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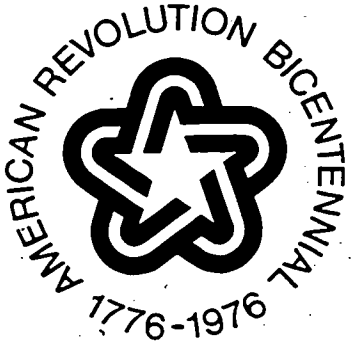
ABSTRACT

This publication summarizes the history of education in Alabama. It is intended to enhance the interest in and appreciation for the state's educational system and to demonstrate to Alabamians the value of building and maintaining a strong educational system. Education began in Alabama with the Indians who inhabited the state. Alabamian Indians loved oratory and used this method to instruct their children in the history of the widespread migrations and heroic exploits of their tribes. Each generation of Indians in Alabama also taught to each succeeding generation the various skills necessary for the survival of its primitive culture. The various European countries, being interested in economic profits, did little to establish any educational system in Alabama. Later, however, when Alabama entered the Union in 1819, the state strongly supported education for its citizens. The War Between the States in 1861 disrupted an adequate educational system that was making progress. During Reconstruction, the state government attempted to rebuild the school system and to extend education to those whites and blacks who were excluded in antebellum times. After Reconstruction, education in Alabama did not keep pace with the rest of the nation for a variety of reasons--a poor economy, excessive numbers of children, a dual school system, and a general disinterest in education. Currently, federal funds and more state government emphases on education have greatly strengthened the state educational system. (Author/RM)

HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN ALABAMA



Bicentennial Intern Project
Conducted by
the Alabama State Department of Education
in Cooperation with
the Southern Regional Education Board

BULLETIN 1975, No. 7

Coordinated by Division of Instruction
J.C. Blair, Director
William Arthur Heustess, Project Chairman

This report was produced through the Alabama pilot project of the Bicentennial Intern Program in Education. The project was administered by the Alabama Department of Education in cooperation with the Southern Regional Education Board. Funds were provided by the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, the Alabama Department of Education, and the Alabama American Revolution Bicentennial Commission.

THE BICENTENNIAL INTERN PROGRAM IN EDUCATION

The Bicentennial Intern Program in Education is designed to contribute to public awareness and professional understanding of the issues and opportunities associated with education today. Highly qualified graduate students serve with state education agencies to conduct broad studies of the roles education has played in states' development, to assess states' educational progress and circumstances, and to identify alternative methods of dealing with issues and problems in the future.

Under the sponsorship of the Educational Division of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, pilot projects were conducted during 1974 in four states — Alabama, Colorado, Indiana, and Rhode Island.

In Alabama Miss Adelaide Kilgrow and Mr. Eugene M. Thomas were selected for the nine-month internships with the Alabama Department of Education. Miss Kilgrow is a doctoral student in educational administration at The University of Alabama, and Mr. Thomas is a doctoral student in history at Auburn University. The interns documented Alabama's educational progress during the past two centuries, and their study is the basis for statewide Bicentennial plans for 1975 and 1976. A movie highlighting the study is being prepared by the Alabama Department of Education and the Alabama American Revolution Bicentennial Commission, with assistance from the interns. A text supplement for secondary teachers in social studies will facilitate discussion of the importance of education. A Bicentennial newspaper with many ideas for student Bicentennial projects will be sent to all Alabama schools in 1975.

The Alabama education project serves as a demonstration Bicentennial project for other Alabama public agencies, for agencies in other states, and for DHEW's Education Division. It is a model for Bicentennial activities that are professionally productive, educational for the participants, and interesting to the public. With the other three pilot projects, it helps show the variety of ways in which an institution can identify its contributions to life in the United States.

Harlan T. Cooper
Southern Regional Education Board

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Grateful acknowledgement is made to all who contributed to this work. Many people assisted the authors, and thanks are due to the following persons, especially: M.C. McMillan, Andrew M. Weaver, Truman M. Pierce of Auburn University; Paul Orr, John F. Ramsey, Martha W. Tack, and Patricia W. Seymour of The University of Alabama; William F. Barnard of the Alabama Commission on Higher Education; C.B. Smith, formerly of Troy State University; and J.C. Blair and W.A. Heustess of the Alabama State Department of Education.

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Many friends, both specialists and secretaries in the Basic Sciences Section, Division of Instruction, State Department of Education, have assisted through discussion of ideas, encouraging words, and constructive criticism. Finally, thanks go to our families, who have sustained our efforts through a period of concentrated work.

Adelaide Kilgrow
The University of Alabama

Eugene Marvin Thomas, III
Auburn University

FOREWORD

History is a fascinating subject which gives an account of the accomplishments made by the human family during the past. It gives a foundation for understanding the present and guidance for us as we make decisions which have an impact on the future. This history of education in Alabama is, I believe, a significant contribution to the record of accomplishments in public education in the State of Alabama. There was indeed a need for this history to be written. It can be used by all citizens of the state and particularly by the school boys and girls in the early years of their education. It can also be used as a source of information and inspiration for education students at all levels. It can be used for the general citizenry to gain a better insight into the progress of education in Alabama and the direction in which it should go in the future.

The authors of this history are to be commended for their diligence and for their dedication in seeking authentic information to present in this document. I also commend the Bicentennial Commission, the Southern Regional Education Board, the State Department of Education officials, and all interested persons who made a contribution to the success of this publication. It has been a source of satisfaction and pleasure to work with those who have successfully written this volume, and the people of Alabama are indebted to those who contributed to this effort.

LeRoy Brown
State Superintendent of Education

PREFACE

People in Alabama today say that education is important for themselves and the state; however when asked why, they don't know. It is anticipated that this summary of Alabama education will not only enhance the interest in and appreciation for the state's educational system; but, by emphasizing the effects education has had on the state and its people, the summary will also demonstrate to Alabamians the value of building and maintaining a strong educational system.

Indeed, education has always been an important aspect of Alabama's development. The Indians depended upon education to perpetuate their culture. The various European countries, being interested in economic profits, did little to establish any educational system in Alabama. Later, however, when Alabama entered the Union in 1819, the state strongly supported education for its citizens. In fact, the first state constitution and the first governor, William Wyatt Bibb, emphasized that schools and education would always be encouraged in the state.

The War Between the States in 1861 disrupted an adequate educational system that was making progress. During Reconstruction, the state government attempted to rebuild the school system and to extend education to those whites and blacks who were excluded in antebellum times.

After Reconstruction, education in Alabama did not keep pace with the rest of the nation for a variety of reasons — a poor economy, excessive numbers of children, a dual school system, and a general disinterest in education. Currently, federal funds and more state government emphases on education have greatly strengthened the state educational system.

The invigorated present-day educational system has directly improved the intellectual, spiritual, and physical well-being of many Alabama citizens; consequently, many aspects of state life are enriched. A progressive educational system is valuable to Alabama; it is essential in preparing the state's citizens to meet the strange and wonderful challenges that the future will bring.

CONTENTS

Early Years to 1865

Education began in Alabama with the Indians who inhabited the state. Through the centuries various Indian tribes settled in the vast wilderness of Alabama, left traces of their existence, then vanished into the mist of time. When European explorers arrived in Alabama and recorded what they had observed, they did find several tribes of Indians with impressive heritages. The aggressive Creeks resided on the banks of the Alabama, Coosa, and Tallapoosa Rivers; the fierce Chickasaws and more pastoral Choctaws inhabited the northwestern and southwestern portions of the state respectively; and the proud Cherokees lived at the foot of the Appalachian Mountains in northeastern Alabama.

Other Indian tribes including the Coosas, Tensas, Chatots, Thomez, Tallasses, Alabamos, and Coosadas also lived in the state, but these groups were smaller and less significant; in fact, these smaller groups were often associated in one way or another with the Choctaws, Chickasaws, Cherokees, and Creeks. Although the Alabama Indians could not read or write until long after the coming of the whites and until Sequoyah invented the Cherokee alphabet in 1821, they loved oratory and used this method to instruct their children in the history of the widespread migrations and heroic exploits of their tribes. Their ancient stories were also preserved in colorful wampum (beaded belts and necklaces) and were carved with crude bone and rock tools upon the smooth faces of towering stone clifts or on dusty cave walls.[1]

Each generation of Indians in Alabama also taught to each succeeding generation the various skills necessary for the survival of its primitive culture — farming, toolmaking, field clearing, house building, cooking, basketry, drawing and painting, hunting, fishing, fighting, and cloth making. From these early beginnings, Alabama education gradually evolved.[2]

Progress was slow even after the eventful arrival of Europeans in Alabama.

The French in 1702, under the capable command of General LeMoyne de Bienville, were the first Europeans to establish a lasting settlement in Alabama. In that year as a part of Louis XIV's grand strategy to beat the Spanish in settling along the Gulf Coast and to draw a ring around the thirteen English colonies on the Atlantic seaboard with the eventual hope of drawing the hated English into the seas, Bienville established the settlement of Mobile as the capital of Louisiana.[3]

The French did little to establish conventional education in Alabama. Surviving legal and church documents show that, at least among white males, illiteracy was high in French Mobile. Obviously, the small band of adventurous settlers in Mobile surrounded by restive Indians were not likely to give much thought to education. Most of the early inhabitants of that city hoped to win fortunes quickly and return to France. Few, if any of them, brought wives or families to an uncertain future in the wilds of Alabama.

The Catholic missionaries who usually spread education among the inhabitants of new colonial possessions were not particularly active in Mobile. Both French Jesuit and Capuchin missionaries were in the region from the beginning of the settlement, but their officials seemed more interested in establishing political influence with the Colonial Council that governed Mobile than in establishing institutions for educating the inhabitants. Even Bienville, as governor of Louisiana, could not persuade the uncooperative Jesuit leaders to establish a school in Mobile. The clergymen excused themselves from this responsibility by arguing that there were no books or buildings for a school, although this lack would seem to be an essential reason for a school in the first place.[4]

More devoted parish priests, realizing the power of education as an instrument of civilization, wasted little time in their efforts to establish schools for Indians. Significantly, these early schools were established as agents for spreading Christianity as well as for the transmission of European culture and civilization. In addition to converting the Indians to Christianity, the Catholics, particularly the Jesuits, also exerted efforts to "Frenchify" them. Louis XVI, who gave the Jesuits considerable financial support, repeatedly gave them orders to educate the children of the natives in the French manner. Thus began the cruel policy of removing Indian children from their families and tribes in order to impress the French language and customs upon them as well as to emphasize the traditional academic subjects. The curriculum included reading, writing, singing, agriculture, carpentry, and handcrafts. Other priests may have offered formal educational instruction to white children, but they left no records of this. It is likely that the more prosperous families in Mobile sent their children to New Orleans boarding schools operated by Catholic clergymen and nuns.[5]

Part of the mercantilist theory adhered to by France throughout the eighteenth century stated that a colony existed only for the profit of the mother country; consequently, national political and economic concern overshadowed education, which was woven marginally around the government's objectives. Emphasis was thus placed on teaching young colonists in Mobile only the practical skills vital to the success of the budding settlement; for instance, in 1708 in

Mobile six cabin boys from French transport ships began learning Indian languages as well as masonry and carpentry. The French government also encouraged early settlers in Mobile to devote their energies entirely to commerce and agriculture. As for formal education, it was reasoned that if a colonist became more affluent and in a position to have his children educated, the colleges in France should benefit from this. Furthermore, the child would obviously benefit more from the better educational facilities available in France.[6]

As governor of Louisiana, Bienville made the only official attempt to institute formal education in Mobile while it was under French dominion. He petitioned the French government on March 26, 1742, to establish a college in that city. The petition was refused. Mobile, with a population of scarcely 300, was considered too small and unimportant for a college.[7]

