed her education; she became an active supporter of the college through the subsequent several decades. It kept her on a path that led to her ability to make a difference in hundreds if not perhaps thousands of high school students’ lives, leading a life of service to others. She became a credit to the college.

It also exemplifies the situation of a small college with family-style residential life, of faculty and students sharing domestic space. If a single student is removed, she will be missed by the entire student body. This event gives the flavor of what interpersonal connections were like at PCW. At a small college, the dean was able to know each student personally, tracking her academic progress and even knowing which students roomed together. Through her note, we can see why Coolidge was so beloved within the college community, if this was her norm for interaction with students. This college is shown to be a place where kindness could flourish.

But the story’s significance is greater than this. It reveals the optimism held by the PCW community during these years. This attitude of hopefulness, of holding out expectation—“for sometimes things brighten unexpectedly”—was evident not only in person-to-person interactions but pervaded the entire institution. We see this attitude of optimism running through many of the official documents: the reports of the presidents to the Board, the trustees’ speeches at the anniversary celebration and the presidential inaugurations, the college officers’ published reports to the alumnae. Notwithstanding a general proclivity to put a good side forward in official statements, such public
statements of hopefulness still played a large role in influencing the tenor of institutional perspective.

The holding of such optimism in situations that were not public-facing must have been just as pervasive, however. The college survived because of the hope and courage maintained by its individuals. Such optimism came into play when the endowment challenge had almost expired and the funds subscribed were not even near the goal; when enrollment was so low that graduating classes were under twenty students; when people trusted that the college would be able to stand on its own and not need to merge with another institution due to exigency. Even during difficult days, the college community maintained the hope that things would improve.

This attitude of optimism likewise drove the idea to start the social service department. From a small beginning of only three students, the college envisioned a future in which PCW social service graduates could make a large difference in the community. This same optimism served as the very foundation, the very raison d’être, of the social service program itself. It reflected the hope that the social problems faced by the local community could actually be improved, given some intentional and knowledgeable effort by PCW women. An individual’s circumstances could be bettered; the effects of poverty and disease could be lessened; human dignity could be restored. And it built this optimistic outlook into its students as they went out into the world with a spirit of service.

Even in a city as smoky as was Pittsburgh in the early twentieth century—things could brighten unexpectedly.
The purpose of this listing is to represent the activities undertaken by social service students over the ten years after they completed college. It comprises all of the PCW students who were awarded social service certificates during the years of this study (1908–1922), plus those earliest seven students from 1910 and 1911 who were considered graduates of the program (see the explanation in chapter 5).

The students are categorized according to the year in which they were awarded the certificate, which except for two students in 1922, coincides with their year of their graduation. Those students who were special, nonbaccalaureate students are indicated by an asterisk (*) following their names. If they seemed to commonly use a different name from their official names in the graduation lists (a nickname, a middle name), it is indicated in parentheses following their full names. If an alumna married, this situation is indicated, along with the year (m. 19xx); her husband’s name is also provided to help identify her after she took his surname.

The level of precision with regard to the title and scope of the work of these alumnae is limited by the information provided in the college publications. The year following the position description is the publication year when that information appeared in the college publications, which did not necessarily coincide with when the alumna started the position (and in some instances clearly summarized what she had been doing.
for the previous few years). For those activities that are related to social service, broadly conceived, a “p” in parentheses indicates a professional, paid position (either full or part time) and a “v” indicates a volunteer position. In many instances the adjudication of whether the work was professional or volunteer is clear, but in those instances where it is not clear, these categorizations represent a best guess. All positions were in the greater Pittsburgh area unless otherwise noted.