The British took over Mobile and the surrounding Alabama area as a part of British West Florida on October 20, 1763. Britain ruled this area for twenty years until she lost her colonies at the end of the American Revolution in 1783. Protestant missionaries began a campaign to "civilize and Christianize" the Indians during British rule, but little information is available concerning formal white education in British Mobile. Included in annual grants of money that financed the government of West Florida, Parliament budgeted ∫ 25 for the support of a schoolmaster in Mobile. At the same time, Parliament set aside land for the support of Protestant schools. The educational intentions of the English government, theoretically at least, were good.[8]

A schoolmaster with an annual salary of ∫ 25, however, does not suggest extensive intellectual activity in the life of British Mobile. People of culture in the region, such as the planter and industrialist William Dunbar or the Anglican minister and first schoolmaster William Gordon (both of whom had substantial libraries), were unusual. Among the few books mentioned in British records in Mobile are Bibles, prayer books, and those volumes which were sent over by the home government to explain the Swedish process for manufacturing naval stores. It must be remembered, however, that Mobile was a frontier town where the struggle for existence left little time for cultural or educational pursuits.[9]

Mobile, as a part of West Florida, came under the control of Spain with the Treaty of Paris in 1783. The story of education in this period is also dismal and uninspiring. Spain, as France, took no meaningful steps to encourage learning among the white inhabitants; although Catholic clergymen, particularly Franciscan monks, provided religious instruction for the Indians. It was the policy of the Franciscans to gather Indians into native villages surrounding their missions, thus keeping families intact while instructing them in the various arts and crafts which they might use to improve their living conditions. The Spanish priests taught the Indians how to plow, harvest crops, and clear their land more efficiently. Spain was the only nation that seriously attempted the economic absorption of the Indians by training large numbers as laborers. Education necessarily played an important role in this undertaking as well as religious conversion which was a major aim. The church and the government sought a common goal and were united in a comprehensive Indian policy; consequently, instruction

also included carpentry, blacksmithing, masonry, spinning and weaving, and the making of clothing, soap, and candles. Academic subjects were deemed of lesser importance, and there was no conscious effort by the Franciscan friars to make "Europeans" of the Indians.[10]

In 1798 the crumbling Spanish Empire ceded all of what is now Alabama except the coastline to about thirty miles above Mobile to the infant United States. Alabama thus became a part of the hastily created United States Mississippi Territory. Some Americans were already in Alabama, but after 1798 adventurous settlers from all over the United States poured into Alabama.

They followed numerous river routes or came overland on well-worn Indian trails and crude military roads. So many Americans came into Alabama that the United States was able to seize the Mobile district in 1813 during the War of 1812. One of these settlers, John Pierce of Connecticut, started the first known nonsectarian school in Alabama. Pierce founded his school in 1799 at Boatyard settlement on Lake Tensaw just north of Mobile. The school was a primitive log cabin in which students sat on rough split-log benches to study their lessons. The pupils were French, Spanish, English, Indian, American, and a variety of national and racial mixtures. Pierce taught his students reading, writing, and arithmetic by the "blab" (word-of-mouth) method. He soon realized, however, that he could make his fortune elsewhere and left teaching to become a cotton dealer.[11]

Not long afterward the Mississippi Territorial Legislature in Natchez, Mississippi, chartered Washington Academy (later St. Stephens Academy) at St. Stephens in 1811 and Green Academy at Huntsville in 1812. This was the first educational legislation in Alabama. On December 13, 1816, the Mississippi Territorial Legislature appropriated the first public money for education in Alabama when it granted $500 to each academy. The Legislature exempted both from taxation and allowed the schools to raise additional funds by lottery.[12]

This curious funding policy continued even after Alabama became a separate territory in 1817; still, the use of lotteries to obtain school funds sometimes had unfortunate results. One gambler, Horatio Dade, won $5,000 in an 1819 lottery presumably sponsored by St. Stephens Academy. Dade never received his winnings although he sued the Academy. People in Alabama also used other methods to finance the two academies. The Alabama Territorial Legislature empowered the banks of St. Stephens and Huntsville to incorporate their capital stock by selling shares at auction. The profits to the extent of 10 percent were divided among stockholders, and any profit above the 10 percent was applied to the support of Green Academy and St. Stephens Academy. The schools, both public and private, depended largely on tuition for support; however, they also were chartered by the government and received $500 from the public treasury along with other funds from the public through the bank and lottery.[13]

Although not much is known about St. Stephens Academy after 1819, Green Academy thrived. The board of trustees of Green Academy located the school, conducted lotteries, raised other money as needed, and did whatever else was required to keep the school in operation. For many years it was the only institution

for advanced education in North Alabama; consequently, many of the area's prominent men were trained there. The school operated for fifty years until Federal troops burned the building during the War Between the States. It was never reopened.[14]

The success of Green and St. Stephens Academies sparked the development of additional schools in other Alabama counties during the territorial period. Although they received no territorial funds, male and female boarding schools usually located in the more populous North Alabama operated successfully. One such school, Fayetteville Academy, accommodated 80 to 100 male and female students in a two-story brick building. Here academic learning and "the morals of the youth" in the school were emphasized. Students attending the Academy could board with certain families in town for $2 per week, and the aspiring scholars usually paid a tuition of from $7.50 to $15.00 depending upon the number of subjects taken and the fluctuating length of the school term.[15]

During the territorial period of Alabama's development, the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions established mission schools in 1812 and 1819 among the Choctaws and Chickasaws. These mission schools indirectly influenced the whites in Alabama. Industrial in the modern sense, the schools taught young Indian braves farming and mechanics while the Indian girls learned weaving and housework. The Indians liked the schools, and the schools were generally successful everywhere they were established. By 1825 the Choctaws had ten schools with 39 teachers and 208 pupils. These schools cost $26.109 of which the federal government paid $2.350. The Chickasaws had two schools with 26 teachers and 75 pupils. The United States paid $900 out of the total school cost of $3.283. The Methodists were most active in educating the Creek Indians in the state. At Asbury Mission near Fort Mitchell various skills were taught to these Indians until President Andrew Jackson in 1832 removed the Indians from the territory.[16]

Alabama continued to build on its educational heritage when it became a state on December 14, 1819. In his initial message to the Legislature Governor William Wyatt Bibb stressed the need for education in Alabama. The framers of the 1819 state constitution set aside lands for the support of a state university and for the promotion of the arts, literature, and the sciences throughout the state. Upon admittance to the union, Alabama received from the federal government the sixteenth section in each township for schools. Additionally, two townships or 46,080 acres were reserved for a college. These federal land grants to the states for education were provided for in the 1787 Northwest Ordinance and were later applied to all lands in the Southwest of which Alabama was a part. The state thus appeared to have adequate support in land and a favorable attitude in government for educational development. It seemed as if Alabama were capable of establishing a statewide public-supported school system similar to those of other educationally progressive states. This did not happen because many factors entered into the delay.[17]

More often than not in Alabama the land reserved for education was sold to obtain funds to support schools. These funds derived from land sales were the

only source of revenue for public schools. The funds did not serve the purpose for which they were intended, because variations in the value of Alabama lands made them an inadequate school revenue. The funds were inadequate, too, because the federal land grant for education was not made to the state as a whole but to the several townships within the state. Townships with richer farm lands, such as the Black Belt communities, obviously derived more money for their schools from the sale of their more valuable land. Farmers and planters in those areas did not need public schools anyway for they could afford private school for their children. Townships with poor farm land, such as the hill counties of North Alabama, received very little money from local land sales for their school fund; and schools, if they were established at all, were not adequately funded. Farmers in these areas could not afford private schools. After 1837 the federal government attempted to rectify the situation by granting the lands directly to the states. Under this new policy Alabama could distribute the money from the sale of the lands evenly throughout the state. The wealthy areas in the state still had the advantage, for by 1837 their school land was already sold at a high price and the money already used locally. Little or no school money was available to distribute to poverty areas where schools were inadequate or nonexistent.[18]

In 1836 the federal government also divided the surplus from the sale of national public lands among the states. Alabama's share amounted to $669,086.78; was placed in the State Bank, and was credited to the state public school fund. When the Bank failed in 1843 as a result of the 1837 economic crisis, the funds were lost. Many schools closed and others remained open through private subscriptions. In 1848 Alabama petitioned Congress for the right to sell all public lands within its boundaries to support public education. In addition, the state asked Congress to appropriate for Alabama schools 100,000 acres of land set aside in 1841 for internal improvement in Alabama. Congress granted both requests. Even funds derived from the sale of these lands failed to meet the operating expenses of public schools. As Gabriel B. Duval, superintendent of public schools, said in his report for 1858, "These funds have no existence, they are tangible neither to feeling nor to sight."[19]

Reasons other than monetary ones held back education in Alabama. Most Alabamians had little appreciation of the need for public education; people were generally more concerned with material progress. Many argued that education was a private matter and not the obligation of the state. Money was scarce in the antebellum period, and people were reluctant to pay taxes for education when they remembered the mismanagement and loss of the sixteenth section fund and other educational funds through the failure of the State Bank. Many Alabamians attached a social stigma to public education since people of means generally hired private tutors or organized small private schools.[20]

In 1852 the people of Mobile founded their own system of public education directed by a board of commissioners that could establish and regulate schools. The Mobile public school system began primarily because Willis G. Clark, a prominent Mobile lawyer and one of the editors of the *Mobile Commercial Register*, became chairman of the Mobile School Board of Commissioners in

1851. Clark developed an interest in education and traveled in various northern states to study outstanding school systems. Acting under Clark's advice, the Mobile schools began deriving operating funds from sources of revenue commonly used for education throughout the United States in the period, such as fines, land grants, liquor taxes, and a certain percentage of ordinary taxes. The Board of Commissioners also raised $50,000 by lottery for support of the county schools. The commissioners also expanded their powers and created the office of superintendent of public schools. The creation of the office served the two-fold purpose of providing some centralized control and designating a public official whose sole business was that of promoting public education.[21]

The first of the Mobile public schools was Barton Academy. It was built in 1835-36 with money raised from a public lottery. The building was named for Willoughby Barton, an extensive land owner in the area, and was initially used by parochial schools, such as the Methodist Parish School. Mobile took over the building in November, 1852. In that year the public school enrollment was only 400 children, but by February, 1853, the enrollment had reached 854. Although wealthy planters opposed the public school plan by arguing that education was a private affair, public education was in operation throughout Mobile County by 1854. In that year the Board of Mobile School Commissioners organized Barton Academy into six departments. The first department was the Primary, where the child began his studies, tuition free, and remained in the section until he mastered each subject to the satisfaction of the teacher. Upon completion of the primary grades a child presumably could read easy lessons in prose and verse, spell the words in the reading lessons and explain marks of punctuation, count to 100, and answer simple questions in arithmetic and geography. The Intermediate Department offered a slightly more sophisticated curriculum but was also tuition free. Students completing this school could read and spell the English language; articulate and speak well; write words, numbers, and sentences plainly on the slates and blackboards used in the school; recite ordinary addition, multiplication, and subtraction tables; and count in Roman and Arabic numerals to 1,000. The Mobile Board of Commissioners also encouraged Biblical studies and singing.[22]

The remaining departments charged a small tuition fee, more as an incentive to remove the pauper stigma from the schools than as a necessity. The Grammar Schools charged $1.50 per month and the high schools, $3.00 per month. These upper division schools separated the boys and girls by a large fence. Students in the Grammar School for Boys learned spelling, reading, penmanship, arithmetic, geography, the English language, elocution, composition, elements of algebra, geometry, trigonometry, outline drawing, bookkeeping, and history of the United States. The program was usually completed in four to five years; but advanced students often received extra instruction in chemistry, physics, and national history. The Grammar School for Girls offered the same courses but substituted physiology and French for geometry, trigonometry, and bookkeeping. The Latin School's curriculum resembled that of the Grammar School. Additional courses, however, included Latin, Greek, French, Spanish, and ancient history. The

female counterpart to the Latin School was the High School for Girls. This school offered literature, rhetoric, astronomy, chemistry, intellectual and moral science, logic, general history, and botany.[23]