The activities of the alumnae are classified according to four categories:

1. Professional social service work
2. Volunteer social service work
3. Teaching or other profession
4. Homemaking

For each of the baccalaureate students, her category is indicated in brackets following her name. (For a fuller explanation of these categories and the rationale for this process, see chapter 5.)
1910

Elma McKibben [Professional social service work]
Art classes to youth in Butler, PA (v), 1911; social work with the Allegheny Playgrounds (p), 1914; m. 1914 (Walter McLean)

Frances Neal *
Social worker in the Pittsburgh YWCA (v); Director of YWCA activities in McKeesport, PA (p), 1917

1911

Clarissa Blakeslee [Professional social service work, career woman]
Continuing studies in Philadelphia, at home, 1912; working with the Social Service Department of the University Hospital, Philadelphia (v?), 1914; children’s work with Associated Charities, Philadelphia (v?), 1915; social science study at the University of Pennsylvania (p), 1917; reconstruction worker with refugee children with the Red Cross in France (p), 1919; position in the American Society for Relief in the Near East, in Macedonia and Constantinople (p), 1920

Alice Darrah [Homemaking]
Studying music, at home, 1914; m. 1919 (Anderson Sheppard)

Frances Gray [Volunteer social service work]
Assisting at Carnegie Library, taking courses in Children’s Librarian Training School (v), 1912; m. 1915 (Samuel Everhart)

Rachel McQuiston [Professional social service work]
Principal of Belvidere Academy, NC (p), 1912; teaching at National Park Seminary, 1914; m. 1915 (Henry Kaspar); volunteer work for the government (v), 1918; Insurance Counselor for New York Equitable (p), 1922

Rosalie Supplee [Professional social service work, career woman]
Visitor with the Associated Charities, East Liberty branch (p), 1913; summer study at Columbia University (p), 1914; Home Finding Department of the Juvenile Court of Allegheny County (p), 1916; social investigator in the Pittsburgh Maternity Dispensary (p), 1918; surveying disabled children in New York for hospital authorities; special field agent for the Child Welfare Commission of Connecticut, Hartford (p), 1920; summer course at Smith College on psychiatric social work; psychiatric social worker at Marine Hospital (p), 1922
1912

Florence Emma Bickel [Volunteer social service work]
Working with the Camp Fire Girls of the YWCA (v); m. 1914 (George Swan)

Frances Alden Cameron [Homemaking]
m. 1914 (Robert Doane)

Elvira Estep [Teaching or other profession]
Teaching at Elizabeth High School, 1914; Teaching at Pittsburgh High School, 1917;
m. 1918 (Thomas Coburn, died 1918); Teaching at Riverside High School, 1920

Mary Rariden Gray [Professional social service work, career woman]
Children’s Library (v?), 1914; librarian in the Children’s Department of the Carnegie
Library (p), 1916

Helen Herd Grooms [Teaching or other profession, career woman]
Teaching at Crafton High School, 1914; Teaching at Oakmont High School, 1917

Hazel Fay Hickson [Professional social service work]
Taking classes at the University of Southern California, 1915; office work, 1917;
executive secretary for the Red Cross (p), 1918; secretary for the Junior Red Cross (p),
1919; m. 1921 (John Van Ingen)

Carrie Cosette Spence (Cosette) [Professional social service work, career woman]
Working with the Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children, Philadelphia (p), 1914;
Superintendent of the Juvenile Court, Philadelphia (p), 1917; Judge’s Assistant in District
Court, Philadelphia (p), 1922

1913

Helen Faye Atkinson (Faye) [Teaching or other profession]
Teaching at Mt. Lebanon High School, 1914; m. 1914 (Charles McCune)

Helen Elizabeth Blair [Volunteer social service work]
Working with factory women; working with the Camp Fire Girls in the YWCA (v), 1914;
club worker with high school girls in the YWCA, Red Cross activities, and church
activities (v), 1917; m. 1922 (Harry Baumann)

Christine Ethloine Cameron [Professional social service work]
Social worker at the Woods Run Settlement House (p), 1914; teaching in Swissvale,
1915; teacher for the deaf in Northampton, MA, 1916; m. 1917 (John Bryan)
Louise Emily Fletcher  [Teaching or other profession, career woman]  
Teaching at Mayville High School, NY, 1914; teaching in Connecticut, 1922