Alabama's first public school operated efficiently and confidently. The superintendent supervised the public schools and made annual recommendations to the Board of Commissioners. The principal was a teacher and administrator. He kept financial records and tended the school grounds. The greatest burden in the school system fell upon the teachers who were instructors and disciplinarians. Students apparently learned good manners as well as some knowledge of academic subjects. Teachers were supposed to enrich each lesson with additional facts and illustrations from the "stores of their own minds." They were directed to teach pupils self-reliance, inquiry, and understanding. As if this role were not demanding enough, teachers were also expected to teach the students good social habits. It was reasoned that if teachers stressed the importance of purity, integrity, truthfulness, punctuality, order, industry, and neatness; then they would certainly exert "an elevating and refining influence over their pupils."[24]

Students were financially liable for accidentally or maliciously damaging school property. They were subject to expulsion or corporal punishment for using or writing profanity or for drawing obscene pictures around the school. The school recommended expulsion or suspension for irregular attendance, indolence, or failure to obey the school rules.[25]

The success of the Mobile system was influential upon the state as a whole. Soon prominent Alabamians, including William L. Yancey, Governors Reuben Chapman and Henry W. Collier, and Mobile legislator A. B. Meek, began advocating a complete investigation and revision of the state public educational structure. Such a revision was needed, for methods of teaching were usually wasteful and ineffective. Classes were ungraded and taught by one teacher. The teacher usually taught at several public schools or had another more important occupation. Pupils often did not study the same lessons. The teachers might hear aloud the lessons of one group of students while another group was studying. This was confusing to both pupils and teacher. Since the teacher gave most of his time to hearing lessons, he gave little time to other types of instruction. Group discussions were rare. Discipline was harsh, and sometimes cruel, with strict rules and regulations marking the school routine. The curriculum was mainly composed of reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, spelling, and penmanship. Teachers often emphasized arithmetic because of its practical use in everyday life. History and grammar were considered advanced subjects. Books on geography and history, when used at all, served as readers rather than as guides for historical and geographical study. Books used most frequently, such as *The New England Primer*, served the three-fold purpose of readers, moral instructors, and guides.[26]

To revise this educational structure, Meek introduced the Public Education Act of 1854. Opposing the Act, some Alabamians argued that the bill armed a state superintendent with arbitrary powers enabling him to dictate to "free peo-

ple" how their children would be educated. This bill passed, however, and provided for some centralization of the state school system. The Act empowered the legislature to elect a state superintendent of education for a two-year term of office. The Act also appropriated $100,000 from the state treasury each year for public schools. Additional money for the public schools came from revenue derived from taxes on insurance companies and railroads and the sixteenth section lands that still belonged to the schools. The Act authorized each county to levy a 10 percent tax on real and personal property for the benefit of the schools. In 1855 when the first year schools were in operation under the new education act, the total state school fund amounted to more than $237,000. Several additional acts, passed in 1854 and 1856, increased state school funds, required judges of probate to enumerate children of school age, lowered tuition, raised qualifications for teachers, and created a county superintendent of education to take the place of the county school commissioners. Trustees, however, were still provided for the school districts.[27]

The earliest record of attempts to license teachers came about 1854 when the state's public school system was established. Under the existing law, three commissioners of free public schools were elected for each county every two years. These three along with the judge of probate constituted the commissioners who were charged with examining and licensing teachers.

Under William F. Perry, first elected state superintendent of schools by the Alabama Legislature, teachers held annual conventions in the counties. The Alabama Educational Association was organized in 1856. This organization, together with the *Alabama Educational Journal* first published in 1856 and the *Southern Teacher* first published in Montgomery in 1859, did much to arouse interest in education and encourage higher standards for teachers. Perry tried to standardize the course of study for Alabama schools. He introduced into the public schools courses such as United States history, general history, geography, natural philosophy, astronomy, physiology, and hygiene. By modern standards, teachers in the public schools were poorly trained and paid. School buildings were primitive—usually unplastered log cabins without chimneys, stoves, or unfinished ceilings. These uninviting buildings were schools only because they were fit for no other use. A water bucket and drinking cup or gourd stood on a crude table within the school building, and all children drank from the same cup. Sanitary facilities were non-existent. Desks made from undressed boards were arranged around the walls. Books, few in number, were poorly printed. The textbooks used most commonly included *Webster's Blue Back Spelling Book*, *Murray's Key*, and *McGuffey's Readers*. Recognizing all these problems and many more, Perry was still able to say optimistically after his first year of work, "I found the schools generally in operation and the people pleased and hopeful. . . . the public educational system of Alabama, though still crude and imperfect, has come to stay."[28]

While the public school system slowly gained favor among the poor and middle class families, the planters and wealthy merchants held it in ridicule and contempt. They established private schools with a more sophisticated curriculum for

their sons and daughters. Between 1820 and 1840 more than 200 of these academies were founded. The state legislature chartered academies for churches, fraternal organizations, groups of people, a community, or even an individual. Although lines were not clearly drawn between elementary schools and academies (and academies and colleges, for that matter), academies were generally expected to give advanced instruction. They could compare roughly to the secondary schools of a later date, but many of them also gave instruction to beginners. Academies were often, but not always, boarding schools. They were private schools; some being exempt from taxes; but none of them received other financial aid from the state. The academies which were run for profit had to pay their own way; consequently, the chief income of all academies was tuition paid by the students, often in advance. Tuition varied from $10 to $30 per course. Sometimes schools charged extra fees for items such as firewood or books. Teachers and administrators of the academies campaigned vigorously in the newspapers for pupils, promising to teach "English, Latin, and Greek languages grammatically." Reflecting the sectionalism in the United States in the early 1800's, many schools emphasized that students would be guided in their studies by native Southerners. Discipline was rigidly maintained, for students were to be taught the "habit of order and economy which may fit them for the situation they may hereafter hold in society."[29]

Many communities had both male and female academies since few schools beyond the lowest grades were coeducational; however, there were exceptions. The Literary Institution in North Alabama taught males and females at the same school. Some towns had several institutions. Talladega, for example, had East Alabama Masonic Female Institute, Talladega Male High School, Southward Select School, and Presbyterian Collegiate Female Institute. Huntsville, Tuscaloosa, Selma, Montgomery, and Mobile were other places that sustained numerous schools.[30]

The first academy for girls, founded at Athens in 1822, flourished. The Tuscaloosa Female Association and the Selma Ladies' Education Society were other outstanding female schools. Courses in such institutions usually included grammar, history, arithmetic, geography, music, French, embroidery, and painting. Often the schools emphasized that they did not merely teach "a smattering of memorized trifles from a book" but taught "a knowledge of principles and polite manners." The Alabama Female Institute of Tuscaloosa expressed its purpose in the school motto, "Our girls may be as cornerstones, polished after the similitude of a palace." The Centenary Institute at Summerfield claimed that "to educate woman is to refine the world."[31]

One of the best known and most successful male academies run by an individual was Professor Henry Tutwiler's Green Springs School. Tutwiler, the holder of two degrees from the University of Virginia, was on the faculties of both the University of Alabama and LaGrange College before deciding to establish his own academy in 1847. He chose Green Springs, a popular resort in present Hale (then Greene) County, which was not far from the village of Havana. The first buildings were the remodeled hotel buildings of the old resort.

The Academy was a success from the beginning. It gave training primarily in mathematics and the classics and also placed emphasis on science, which was unusual for the day. A chemistry laboratory, a telescope, and a library of some 1,500 volumes made this college preparatory school even more unusual. Because there was always a waiting list, Tutwiler could select his students carefully and replace any obstinate boy he had to send home. Green Springs continued without interruption until 1877 when Tutwiler, in bad health, took a year's rest. Operation of the school began again in the fall of 1879 and continued until Tutwiler's death in 1884.[32]

Other schools existed besides academies and public schools. Wealthy families could and did hire tutors. In other places groups of planters jointed informally to hire a teacher, construct a simple log building, and thus open a school. The course of study was similar to that of the academies, and the school term was usually about five months. Sometimes the schools were called "old field" schools because of their location in an abandoned clearing. Philip Henry Gosse, later a noted author and the founder of marine biology, had such a school at Pleasant Hill in Dallas County in 1838. Another, more advanced type of school, was the one established in Prattville by Daniel Pratt, the noted Alabama industrialist. Pratt incorporated in his school some of the then more progressive features of the schools of his native New England. These features included the Socratic method of teaching and desks arranged in parallel rows facing the teacher.[33]

The steady decline in the number of academies and other private educational facilities between 1840 and 1860 shows the gradual acceptance of public schools, even among planters. The War Between the States forced many private institutions to close. After Reconstruction, with cotton wealth swept away, many of these institutions were absorbed by colleges and the public high school system. Academies lingered longest in the Tennessee Valley and in the Black Belt, centers of planter population.[34]

The formal education of blacks, both slave and free, was practically nonexistent, for their education was determined solely by the white ruling class. Many slave plantations in Alabama, however, were practically industrial schools. Some slaves received training as farmers, carpenters, blacksmiths, wheelwrights, brickmasons, engineers, cooks, laundresses, seamstresses, and housekeepers. Initially, those slaves who showed special aptitude were taught writing, reading and simple arithmetic. Some even attained positions of stewardship and kept account books for their masters and managed the plantations in their absence. In 1830 as abolition sentiment gained headway in the North — with a resultant influx of northern literature into Alabama calling for emancipation of slaves — the meager and crude education advantages were taken away by law. Because many planters feared learning would cause insurrection, they often denied slaves all printed matter. The Alabama Act of 1832 declared that anyone teaching blacks, free or slave, to read or write would be fined from $250 to $300, and that assemblies of Negroes were illegal unless "five respectable slave owners" were present. Still, some blacks acquired an education and learned the skilled trades. Some charitable slave owners secretly continued to teach their more intelligent

slaves reading and writing despite the laws. The establishment of the African Church in Alabama probably furthered education among blacks simply because blacks could gather and converse at least once a week during their Sunday worship. Among free blacks in Alabama in 1850 the illiteracy rate was only 20.7 percent as compared to an 18.9 percent illiteracy rate for whites. Probably the favorable showing of free blacks in the state was due to the high percentage living in Mobile where by 1860 over 100 free black children attended public school; still, this is an amazing fact given the restrictive society in which the free black was placed. By the clandestine efforts of anti-slavery workers, by the selfish motives of some masters realizing that literate slaves with the ability to transact business accrued more profits to the owner, and by the basic kindness of masters and mistresses, the black received some scanty educational instruction in the antebellum period.[35]

Shortly after Alabama entered the Union in 1819, the State Legislature passed an act to incorporate a state university. The United States granted 46,080 acres of land for this purpose, and funds from the sale of the lands were placed in the state bank for a university. State officials chose Tuscaloosa as the site for the school and construction began in 1827. The University of Alabama opened in 1831 with Alva Woods as its first president. Funds realized from tuition were negligible, and the patrons soon became dissatisfied with Woods' management of the school. Among other things, Woods instituted a system of discipline that antagonized his students. He maintained an elaborate espionage network to report all infractions of school rules. Infuriated, the students rebelled repeatedly and on more than one occasion marched in protest from the school chapel. The rebellions finally caused the spying to be abandoned. Woods resigned in 1837 and was succeeded by the very able Basil Manly, who began his first term with only thirty-eight students.[36]

The University remained small throughout the antebellum period. It reached a peak enrollment with 158 students in 1836. The school had some noted faculty members in its early years. In 1831 the trustees employed James G. Birney, later a noted abolitionist, to find a faculty. Among those he hired were Henry Tutwiler of the University of Virginia, appointed professor of ancient languages and later a leading educator in the state; Henry W. Hilliard, a professor of English literature who became an outstanding Whig politician; F. A. P. Barnard, later a noteworthy faculty member who became president of the University of Mississippi and of Columbia University; Michael Tuomey, professor of geology who made the first geological survey of the state; and John Williams Mallet, professor of chemistry who was the first scientist in America to weigh the atom.[37]

The state bank failed in 1843 in the financial debacle that followed the Panic of 1837 and lost approximately $300,000 of the University of Alabama's funds as well as the public school fund. This severely crippled the school. It was kept open only by loans, donations, and strict economic measures. In 1848 a reluctant legislature fixed the state's debt to the University at $250,000, but not until 1860 was the matter taken up again when the legislature increased the amount to $300,000 with interest at 8 percent.[38]

Church colleges were more popular than the state-supported institution in antebellum Alabama and were quite numerous. LaGrange College, founded by the Methodists in 1830 in North Alabama, had an enrollment almost twice as large as the University of Alabama, and it was the first degree-granting institution in the state. The industrious Methodists founded or undertook the management of more than fifteen schools and colleges in Alabama. Some of the more successful Methodist institutions were the Athens Female College, founded in 1840; the Tuskegee Female College and Southern University, founded in 1856; and East Alabama Male Institute, founded in 1859. Athens College was in northern Alabama, but the others were in or close to the Black Belt. LaGrange College is no longer in existence, but Athens College is today a small liberal arts college in the same location. Tuskegee Female College became Huntingdon College in Montgomery in 1909. The Methodists gave the East Alabama Male College to the state in 1872 to be the site of the Agricultural and Mechanical College, today's Auburn University. The other Methodist college, Southern University, moved in 1918 to Birmingham where it combined with Birmingham College to become Birmingham-Southern College.[39]

In 1830 the Roman Catholic Church built Spring Hill College near Mobile. It came under the control in 1847 of the Jesuits, who still operate the school today. An early prejudice against formal education, especially the education of ministers, delayed the establishment of most Baptist colleges. This church, however, did found Judson Female College in 1839 and Howard College in 1841, both at Marion, Alabama, in the Black Belt. Judson College is still at Marion, but Howard College moved to Birmingham in 1887 and recently was renamed Samford University.[46]

The manual labor school, which incorporated academic study and physical work at some productive job, was popular in the United States around the 1830's; however, few existed in Alabama. The Presbyterians attempted to establish such a school at Marion on December 16, 1833. It was known as the Manual Labor Institute of South Alabama, Perry County. Similarly, the Baptists opened for a few years at Greensboro the Alabama Institute of Literature and Industry, popularly known as the Manual Labor School. It began in the fall of 1835 on a 335-acre farm with fifty students. During the first year the farm provided 700 bushels of corn and 150 bushels of sweet potatoes. The primary purpose of the school was to train ministers, but the Baptist school officials decided to admit other young men who wished to pursue literary studies. The school failed in 1837, partly because of the financial panic and partly from dissension within the faculty. It moved to Marion the next year, after which its fate is obscure.[41]

For a variety of reasons Alabama had a good record in collegiate education: the state recognized the need for trained leaders; it had ample educational funds available because of the booming cotton economy; and rivalry among religious groups produced a plethora of institutions of higher learning. Undoubtedly some of the institutions listed as colleges in the state were not much more than academies or "log-cabin colleges." Most of the colleges in Alabama, however, employed excellent faculties composed of graduates from eastern universities

and colleges. The curriculum, habitually emphasizing classical subjects at the expense of the exact sciences, was comparable to the curriculum in other states; yet, in Alabama, as in the rest of the South, academic freedom was often suppressed. Professors could not select their own textbooks, nor speak out against slavery, nor hold unorthodox religious views. Students were taught to be thoroughly conservative in character. Although some wealthy Alabamians sent their children to colleges in the North, very few northern students attended Alabama schools; thus, the homogeneity of students in Alabama universities and colleges was rarely broken by stimulating clashes with northern students.[42]

A statewide scarcity of competent physicians in antebellum Alabama turned attention to education in medicine. Josiah Nott, a distinguished Mobile physician who was arguing as early as 1848 that insects carried yellow fever, was active in promoting the idea of a state medical school. The Alabama Medical Association, organized in 1846, supported the campaign. In 1856 the State Legislature passed an act authorizing the establishment of such an institution; however, typical of the time, it did not appropriate money for a medical school. In 1859 Dr. Nott opened the school under a private charter and was able to get $50,000 in state money to supplement an equal sum raised by Mobile citizens. When the Medical College of Alabama opened at Mobile in 1859 as a department of the University of Alabama, it had 111 students enrolled. The school closed sometime during the War Between the States, and after occupation by the Freedman's Bureau from 1865-1868 as a school for blacks, it did not reopen for several years.[43]

The Normal Institute at Montgomery, established in 1854, was the first school to promote teacher training in the state. A year later officials at Barton Academy in Mobile added a course for teachers to that school's curriculum. Another area of education that developed in the antebellum period was the training of handicapped persons. Alabama established a school for the deaf and dumb at Talladega in 1860 and by 1867 added a school for the blind. The school, under the able direction of Joseph Henry Johnson, taught pupils to use a sign language and instructed them in English, geography, mathematics, and other subjects. The school also taught trades to its students.[44]

In 1861 at the outbreak of the War Between the States education in Alabama was making slow but steady progress. Many educational societies existed and 395 libraries were operating. There were 61,751 pupils enrolled in 1,903 public schools and 10,778 students in the 206 academies and private schools. Several counties had nine-month school terms, and the average term was six and one-half months. The total expenditure for public schools was more than one-half million dollars, but at least half of this was from tuition and other sources. The total enrollment of Alabama's seventeen colleges was 2,120.[45]

Alabama left the Union on January 11, 1861, and the educational system in the state immediately felt the effects of secession and the resultant War Between the States. As the state threw itself patriotically behind the Southern war effort, teachers who did not support the Confederacy were dismissed from their positions for fear they might poison the minds of the young. Alabamians believed, as did most Southerners of the time, that they were a distinctive people; they de-

manded that education support their point of view. A problem which quickly arose as a result of war was a scarcity of textbooks. Alabama, as the rest of the South, depended on northern publishers for books. In 1861 Sigmund H. Goetzel, a Mobile publisher, suggested that teachers in the Confederacy hold a convention to discuss the subject of textbooks. It was several years before such a meeting took place, and the convention's recommendation to establish more Southern publishing houses was never acted upon. Mobile overcame crippling shortages of paper and ink caused by the Union blockade and became one of the chief publication centers of textbooks for the Confederacy. A difficult educational problem in war-time Alabama was the orphans of soldiers. Responding to this challenge, citizens in the state raised $175,000 for the education of such orphans. Also the Episcopal Church, which established a school for orphans in Livingston, was among several organized groups which aided the orphans.[46]

Educational institutions in Alabama were hard pressed by war. The public or common schools practically disappeared. The war-torn state's Superintendent of Public Schools, Gabriel B. DuVal, could never consistently attend to his job for he was often on the battlefront as captain of a company of volunteers. Rampant inflation in the Confederate economy prostrated the financial operations of the state education department. The state pumped more and more money into Confederate military operations, leaving little for education. Educational expenditures dropped from one-half million dollars in 1858 to approximately $284,000 in 1861 and then to $112,783 in 1865. Interestingly enough, however, by an act in February 1860 additional sums were spent on the scholastic and military training of "State Cadets." These would be Confederate leaders attending the military schools at Glenville in Barbour County and at LaGrange in Franklin County. Each cadet received $250 a year for his education in return for agreeing to return to his own county, "and there teach and drill the militia" for the same length of time as he received state support in school. This program actually did little to aid the educational system in the state. Lack of operating expenses was not the only problem of the state education department. Dedicated department officials were forced to cart the records, books, and papers of the education department around the country after 1863 to keep them from senseless destruction by marauding troopers. DuVal's correspondence as superintendent during the war was small and fragmentary, but the public schools did not lose their general character. He distributed what meager funds were available each year, called for school reports, and promoted education throughout the state as late as March 1865.[47]

Higher education for women in Alabama probably suffered least during the war. The many female colleges and collegiate institutions, most of which granted no degrees, continued to thrive in the uninvaded parts of Alabama and continued to advertise for students. The college at Huntsville announced to prospective students a few months before the town was occupied by Federal troops that it was out of the way of military operations and that its president had "been well known, for months past, as an open advocate, with tongue and pen, for Southern rights and Southern independence."[48]

Male colleges and academies, on the other hand, were all but deserted. The

enthusiasm of secession times carried many of the male college students and teachers in the state into the Confederate Army. Conscription took most of the other students or teachers if initial fervor did not propel them to the battlefront. Invading Union armies also did much irreparable physical damage to schools; for instance, on April 4, 1865, fast moving Federal troops captured Tuscaloosa and burned the University of Alabama, because northern generals considered the school a "military university" which trained young men for Confederate service. In other areas school and college buildings were used as barracks for soldiers and as refuges for Negroes who straggled off the plantations to be housed and fed by the federal government. Education naturally suffered during this ruinous and costly civil war. Many existing schools closed, while others scarcely survived.[49]

FOOTNOTES

Beginnings to 1865

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[2]Moore. 27; Albert James Pickett. *History of Alabama*. 76. 95. 134; William Bartram. *Travels Through North and South Carolina, Georgia, East and West Florida*. 448-454; Thomas Hutchins. *Topographic History*. 38-40.

[3]Peter J. Hamilton. *Colonial Mobile: An Historical Study*. 77-78. 81-82; Malcom C. McMillan. *This Land Called Alabama*. 46.

[4]Charles Edward O'Neill. *Church and State in Colonial Louisiana Policy and Politics to 1732*. 157-160. 165; Hamilton. *Colonial Mobile: An Historical Study*. 77-78. 81-82; Pickett. 170-270. 271; Clark. 25.

[5]O'Neill. 157-160. 165. 224-226. Hamilton. 77-78. 81-82; Moore. 316; Clark. 25. Pickett. 179. 270-271; *The Education of American Indians; A Survey of the Literature*. Special Subcommittee on Indian Education (Washington: Government Printing Office. 1969). 5.

[6]Pickett. 179; O'Neill. 143; Moore. 316.

[7]O'Neill. 143; Clark. 26; Moore. 316.

[8]Cecil Johnson. *British West Florida 1763-1783*. 163.

[9]Johnson. 168; Dunbar Rowland. *Life, Letters and Papers of William Dunbar*. 72; Hamilton. *Mobile of the Five Flags*. 157.

[10]*Education of American Indians: A Survey of the Literature*. 24; Moore. 316; Clark. 26.

[11]*Alabama: A Guide to the Deep South*. Works Projects Administration. 94; Pickett. 469; Moore. 316.

[12]William H. Brantley. *Three Capitols: A Book About the First Three Capitols of Alabama*. 8-9. 214; Moore. 316.

[13]Brantley. 25.255 n; Pickett. 634; *Acts First Session*. Alabama Territory. 22. 101 (February 7. 1818).

[14]Lucille Griffith. *Alabama: A Documentary History to 1900* (University: University of Alabama Press. 1968) 247-248.

[15]*Huntsville Republican*, August 5. 1817; *Alabama Republican*. June 12. 1819; Stephen B. Weeks. *History of Public School Education in Alabama*. 27.

[16]Weeks. 23-24; Gaines' *Reminiscences*. Alabama Historical Quarterly. 1964. 147. 161. 183. 190; Griffith. 237.

[17]Griffith. 248; Works Projects Administration. 94-95; Edgar W. Knight. *Public Education in the South*. 136; *An Educational Study of Alabama*. U. S. Department of the Interior. 33-34; Weeks. 28.

[18]*Alabama: A Guide to the Deep South*. Works Projects Administration. 94-95; *An Educational Study of Alabama*. U. S. Department of the Interior. 33-34; *Alabama Republican*. November 17. 1820; Griffith. 248; McMillan. 150; *Jacksonville Republican*. July 28. 1837.

[19]Works Projects Administration. 95; Clark. 28; Weeks. 30.

[20]Clement Eaton. *Freedom of Thought in the Old South*. 38-39; McMillan. 132-135; Works Projects Administration. 95.