Mary Elizabeth Foster * 
Visiting housekeeper with the Visiting Nurses Association (p), 1914; undercover welfare investigator in an intentionally unnamed factory in a neighboring city (p), 1918

Emma Henrietta Geiselhart  [Homemaking]  
m. 1913 (C. T. Osterloh)

Jeanne Maclean Gray  [Professional social service work, career woman]  
Courses at Sargent School of Physical Training, 1914; Supervisor in physical education at New York State College for Teachers (p); gymnastics teacher at Cornell 1917; State Supervisor of Physical Training, Harrisburg (p), 1921; Associate Director and Advisor to Women in the Department of Physical Education at Cornell University (p), 1922

Sylvia Wayne  [Volunteer social service work]  
Teaching in New Kensington, 1914; Teaching at Pittsburgh High School; social work activities (v), 1917; secretarial work, 1920; teaching and social work (v), 1921; much volunteer social work, publicity chairperson of an organization with over 3500 members, Cleveland (v), 1922

Grace McMaster Wilson  [Professional social service work, career woman]  
Social worker at the Kingsley House (p), 1914; manager of settlement house in Ambridge (p), 1915; return to the Kingsley House staff (p), 1916; manager of the Lillian House (p), 1917; Employment Secretary in the Employment Bureau of the Central YWCA (p), 1920; overseas work during the war (p), 1922

1914

Marjory Annette Boggs  [Homemaking]  
m. 1917 (Carl Taylor)

Margaret Hardy Brown  [Teaching or other profession]  
Teaching at Somerset High School, OH, 1915; Teacher at Pembroke Hall, Hampton, VA, 1917; m. 1917 (Scott Cleland)

Charlotte Pauline Burt (Pauline)  [Teaching or other profession, career woman]  
Graduate student in chemistry at Mount Holyoke College, 1915; faculty at Vassar College, 1918; faculty at Smith College, 1921; Ph.D. student at Yale, 1922

Josette Kochersperg (Jo)  [Teaching or other profession]  
Teaching at Redwood High School, NJ, 1915; m. 1916 (Howard Ingerson)
Martha Johanna Kroenert *
Performing social work and teaching domestic economy at the McKelvey School (p), 1917

Mildred Margaret McWilliams [Teaching or other profession]
Teaching music, 1915

Miriam Borchers Messner *
Many types of social work in Warren, PA (v), 1917; m. 1917 (Dr. Dowell)

Hazel Nancy Rider [Teaching or other profession]
Teaching in Uniontown, PA 1915

Marjorie Thompson *
Parish visitor at Trinity Episcopal Church (p), 1917; social worker at Calvary Episcopal Church (p), 1922

Ethel Mae Williams [Teaching or other profession]
Teaching in Glassport, 1915; m. 1917 (A. S. F. Keister)

1915

Mary Hall Estep (Hallie) [Professional social service work, career woman]
Visitor for the Associated Charities in the Southern District (p), 1917; working for the Red Cross, Allegheny County (p), 1919; working at a mission school in KY (p); relief work for charities and Red Cross (p); teaching in Oakmont, 1920; supervisor in the Personnel Department of Kaufmann’s department store (p), 1922; m. 1923 (Caryl Starr); girl reserve work with the YWCA (v), 1924

Lillian Fisher *

Frances Louise Kindl *

Jeanne Cyrene Mahey *

Helen Cameron McClelland *
Working with the Community House of the First United Presbyterian Church of the North Side (p), 1917; visitor in the Relief Department, Improvement of the Poor (p), 1922

Dorothy Maude Turner *
Ethel Cordelia Bair [Professional social service work]
Teaching, 1917; Girls’ Work secretary for the YWCA, Washington, DC (p), 1919