[21]Works Projects Administration. 95; Griffith. 260.

[22]Mobile School Manual. 1854
Works Projects Administration. 95; Griffith 260. Department of Interior. 37-38; Eaton. 38-39.

[23]*Ibid.*

[24]*Ibid.*

[25]*Ibid.*

[26]Works Projects Administration. 95; McMillan 152. 155; *Alabama Journal*. November 25. 1825; Knight. 269-305.

[27]Knight. 235; Works Projects Administration. 95; McMillan 156; Weeks. 63.

[28]W. F. Perry. "Genesis of Public Education in Alabama." *Transactions of the Alabama Historical Society*. Volume II. 18-27; Works Projects Administration. 96; McMillan 156. *Mobile Commercial Register*. January 9. 1823; Weeks. 56-57.

[29]McMillan. 152; Griffith. 249; Works Projects Administration. 96; Hall. 196; *Mobile Commercial Register*. January 27. February 14. March 13. March 24. October 29. 1823; *Alabama Republican*. September 15. October 27. 1820. November 16. 1821; *The Courier*. January 3. 1828; *Jacksonville Republican*. January 12. February 11. October 5. 1837; *Alabama Journal*. October 14. 1825; *The Telegraph and Patriot*. December 16. June 2. 1852. May 31. 1828; *Alabama Sentinel*. March 17. 1926; Eaton. *The Mind of the Old South*. 38-39. 59-60. 74-75.

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[31]T. P. Abernethey. *The Formative Period in Alabama, 1815-1828*. 156-157; Works Projects Administration. 96; Griffith. 249; *Mobile Commercial Register*. February 14. March 13. March 24. 1823; *The Southern Union*. November 10. 1849; *American Whig*. January 7. 1826; *The Tuscumbian*. January 17. 1825; *Jacksonville Republican*. June 1. 1837; *The East Alabamian*. July 29. 1843; *Alabama Sentinel*. March 17. 1826.

[32]Griffith. 250-253; McMillan. 153; Clark. 206.

[33]*Jacksonville Republican*. January 12. November 11. 1837; *Alabama Republican*. September 15. October 27. 1820; *The Southern Advocate*. March 23. 1827; *The Central Enquirer*. May 12. 1860; *Mobile Commercial Register*. March 20. 1823; Griffith. 253; Shadrich Mims. "History of Autauga County." *Alabama Historical Quarterly*. Volume VIII. 269; P. H. Gosse. *Letters from Alabama Relating to Natural History*. (London: Morgan and Chase. 1859). 43-44.

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[35]Horace Mann Bond. *Negro Education in Alabama: A Study in Cotton and Steel*. 15. 17-20; John G. Aiken. *A Digest of the Laws of the State of Alabama to 1833*. (Philadelphia. Alexander Tower. 1833). 397; Booker T. Washington. "The Industrial Education for the Negro." *The Negro Problem: A Series of Articles by Representative American Negroes of Today*. (New York. James Pott and Company. 1903). 11; Department of Interior. 40; Seventh Census of the United States. 1850. (Washington: Government Printing 1852). 428.

[36]Griffith. 268; Works Projects Administration. 98. McMillan. 158; Alabama Acts First Session. 1820. 4; Alabama Acts First Session. 1821. 3; *Senate Journal*. 1825; Brantley. 91. 98. 105. 160.

[37]McMillan. 159; Works Projects Administration. 96-98; Griffith. 268-277; Eaton. *Freedom of Thought in the Old South*. 242.

[38]*Ibid.*

[39]Griffith. 277; McMillan. 159; Works Projects Administration. 97.

[46]*Ibid.*

[47]Griffith, 277.

[48]Eaton, *Freedom of Thought in the Old South*, 196, 199, 209-212, 216-217; Eaton, *The Mind of the Old South*, 156-157; Works Projects Administration, 97.

[49]Works Projects Administration, 98; McMillan, 160.

[50]Works Projects Administration, 98; Griffith, 282; McMillan, 161.

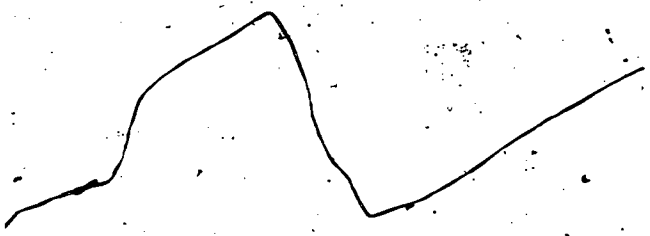
[51]Works Projects Administration, 98; McMillan, 156.

[52]E. Merton Coulter, *The South During Reconstruction*, 516-519.

[53]Weeks, 79-83; Coulter, 519.

[54]Coulter, 520.

[55]Coulter, 520; Moore, 535-536; McMillan, 216; Works Projects Administration, 98.



1865-1874

The strife, turmoil, and financial strain of the War Between the States severely retarded educational progress in Alabama. Recovery would have been difficult under the most advantageous circumstances, but Northern occupation and Reconstruction after the war plunged Alabama into a chaotic period which affected all aspects of life in the state, not the least of which was education. Even so, Alabama endured this period and the Reconstruction years were not totally barren of educational progress.

In the difficult years following the end of the War Between the States and prior to the State Constitution of 1868, a provisional assembly governed Alabama according to the moderate plan of Reconstruction proposed by President Abraham Lincoln. In an effort to bring the public schools into working order, this assembly provided for an educational system similar to the one which operated before the war. Under this system the state maintained schools for every child between the ages of six and twenty years.[1]

This educational scheme was shortlived, for on February 4, 1868, Alabama adopted a new state constitution based on the more restrictive and radical Congressional Plan of Reconstruction. This new Constitution not only recognized education as a duty of the state, buf also contrived a totally unique system of education in Alabama—The State Board of Education. This new body had both administrative and unlimited legislative power over all public schools and other state-supported educational institutions. The State Superintendent of Public In-

struction became the president of the Board, and the governor of Alabama sat with the Board as an ex officio member. Subsequent constitutional provisions also broadened the functions and scope of the Board.[2]

In addition to these provisions the 1868 Constitution established free schools, with at least one school in each township, for all children in the state between the ages of five and twenty-one. Finances other than income from school lands were needed to maintain these "free schools"; consequently, the Reconstruction Government of the state levied a poll tax and legalized taxes on business enterprises to obtain money to finance these schools. The big financial boost, however, was a constitutional provision which appropriated one fifth of the state's revenue for education. Thus, the state began a completely new educational system.[3]

Despite these favorable constitutional provisions, funding problems developed immediately and public education made little progress. Schools under the Constitution could not be supplemented by private funds and subscriptions as they had been prior to 1868. More significant, however, than the lack of private contributions was the misuse of the existing state school funds by state officials after the War Between the States. The provisional governor apparently used the school funds, sometime before 1868, to meet other pressing debts of the state. Although the Reconstruction Legislature after 1868 acted immediately to provide money to meet these claims, a poorly worded proviso in the State Constitution enabled newly appointed and incompetent administrators to misappropriate the education fund for use in private and political ventures. Of $45,411.46 in the public education fund, only $9,019.02 was paid for legitimate claims.[4]

Another major problem was the general ineffectiveness of a system top heavy with incompetent administrators. The school officers appointed by N.B. Cloud, Republican superintendent of the State Board of Education during Reconstruction, were either corrupt or simply unqualified for their position. One appointee signed for his salary with an "x"; another was a preacher who had been expelled from his church for embezzling charity funds.[5]

Overlapping administrative jurisdiction caused other problems. The Freedmen's Bureau, a federal agency established during the war, and missionary groups were still active in the state. Their efforts were not easily coordinated with those of the state government. For instance, a state law provided that the state superintendent of education should act on the general understanding that the Freedmen's Bureau was to furnish school buildings, missionary associations were to select and transport competent teachers to the scene of their labors, the state was to examine and pay teachers, and the superintendent was to transfer schoolhouses controlled by the Bureau to the state. This complex administrative hierarchy, partially composed of incompetent officials, could not overcome the fiscal problems of Reconstruction.[6]

Probably the most profound problem was the intense animosity of the southern whites toward the alien Reconstruction government. Most native white Alabamians simply refused to support a public school system established by hated Reconstruction officials. Superintendent Cloud recognized this when he

said that the opposition to the school system was due to the dislike of the officials rather than to the system itself. Many northern teachers who went south during Reconstruction believed that the War Between the States had been fought by an educated northern civilization obligated to liberate the South from darkness. Southern whites resented this attitude, especially since native whites believed Alabama was a progressive leader in education in the South before the war; and her system of education was similar to other systems in other sections of the country. Moreover, the old antebellum resistance to the idea of "free" or "pauper" schools, as required by the Reconstruction constitution, still existed. The ultimate reaction to northern influence in education was manifested by white militant groups as the Ku Klux Klan, which often burned school houses to drive the teachers away.[7]

In the midst of such hostility it was unfortunate that the State Board of Education attempted to embark upon a statewide system of textbook selection. This action in the state aroused conservative elements who favored political decentralization. To make matters worse, a majority of native whites objected to some texts which were adopted. Native whites considered the Freedmen's readers and histories, which were prepared for use in the Negro schools, insulting in their accounts of southern leaders and southern ideologies. Among the readings in *The Freedmen's Book* were William Lloyd Garrison's "The Hour of Freedom" which described the wrongs against the Negro; a reading from a eulogy of the Haitian revolutionary, Toussant L'Ouverture; several of John Greenleaf Whittier's poems which gave accounts of the heroism of Negro soldiers in the Civil War and of the victory of Negro troops over the "Rebels"; and "John Brown" (edited by L. Maria Child) which glorified Brown's revolutionary movement. To horrify former Confederates completely, the book was dedicated to a Negro engineer who, during the War Between the States, delivered a Confederate steamer to the Union navy. Teachers in Alabama used these books for ten years in both white and black schools. The idea of a statewide system of textbooks in itself was progressive, but under the circumstances of Reconstruction it heightened the opposition to the entire system of education established by the reformers.[8]

The trials of the University of Alabama during Reconstruction reflect the problems of higher education. The University tried to resume classes in 1865 but only one student, the son of former Governor Thomas H. Watts, applied and the school failed to open. School officials spent the next three years rebuilding the school's physical facilities which had been burned during the war. Several additional but unsuccessful attempts were made to open the campus. Apparently some southern educators refused to teach in a school controlled by northern officials. Others, who were willing to teach, were not allowed to do so because they were former Confederates. The school finally opened with a northern faculty, many of whom were academically incompetent. A newly hired professor of oratory and rhetoric wrote to the school upon his selection of the faculty, "I 'except' the situation." In 1879 the doors of the University of Alabama closed again for there were no students to teach. Even if there had been students, there were

no teaching aids for some of the faculty had looted the school of its books and scientific equipment.[9]

Attempts to educate blacks were the most significant aspects of Reconstruction in Alabama. This movement actually began earlier, for blacks were educated in Alabama before the War Between the States ended. United States agents established schools for blacks on plantations and in Negro labor colonies prior to 1865 in those parts of the state occupied by Federal troops. The Freedmen's Bureau, northern churches, and other missionary groups began their support of schools for black children before the war ended, and by 1866 thousands of Northerners taught in these schools. Some whites feared the kind of education the northern missionary teachers might give and, immediately following the Confederate surrender, the whites began to advocate teaching freedmen at private expense. The provisional constitution provided for the education of every child, but it is questionable whether this was intended to include blacks. Various southern religious organizations advocated educating the newly freed blacks. Their efforts succeeded in securing native white teachers for the Bureau schools as early as 1866.[10]

The Board of Commissioners of Mobile County was the first school system to take official action concerning black education. As early as May 1867, the school board resolved to support public education for blacks. Because of this positive action, the Freedmen's Bureau appropriated $12,000 for black education in Mobile. In January 1868 the Board of Commissioners appropriated the entire amount of taxes paid by blacks to support Negro schools. Since Mobile had a large established population of free blacks before the war, this turned out to be a successful fund-raising technique. By the end of the 1868 school year, four black schools with an enrollment of 919 existed in Mobile County.[11]

After 1868 the radical Reconstructionists in the state promoted a state policy of public education for blacks. By 1871 there were 751 primary schools, 143 intermediate schools, 26 grammar schools, and two high schools in operation for Negro students. The average daily attendance was 41,308, and the schools employed 973 teachers. The schools were segregated unless the parents and guardians of the children in each district consented to biracial schools. Black schools grew, and by 1879 there was a total of 1,491 schools for blacks with 1,089 male and 496 female teachers; 67,386 pupils were officially enrolled, and the average daily attendance of a total Negro school population of 162,561 was 46,438.[12]

The first teacher training schools for blacks began during Reconstruction. Although an act in 1869 provided for black normal schools, there were few blacks who qualified to attend these schools and the scheme failed. In 1874 after several years of public education for blacks, the State Normal School and Colored University opened at Marion with one teacher and about forty pupils. The curriculum at Marion included reading, writing, spelling, geography, grammar, drawing, composition, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, physiology, Latin, methods of teaching, and chemistry. The enrollment grew to 100 students by 1875. At the

end of that year the principal announced that thirty of his graduates were teaching in the public schools. By 1880 there were 220 pupils enrolled at Marion.