Alberta Emma Bannerot [Volunteer social service work]
Volunteer social service work (v), 1917; m. 1919 (William Lappe)

Frances Eleanor Boale [Teaching or other profession, career woman]
Teaching at Indiana High School, PA, 1917; Assistant in PCW social service department (p), 1917; Teaching at Mount Pleasant High School, 1920; Teaching at Franklin High School, 1921; masters program in history at Columbia University, 1924; Teaching high school in Williamsport, 1925

Edna McConnell Gaw [Teaching or other profession]
Secretary at the United Presbyterian Book Store, 1917; Working at the Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., 1920

Alice Margaret Greer [Teaching or other profession]
Teaching in Canonsburg, PA 1917; m. 1920 (Halsey Donaldson)

Alice Marie Laidlaw [Professional social service work, career woman]
Social psychology in the Advertising Department of McCreery’s department store (p), 1917; Training for YWCA work, specializing in women in industry (p), 1917; Girls’ Work Secretary for the YWCA, Erie (p), 1920; General Secretary of the Wilkinsburg YWCA (p), 1923; studying at Columbia University through the national YWCA headquarters (p), 1926

Melba R. Martin [Professional social service work]
Visitor for the Associated Charities in the Eastern District (p), 1917; Social service in Boston (p), 1919; case worker with families of ex-servicemen for the American Red Cross (p), 1923; m. 1922 (Frank Ingersoll)

Seba Graham South [Professional social service work]
Assistant in PCW social service department (p), 1917; m. 1918 (Thomas McCaw)

Grace DeHaven Woodrow [Professional social service work, career woman]
Executive secretary for the Children’s Aid Society of Allegheny County (p), 1917; social service work in the Personal Service Division of the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Co. (p), 1920; Assistant Director of the Social Service Department of West Penn Hospital (p), 1921; doing social work for the Pittsburgh Federation of Churches Council (p), 1926
1917

Leah Claster [Professional social service work, career woman]
Studying at New York School of Philanthropy (p), 1917; Executive Secretary of Civilian Relief, New Kensington Red Cross (p), 1919; Women’s vocational work in New York (p), 1920; working for the Travelers Aid Society (p), 1923; case worker and secretary for the Pittsburgh Bureau for Jewish Children (p), 1926

Martha Johnson Crandall (Martie) [Teaching or other profession]
Teaching in Warren, PA, 1918; m. 1921 (Charles Noyes)

Clara Ruth Gokey (Ruth) [Volunteer social service work]
Children’s worker at the Friends Neighborhood House, Philadelphia (v), 1917; m. 1918 (Roy Walters)

Virginia Hackney *
Working for the Bureau of Recreation (p), 1917; Girls’ worker at the Jan Hus Neighborhood House, New York City (p), 1917; m. 1918 (William Tanney)

Katherine Butz MacKenzie (Kate) [Teaching or other profession, career woman]
Teaching at Aspinwall High School, 1918; Teaching at Fifth Avenue High School, 1924

Louise Reinecke [Teaching or other profession]
Teaching in Carnegie, PA, 1918; Teaching at Fifth Avenue High School, 1919; working with Friendship Clubs in high schools (v), 1922; m. 1922 (John Thorne)

Marion Elizabeth Sallows *
Working in the Social Service Department of the West Penn Hospital (p), 1917

1918

Naomi Mollie Davidson (Mollie) [Professional social service work]
Instructor at Comptometer Co., 1918; Position of some sort in business, 1919; social service work in a settlement, Boston (p), 1920; m. 1922 (Louis Nass); substitute teaching in high schools, 1926

Esther Katherine Hartman *
Supervisory role at the Pittsburgh office of the Harmarville Convalescent Home (p), 1918

Gertrude Edna Hartzel *
Working in her father’s office, 1918
Ellinore Harriet Salinger *
Supervisor of girls’ clubs and assistant to the director of girls’ work at the Council of Educational Alliance, Cleveland (p), 1918