The Huntsville Colored Normal School was organized in 1875 and by 1879 it had four teachers, an annual state appropriation of $2,000, and over sixty pupils. In 1882 with additional aid from the Peabody Fund (a private philanthropic fund which aided Negro education in the South for many years), the Board of Trustees of the school was able to purchase land in Huntsville and renovate a two-story brick building for school use. The Board also began collecting a library with the help of leading publishers of the North, the federal government, and private individuals.[14]

Emerson Institute, originally named Blue College, was organized in Mobile while the federal forces occupied the city in 1865. Initially a common school, the institute in 1872 received financial contributions from an Illinois philanthropist and became a boarding academy. The school became the property of the American Missionary Association, which also had a successful black school at Talladega and a number of other schools in the southern states.[15]

With the exception of Negro education, total progress in education during Reconstruction was unimpressive. In 1856 there were 2,281 public schools serving a total school population of 171,073, and the average number of days in a school term was 120. Fifteen years later, in 1870, the number of schools dropped to 1,845; but the school population which included blacks increased to 387,057, and the length of the school term was a mere 49 days. The teacher's salary in 1870 was $42.58 per month. In 1874 the number of schools increased to 3,898, and the school population increased to 406,270 with the total number of school days averaging 86; but the monthly salary for teachers dropped to approximately $25.00 per month. These statistics indicate that the Reconstruction government only slightly stimulated overall educational progress.[16]

Progress in higher education was more significant because of federal aid and private contributions, such as the Peabody Fund which aided both black and white colleges. Educational advancement during the Reconstruction years was thus sporadic and beset with many problems. Little progress was made because of a combination of factors—insufficient financing, corruption in government, and native white opposition. In the final analysis, however, education was a luxury and not yet a necessity for the people of Alabama of either race. Joseph Hodgson, the conservative State Superintendent of Education who served from 1870-72, preferred another interpretation. He explained in 1871 that Alabama was attempting to do more for public education than her means allowed and more in proportion to her population and resources than any of the older, more populous states. Although the effort was there, the means were not.[17]

Indeed, the Reconstruction government initiated several progressive educational measures which were theoretically sound, but practically impossible for the times. The Reconstruction government favored strong centralized state control over education. It made an effort to provide more public funds which were desperately needed. It initiated a system of totally free education and with the Freedmen's Bureau established public education for blacks. Many people of the

South recognized the potential merit of these measures; but political differences made a compromise with the Reconstruction government impractical. Education was clearly regarded as an instrument of social and economic policy by the different classes contending for control of the state. The fight to control education continued until 1874 when the Bourbons, the white ruling elite, regained control of the state.[18]

FOOTNOTES

1865-1874

[1]Edgar W. Knight, *Public Education in the South*, 314.

[2]Weeks, 87; Moore, 638.

[3]*Ibid.*

[4]Weeks, 89-90; Moore, 84-86; McMillan, *Constitutional Development of Alabama*, 115.

[5]Walter L. Fleming, *Civil War and Reconstruction in Alabama*, 609; Weeks, 88; McMillan, *Constitutional Development of Alabama*, 120.

[6]*Ibid.*

[7]Knight, 308-310; Moore, 624; Fleming, 464-468.

[8]Bond, 116; Weeks, 94-95.

[9]Moore, 640.

[10]Bond, 75-76; Fleming, 456; McMillan, 304; Coulter, 83-84; Fleming, 460.

[11]Clark, 270-271.

[12]Clark, 271-272; Weeks, 88.

[13]Clark, 273-275; Weeks, 274.

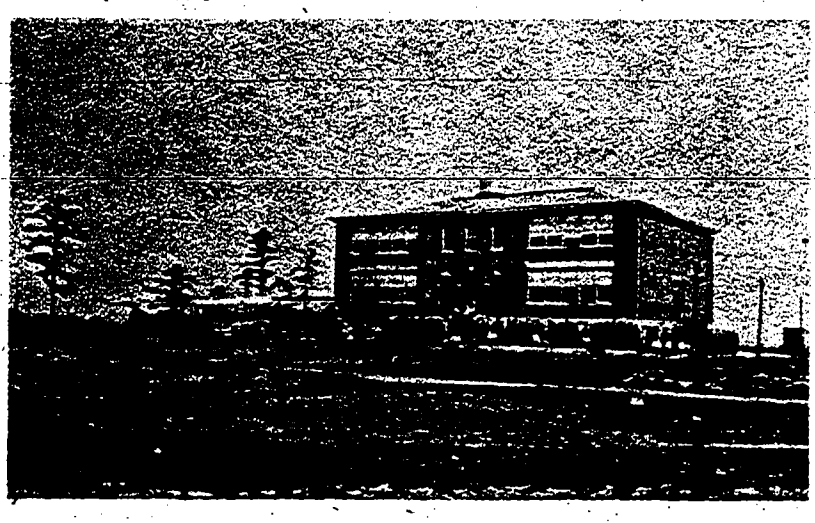
[14]*Ibid*, 277.

[15]Clark, 279-281.

[16]Weeks, 197; Department of Interior, 43.

[17]*Ibid.*

[18]Weeks, 98; Moore, 639; Bond, 115-119.



1874-1914

In the period after Reconstruction certain basic educational problems continued to burden Alabama, including the poverty of the people, sparsity of the population, the cost of maintaining separate school systems for the black and white races, a slim tax return, and a high birth rate. The Bourbons, who regained political control of the state from the Republicans in 1874, were generally more concerned with economy in state government than with education. Reacting to the corruption of the Reconstruction period, their conservative economic policies made education a luxury rather than a necessity. The new Alabama Constitution of 1875 designed by the Bourbons nullified practically all those Reconstruction constitution measures which were designed to finance schools. The constitution abandoned the allotment of one-fifth of state revenue for education and restricted the amount of money which could be spent for any education purpose other than the salaries of teachers to 4 percent of the total state education fund. The newly established school fund consisted of income from United States land grants escheated and intestate estates, a $1.50 poll tax, and income from surplus revenue. Since the public land fund disappeared in antebellum times, the entire financing for the state educational system actually came from state taxation. Insufficient at best, the fund left little money for the administration of schools and none for the construction of school plants. This same constitution abolished the State Board of Education and required that the state superintendent be elected by popular vote. In the 1880's the State Legislature did adopt a policy of creating numerous school districts and endowing them with the power of local taxation to obtain money for schools, but the Alabama Supreme Court quickly ruled the laws unconstitutional on the grounds that school districts were neither counties nor municipalities.[1]

After the Supreme Court voided the taxing power of school districts, the Ala-

bama Education Association, the State Superintendent of Education, Solomon Palmer, and other prominent supporters of education inaugurated a movement for a constitutional amendment to provide local taxation for schools. It was the conviction of these people that the monetary needs of public schools could be obtained only through taxation for schools by counties, towns, school districts, and municipalities. In 1894 the Hendley Amendment, providing for local taxation by school districts, passed the legislature and was submitted to the people in the general election that year. It conferred upon school districts the power to levy a special tax of not more than 2.5 mills for education. Although the amendment received the support of the leading newspapers in the state; both candidates for governor; and J. L. McCurry, Director of the Peabody Fund for Education, it was defeated. It received a majority of all those voting for the amendment but did not meet the curious constitutional requirement that it receive a majority of all those voting for governor.[2]

With the defeat of the Hendley Amendment in 1894, the predominantly white counties of northern and southeastern Alabama began a campaign for a constitutional convention that would revitalize the public education system. The Alabama Federation of Women's Clubs, the Alabama Industrial and Commercial Association, and organized labor in Birmingham joined these supporters of public education in the state. Several Alabama governors, such as Joseph F. Johnston and Thomas Seay, linked the public education issue with the then popular issue of suffrage revision to stir up interest for a constitutional convention.[3]

In 1896 the Alabama Education Association appointed a committee chaired by John Herbert Phillips, noted superintendent of the Birmingham City Schools, to join the campaign for educational reform. The committee immediately began advocating a constitutional convention in which educational reforms could be undertaken. A report produced by the Phillips committee, although virtually ig-

nored in the constitutional convention in 1901. is significant because all of it was eventually adopted in the twentieth century. The Phillips report called for the establishment of school districts with local taxing power. the upgrading of professional requirements for superintendents. the creation of a state board of education. the allocation of a fixed percentage of the state's total revenue to education. a more equitable system of distributing school revenues. and the consolidation of small schools.[4]

Although the delegates to the Constitutional Convention of 1901 had a rare opportunity to promote free school education. they abandoned most of the educational reforms in the resultant 1901 Constitution. The Constitution. however. did lower the total amount of tax that might be levied by the state from 75 cents authorized by the Constitution of 1875 to 65 cents on each $100 worth of property. Of this amount the Constitution of 1901 set aside 30 cents on the $100 or 3 mills for public schools. This provision gave the schools a definite income which could grow with the increasing wealth of the state. The limit on the power of the counties and municipal corporations to tax was left as before. that is. 50 cents on the $100 or 5 mills; but it was provided that within this limit the counties might levy a tax of 10 cents on the $100 or 1 mill for school purposes. School districts. however. were not given the taxing power. Only four municipalities — Montgomery. Decatur. New Decatur. and Cullman — were given power to levy a special education tax. though other municipalities were not prohibited from making appropriations to the schools out of their general funds. Still. the school forces lost on the main issue. that of taxing power for all school districts. for which they had fought since the defeat of the Hendley Amendment.[5]

The school district taxing power proposal was defeated primarily because each education reform was considered not on the basis of its educational merit but on the basis of its relationship to a more controversial racial and economic issue. The representatives of the wealthy Black Belt communities. because their constituents could support private academies and tutors. argued that local taxes would give money derived from the taxation of white property owners for schooling of the majority Negro population. Consequently. the representatives of the northern white counties who supported school district taxing power attempted to safeguard the white property owners of the Black Belt by amending the district tax proposal to include a system of segregated taxes to insure that most tax money would still go to white schools. A coalition of Republicans and Populists who were sympathetic toward the blacks and Black Belt representatives defeated the measure because they did not want local taxation for schools under any condition.[6]

Educational leaders. including J. L. McCurry and Edgar G. Murphy. a leading educational propagandist. were disappointed over the failure of the constitution to invest school districts with power to levy taxes for school purposes. They were determined to keep the school district tax issue alive and did so throughout the post-Reconstruction period. Along with State Superintendent of Education John W. Abercrombie. they immediately began agitation for an amendment to the constitution conferring the taxing power upon school districts. Echoing the com-

mon view among education supporters. Abercrombie said, "The schools of Alabama can never rank with the schools of other states until provision is made for local taxation." The Alabama Education Association annually urged local taxation for schools for it, too, considered this taxation as one of the prime needs of public schools in the state.[7]

The financial need for Alabama education was imperative. Without more funds it was impossible to improve education. Money alone, however, could not insure the necessary progress in education, for Alabama faced other education problems. One of the most stupendous problems was incompetent teachers. Teachers and administrators had to be better trained before school funds could improve state education. Many teachers had inadequate training; teaching was little more than an avocation in Alabama. With salaries throughout the period averaging from $20 to $22 per month for only four-month terms and school buildings still in dilapidated conditions, few qualified people with sound scholarship and broad vision became teachers. The state improved conditions by establishing teacher training in normal schools or teacher colleges.[8]

Even before the Peabody Fund established Peabody Normal School in Nashville in 1875, the Alabama Legislature established the State Normal School in Florence in 1872. Alabama then became the first state in the South to begin permanent professional training for teachers at public expense. Florence State Normal, operated in part from the Peabody Fund, used the old campus of Florence Wesleyan University which, in turn, was connected with old LaGrange College. Similar schools for Negroes opened at Marion in 1874 and at Huntsville in 1875. In the 1880's normals for white teachers began at Troy, Livingston, and Jacksonville. These schools, located geographically to serve various parts of the state, patterned themselves after Florence. The desirability of teaching as a career for women created an additional need for the establishment of these teacher colleges. Women made up 51.2 percent of all southern teachers by 1880 and 58.9 percent ten years later. Julia Tutwiler became president of Livingston Normal and was one of the most influential figures in Southern educational circles. By 1910 other institutions of higher learning in the state, such as the University of Alabama, began schools of education to train teachers.[9]

The normal schools for blacks and whites, strengthened by increased state appropriations and small incomes from other sources, and teachers' training in other colleges and universities in the state became potent forces in the professional training of teachers. Other agencies also helped train teachers. Teachers' institutes, which at times were supported by the state and by contributions from the Peabody Fund, were finally endowed by the state in 1911. The state made attendance compulsory in these schools for those teachers who had not received professional training in the normals and other colleges. The Alabama Education Association contributed to teacher training by promoting a professional spirit and viewpoint among the teachers. Teachers formed "sections" in the Association for discussing their respective problems, and in this way the Association became a clearinghouse for teachers' problems and experiments. More extensive reading of general and professional literature fostered by the Teachers' Reading Circle

(organized on an effective basis in 1909) also aided in educating teachers. The Rural Library Law of 1911 greatly stimulated reading among rural teachers. The numerous teacher training agencies and the great improvement in scholarship that resulted from the progress of colleges and universities produced a more dynamic teaching class by World War I.[10]

Even with improvements in teacher training, until 1899 most teachers still were certified to teach school upon examination by a county board of examiners. The county superintendent of education, an official usually elected by popular vote, prepared, supervised, and graded the examination for prospective teachers. After passing the test and getting a license, the prospective teacher often visited a community in the county in need of a teacher. To each patron of the school he presented written articles of agreement stipulating the length of term, the amount of salary, and other conditions. Then the trustees and patrons of the school held a meeting at the schoolhouse to discuss and possibly to ratify the articles of agreement. Usually finances were the most serious problem in obtaining a teacher. The amount of funds available for the coming year, including the amount raised by subscription, was uncertain. In the end, the candidate for the teaching position would probably be employed to teach a seven-month school term beginning in November with the usual salary of $280.00. Since the school could barely expect more than about $70 from the public funds, $210 would have to be raised by subscription. The newly appointed teacher was expected to make the rounds of the community to collect the necessary pledges. After 1899 the state issued to teachers certificates valid in all counties and cities. From 1899 to 1915 all certificates were based upon statewide examinations.[11]

Alabama was among the first of the states to establish a centralized system for certifying teachers. In 1899 the issuance of all teacher certificates was through the State Department of Education. For many years after the State Department of Education began issuing certificates, the certificates were issued based upon an examination exclusively. This practice continued until 1915. A scale of fees was charged for certificates: $1.00 for a first grade certificate, $1.50 for a second grade, $2.00 for a third grade, and $3.00 for a life certificate. The only one of these certificates requiring teaching experience was the life certificate.

School supervision made some progress by 1914. The state enlarged the duties and powers of the county superintendents in 1911 and required each to maintain an office at the county seat. In the same year the State Department of Education employed for white schools a rural school supervisor, whose expenses were paid from the Peabody Fund. The General Education Board put a similar inspector for rural black schools in the field in 1913. Sixteen black teachers were employed from the Jeanes Fund, a fund set up in 1907 by a wealthy Philadelphia Quakeress to foster education in rural black schools, to assist county superintendents in certain counties with black schools, and to stress industrial work among blacks. These supervisory agencies obtained good results, but the state was still far from having qualified county supervisors.[12]

The return of the state to native white rule in the post-Reconstruction period

retarded education for blacks. It is true that many of the problems confronting black schools — lack of funds, dilapidated school buildings, insufficient school materials, and incompetent teachers — also confronted white schools; but more money from state funds was made available to rectify these problems in the white schools. This was especially true in Black Belt counties. The state passed in 1877 an act which provided for the payment of the poll tax funds to the school of the race represented by the taxpayer. Dividing the poll tax in this manner eventually resulted in a disproportionate amount of revenue for black schools due to the practical disfranchisement of blacks. This unfair practice was supposedly corrected by the Educational Apportionment Act of 1891 which provided for the apportionment of funds to all counties in the state according to the number of school-age children. Trustees in charge of these school funds could, however, divide the money as they deemed "just and equitable." Usually they paid black teachers less than white teachers. A white teacher in 1894 received $24.03 per month as compared to $18.71 received by a black teacher. School officials also spent less money on school buildings and equipment for blacks; thus, more money was available for white children. Traditionally the school money was used to pay the tuition of white students in private academies and colleges.[13]

The Constitution of 1901 legalized these discriminatory policies in the state. This document directed the State Legislature to establish a system of public schools separated by race with school terms of equal duration. The concept of equality was not extended beyond the length of the school term. It was, therefore, constitutional for counties to appropriate money and supplies in a discriminatory fashion as long as the school terms were of equal duration. Discriminatory practices were rationalized by the belief that the white schools should receive a greater share of the school funds because the white landowners bore the brunt of taxation. Since the blacks were virtually stripped of political power through disfranchisement, they were unable to promote their own educational welfare.[14]

One attempt at providing adequate education for the Negro in Alabama started in 1881 with the founding of Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute. Booker T. Washington, a former slave, became the outstanding president of this institute. Washington was the apostle of vocational education for Negroes in the South. Like other normal schools in the state, Tuskegee obtained money from the legislature, from student fees, and from the Peabody Fund, but the large sums that Washington received from northern philanthropists really contributed to Tuskegee's success. Tuskegee became one of the best known colleges in the country. One of Washington's more important accomplishments was bringing George Washington Carver, the famous chemist, to Tuskegee. In 1884 Alabama State College was established as a normal school at Montgomery and enrolled 800 students its first year. In 1891 a school for the Negro deaf and blind was established at Talladega. Although these schools did not have the leadership of a Booker T. Washington, they made substantial contributions to the development of education in Alabama.[15]

There were some other notable features of educational development in the post Reconstruction period. Among these was the growth of the city and town school systems governed by local boards under the general supervision of the state superintendent. The State Constitution of 1875 recognized the local autonomy of Mobile in the operation of its schools and in special powers of taxation for education, and the ultimate success of Mobile as a separate school district resulted in the creation of numerous city school districts throughout the state. These new urban districts enhanced the overall progress made within the state, while in rural areas teaching methods had changed little and the small one-room schoolhouse was still prevalent. Education in urban areas continued to make conspicuous progress in the 1890's; for instance, the enterprising Gadsden city system was the first to introduce a unified graded school system in 1892. Other urban progress included developments such as longer school terms, better buildings, standardization in grading and textbooks, and better teachers which reflected the success of the normal schools. Inspired by the success of these changes in the schools, the legislature in 1901 created a Textbook Commission in order to establish the uniform use of textbooks all over the state. It also fixed the minimum length of a school term at five months. This was a long way from the six weeks' to three months' term of an earlier period.[16]

The state also made some progress in other directions. Between 1880 and 1914 the Alabama Legislature chartered more than 100 private and denominational high schools, academies, and seminaries. Because no accrediting agencies existed, anyone could open a private school, give it a name, plan its course of study, and determine the tuition and regulations. The legislature gave some of them the title "college" or "university" and allowed them to confer the master's or even doctor's degree. Their curricula were nearly always classical; and students studied Latin, Greek, rhetoric, algebra, and geometry. Among the more important schools in the period were Henry Tutwiler's Green Springs Academy, Julius Tutwiler Wright's University Military School in Mobile, James T. Murfee's Marion Military Institute, Justus M. Barnes' Academy in Montgomery, Seth Smith Mellon's Mount Stirling Academy in Choctaw County, and Lyman Ward's Military Academy at Camp Hill.[17]

At the turn of the century, increased industrialization in Alabama created some educational opportunities for unskilled and semi-skilled laborers of both races. Such companies as the Tennessee Coal and Iron Company (which later became a subsidiary of United States Steel) attempted to increase production, maximize profits, and stabilize uncertain Negro labor by devising programs for its workers which provided housing units, hospitals, welfare centers, and schools. Since the company believed that ignorance among the workers was a paramount obstacle to progress, special attention was focused on education. Initially, TCI made an agreement with the Jefferson county school authorities that enabled the corporation to operate an educational system for its workers by using state funds, but free of any regulation from local school officials. The company built and equipped schools in such places as Bayview and Fairfield and used state funds to pay the teachers. Although Tennessee Coal and Iron paid the full

salary of the superintendent of the mining schools, he also served as an assistant county superintendent. The schools were segregated; but the company recruited highly trained teachers who provided their students, both black and white, with quality education.[18]

One of the unique features of educational development in Alabama was the establishment in 1907 of the Organic School by Marietta Johnson in Fairhope, a resort town on the east coast of Mobile Bay founded about a decade earlier by the single tax disciples of Henry George. Johnson, who later became a guiding spirit in the progressive education movement in the immediate post-World War I years, first visited Fairhope on vacation in 1903 and thereafter made intermittent visits. In the summer of 1907, townspeople in Fairhope invited her to settle permanently in the community and conduct a free school. They offered to contribute twenty-five dollars a month toward the school. Johnson accepted the offer and rented a cottage for fifteen dollars leaving only ten dollars per month for her salary and school supplies.[19]

Johnson soon worked out a curriculum to "minister to the health of the body, develop the finest mental grasp, and preserve the sincerity and unselfconsciousness of the emotional life." She called such an education "organic"; hence, her school was known as the Organic School.[20]

The Organic School was conducted informally. Students were classified according to their ages. Johnson never compared her students but judged them only in terms of their own abilities. Further, Johnson delayed formal studies as long as possible. She believed that the prolonging of childhood was the only hope for the human race — the longer the time from birth to maturity, the higher the organism. Initially it was her hope to defer all systematic work in reading and writing until students reached the age of ten, but in the face of parental insistence she relented and reduced the age to eight. Even so, there were no pressures on the children. Johnson wanted spontaneity, initiative, interest, and sincerity to guide student lives both inside and outside the classroom.[21]

Although only six children came the first day the Organic School opened, the enrollment quickly increased and Johnson was able to organize the school into six divisions: a kindergarten for children under six, a first life class for children six and seven, a second life class for children eight and nine, a third life class for children ten and eleven, a junior high school for children twelve and thirteen, and a high school for children fourteen to eighteen. Johnson conceived of the program as an articulated whole, borrowing the progressive educator John Dewey's idea that more formal studies should grow out of activities and occupations intrinsically interesting to young children. In the kindergarten there were many activities: daily singing and dancing, stories selected for narrative interest, trips over the surrounding countryside with subsequent conversations about the flora and fauna, creative handwork, and spontaneous imaginative dramatization. These activities continued through the three life classes with the gradual addition of more systematic work in reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, arts and craft, and music.[22]