Sara Belle Shapira *
Working in the Civilian Relief Department of the Red Cross (p), 1918

Mary B. Tipper *
m. 1918 (William Lean)

Lorena Anne Van Kirk [Teaching or other profession]
Teaching at West Newton High School, PA, 1919

Florence Evelyn Younkins*
Working in a bank in Butler, PA, 1918

1919

Lillian Dorothea Applestein (Bobby) [Professional social service work]
Position with the Red Cross (p), 1920

Marie Lang Armstrong *

Viola Henrietta Cox [Professional social service work]
Teaching at Denora High School, Director of Girl Scout work, Denora (v), 1921; Director of Girl Scouts, Passaic and Bergen Counties, NJ (p), 1923

Sorly Cukerbaum *

Margaret Elizabeth Hamilton [Teaching or other profession]
Teaching at a mountain school in Frenchburg, KY, 1920; m. 1922 (Leslie Chick)

Minnie E. McGrew *

Clara Russell Miller *

Elisabeth Plumer Stevenson (Betty) [Homemaking]
m. 1926 (Paul Porter)

Dorothy Stoeltzing *
Social worker at Hartley House, New York City (p), 1922
Laura Hathaway Nye Taber [Teaching or other profession]
Teaching at the Edgewood School, 1920; m. 1923 (Clifford Barbour); church work (v), 1926

Eva May Weston [Professional social service work]
Social worker in the West Penn Hospital (p), 1920; m. 1921 (Harold Reif); treasurer of the Cora Helen Coolidge Club at PCW (v), 1925; doing some part-time work at the Home for Crippled Children (v), 1927; fashion stylist for Mandel Bros. department store in Chicago, 1929

1920

Catharine Bell Caughey (Kitty) [Teaching or other profession]
Teaching in Williamsfield, OH, 1921; m. 1923 (Richard Johnson)

Elizabeth Belle Davidson (Betty) [Professional social service work]
Social work in New York City (p), 1921; Department manager in the Educator’s Association (p), 1923

Anne Goldberg *

Mary Elizabeth Jamison (Betty) [Professional social service work]
Working at the Greenwich House, New York City (p), 1920; Working in the Welfare Department of R. H. Macy’s Co., New York City (p), 1921; m. 1921 (Roy Hamilton)

Elinor Newell [Professional social service work, career woman]
In charge of the Welfare Work in Wheeling, WV (p), 1920; Head of the Employment Department at the Kaufmann’s department store (p), 1921; assistant bond salesperson in a bank, 1925; secretary to a real estate dealer in Florida, 1926; working in the Employment Bureau of the Ruby Lane Stores in New York (p), 1930 (p)

Gladys Margaret Wilson [Professional social service work]
In charge of a summer girls’ camp in New York (p), 1920; Social work at the Christadora Settlement, New York City (p), 1921; m. 1923 (Edwin Green)
1921

Kathryn Julia Carter *

Miriam LeFevre Crouse [Teaching or other profession]
Teaching at Butler High School, 1925

Besse Levy [Homemaking]
m. 1925 (Irving Kridel)

Bell McMaster Wilson [Professional social service work]
Secretary to the dean and president, PCW (p), 1924; m. 1926 (James Miller)

1922

Rose Priscilla Gorzo [Homemaking]
m. 1923 (Michael Rapach)

Rose Priscilla Gray (Mickey) [Professional social service work]
Social service work in Woodlawn (p); managing a gift shop, 1925

Harriet Templeton Hill [Teaching or other profession]
Teaching, 1923; m. 1925 (William Kraus)

Mary Louise Limber ’23 [Professional social service work]
Social work in Erie (p), 1924; m. 1925 (C. J. Guldin)

Marion McGinley Rainey ’23 [Professional social service work]
Secretary at the Central YWCA (p), 1924; m. 1926 (J. William Johnston)
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352