The junior high school marked the real shift to more formal subjects. Stu-

dents used arithmetic books for the first time. Nature study became elementary science, and literature, history, and geography were approached through more conventional readings. In the high school the youngsters studied the conventional subjects; but there were no tests, grades, or formal requirements. Johnson encouraged each child to develop his own purpose, use his own abilities to the fullest, and create his own standards for judging the results. She believed that her educational system, if applied universally, would change society: "No examinations, no tests, no failures, no rewards, no self-consciousness; the development of sincerity, the freedom of children to live their lives straightout, no double motives, children never subjected to the temptation to cheat, even to appear to know when they do not know; the development of fundamental sincerity, which is the basis of all morality." For all its radical innovation the Organic School, still in operation today, has remained relatively unnoticed.[23]

Churches led efforts during this period to improve higher learning by concentrating on both the centers of black population and white rural communities. The Baptists established the Alabama Baptist Colored Normal and Theological School which today is the coeducational Selma University. The Presbyterians in 1876 established Stillman Institute at Tuscaloosa to educate black ministers. In the rural white communities the Universalists opened the Southern Industrial Institute at Camp Hill in 1898, and the Methodists founded Snead Seminary at Boaz in 1899. In 1901 the Congregationalists founded Thorsby Institute at Thorsby, and the Catholic Church founded Saint Bernard College at Cullman.[24]

Permanent steps toward providing industrial education for whites began in 1872 when the State Agricultural and Mechanical College (the first land-grant college set up in the South separate from a state university) was established at Auburn. In 1861 Congress passed the Morrill Education Act which gave 30,000 acres of land for each congressman in the state for the support of an industrial school. Alabama was out of the Union at the time and did not take advantage of the law. In 1868 land script for 240,000 acres in Alabama was sold, and the proceeds totaling $253,000 were invested in state bonds for a land-grant college. Both the University of Alabama and Florence Wesleyan wanted the school, but when the Methodists in 1872 offered to the state the campus and faculty of the East Alabama Male Institute, which began in 1859, Auburn was chosen as the site with the best location and facilities. For some years after 1872 the college continued to function as a literary and classical institution, with only one professor teaching a few courses in engineering and agriculture. But in the 1880's, despite bitter criticism in the state from those who favored purely classical studies and instruction at the school, the Farmer's Alliance pushed the college into the new curriculum, and in the same decade state and federal appropriations enlarged the facilities at the school in agriculture and engineering. The Alabama Legislature levied the fertilizer tax in 1883 and assigned part of the revenue to the college. Under the 1887 Hatch Act the college started agricultural experiment stations in the state and received $25,000 for agricultural studies under the second Morrill Act of 1890. During William L. Brown's tenure as president of the college in the last half of the nineteenth century, the school became a

pioneer institution in technical education in the South and also maintained a strong liberal arts program. This college, the oldest co-educational institution in Alabama, admitted women in 1892. Called the Agricultural and Mechanical School until 1899, the school was named the Alabama Polytechnic Institute in that year.[25]

Between 1889 and 1895 nine other district agricultural schools were established for whites, and a branch agricultural station was established for blacks attending Tuskegee Institute and Montgomery Normal School. Julia S. Tutwiler, while president of Livingston Normal School, led a movement to provide technical training for girls. As a result of her efforts the Alabama Girls' Industrial School, now the University of Montevallo, opened in 1895. Under the leadership of the school's first president, H.C. Reynolds, girls received a high school education and training in various practical arts such as typewriting, mechanical drawing, cooking, sewing, and plumbing. Francis M. Peterson succeeded Reynolds in 1899 and added college preparatory and teacher training courses to the industrial curriculum. In 1909 under Thomas Walverly Palmer, one of the school's more successful presidents, the school became the first in the state to employ its girl students on campus, thus providing them with financial means to meet their educational expenses. The school's real growth and development, however, came after World War I.[26]

Most of the important colleges of the antebellum period reopened by 1895. Leading denominational schools at the turn of the century were the Methodists' Southern University and Athens College, the Baptists' Judson and Howard College, and the Catholics' Spring Hill College.

When the state regained control of its affairs after Reconstruction in 1874, the University of Alabama regained its popularity although by 1892 there were only 143 students enrolled. Congress strengthened the school's economic status in 1884 by donating 46,080 acres of land in restitution for the buildings and equipment destroyed during the Civil War. Through the efforts of Julia Tutwiler, the trustees opened courses to women in 1893. By 1898 the school admitted girls to all classes and gave female students the same privileges as male students. All these institutions of higher learning still hold important places in the state's education system.[27]

With this education progress came more problems. Alabama had a veritable hodgepodge of schools by 1900 — public schools and private schools, normal schools and agricultural and mechanical schools, and private denominational and state colleges. These schools were founded with little or no regard to order or scope of work. They had to be reorganized and correlated before progress in education could occur.[28]

The field of education in Alabama was vaguely divided into two parts: collegiate education and common school education. The state supported no secondary institutions for those who passed beyond the elementary grades. The agricultural schools and normals were then functioning largely as secondary schools, but they had been created for other purposes. Numerous private schools gave a variety and combination of courses and supplied in part the need for sec-

ondary education. Many elementary schools offered some high school work. Often a teacher in the primary school neglected slower students and gave most of his time to a few "advanced" students who pursued high school subjects. The teacher did this to avoid charges that he could not teach advanced subjects, because such charges damaged the teacher's prestige in the community. For their part, the colleges simply accepted students under a very lax system of entrance requirements. Colleges offered from one to three years of high school work, and not a single college in Alabama offered less than one year of high school work. The lack of high school facilities and the desire of the colleges to secure large enrollments led them to conduct these preparatory or subcollegiate departments. Secondary education, a large and distinct field in the tripartite division of educational functions in most progressive states, was almost nonexistent in Alabama. The colleges felt forced to do much work belonging properly to high schools, but a high school system could never develop as long as the colleges offered high school work.[29]

Once again prominent educators and educational groups agitated for changes in the Alabama school system. They wanted Alabama's educational system to resemble those systems in more educationally progressive states. Through pamphlets and speaking tours they attempted to convince people in the state that education in Alabama needed to be divided into the three distinct fields of collegiate, intermediate, and primary; and that a distinct class of schools with adequate equipment and appropriate courses of study needed to be developed in each field. The three classes of schools would be coordinated to form a systematic school system. The normal schools and agricultural schools would be confined specifically to the special work set apart for them in their creation. The colleges would retreat from high school territory and the high school would abandon common school territory.[30]

The educational reformers were successful for under Braxton Bragg Comer, governor of Alabama from 1907 to 1911, education probably made more progress than in any previous period. The legislature appropriated large sums of money for higher education and the public schools. For the first time a high school was established in each county except in those counties that had normal or agricultural schools. In 1907 the state required its counties to construct school buildings worth at least $5,000 each and to deed the buildings, equipment, and five acres of land to the state. Later in the same year the legislature appropriated $1,000 for each county school out of a fund derived from the fertilizer tax. By 1912 this legislation resulted in more than 2,600 communities improving their school facilities.[31]

Before secondary education could fully succeed colleges had to vacate high school territory. The colleges weakened the high schools by reaching down and taking their students from them. The Alabama Association of Colleges began in 1908 to elevate collegiate standards and to secure uniform college admission and graduation requirements. The Alabama High Schools Association, also established in 1908, standardized high school courses of study. Both organizations were able to separate the realms of collegiate and secondary education by

1909. As colleges dropped their "sub-freshmen" classes, a temporary decline in the enrollment of colleges resulted; the high school movement, however, was greatly stimulated. Those high schools that did not conduct four years of standard work immediately undertook a thorough overhauling and expansion in order to prepare their students for unconditional admission to the colleges. It soon became embarrassing to high schools if they were not on the list of high schools whose work was accepted by the colleges as fulfilling the requirements for admission to their freshman classes.[32]

Another important factor in Alabama's educational progress in this period was the work of the School Improvement Association, now called the Parent-Teachers Association. This organization began in 1905 and spread to all sections of the state. It did much to aid education by raising large sums for the improvement of school buildings, equipment, and grounds. The Association assisted in organizing school libraries, adding auditoriums, and encouraging club organization among students. The PTA also helped to make the schools social centers for rural community life.[33]

Despite problems and halting progress, an education awakening was certainly on its way in Alabama in the post-Reconstruction years. Defeated and economically ruined in 1865, the state began rebuilding its public schools. With the aid of outside agencies, it initiated free education for black children. The rise of standard colleges, the development of a high school system, the improvement of school buildings, and the improvement in the quality of teaching all began in this period. The state increased the revenue spent on public schools from $275,000 in 1870 to over $1,000,000 in 1900. By 1914 the state doubled the 1900 figures. More children in Alabama attended school in 1914, and the expenditure per child increased. School officials gradually lengthened the school term, and by 1914 the average term was five months. To get a true picture of educational development in the post-Reconstruction years, however, the state must be compared to the nation as a whole. Alabama appears less progressive when this test is applied. For all the improvements achieved by zeal, self-sacrifice, and philanthropy, the public education system still remained far below the national average during this period. In 1890 the national average expenditure for education per capita was $2.84; Alabama's average expenditure was 59 cents; the state's average school term was 73 days while the national average was 131 days. The illiteracy rate in the whole nation was 13.3 percent, but the illiteracy rate in Alabama was 41 percent. The state could be proud, however, that in twenty years it reduced illiteracy by 9.1 percent. Alabama did not have a compulsory school law in 1900; yet only two Northern states did not have one at that time.[34]

In the field of education beyond the secondary level the state increased the number of normal schools to seven, revived the University of Alabama, created the Agricultural and Mechanical College at Auburn, began some education for blacks most notably at Tuskegee Institute, and formed the Girls' Industrial School at Montevallo. The foundations were laid, and there was some evidence of new educational life by 1914. Progress was being made but it was very slow. The peculiar southern combination of poverty, excessive numbers of children

over adults, and duplication of a school system for two races proved in the end more of a problem than Alabama's resources, philanthropy, and good intentions could solve. The great periods of educational development came later in the twentieth century.[35]

FOOTNOTES

[1]Allen J. Going, *Bourbon Democracy in Alabama, 1874-1890* (University of Alabama: University Press, 1951), 168; C. Vann Woodward, *Origins of the New South, 1877-1913*, Vol. IX (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press), 61-63; Moore, 786-787; McMillan, 254, 305; Bond, 148; Thorpe, *Federal and State Constitutions*, 176-177; Weeks, 114-115; McMillan, *Constitutional Development of Alabama, 1798-1901: A Study in Politics, the Negro, and Sectionalism*, 211.

[2]Weeks, 120-123, 127-134; McMillan, 306.

[3]McMillan, 387; Weeks, 134.

[4]Weeks, 136-140; McMillan, 308; Bond, 178-194.

[5]Weeks, 140; McMillan, 308; Bond, 178-194.

[6]Moore, 728-729.

[7]Moore, 778-779; Weeks, 155-162.

[8]Moore, 778-779; Weeks, 155-162; Works Projects Administration, 99.

[9]Moore, 736.

[10]Mitchell B. Garrett, *Horse and Buggy Days on Hatchett Creek* (University, Alabama: University of Alabama Press, 1957), 136-137; Griffith, 558-559.

[11]Moore, 737; Bond 269-272; Abercrombie, *Annual Report* (1922), 53; Wright, 32.

[12]Moore, 798; Griffith, 559, 567; Weeks, 135, 141-153, 162-163, 187-192, 200; McMillan, 311-312; Woodward, 398-401, 405-406; Bond, 148, 183-194.

[13]Works Projects Administration, 99; McMillan, *The Land Called Alabama*, 309; McMillan, *Constitutional Development in Alabama*, 218.

[14]Weeks, 162, 197; McMillan, 311-312, 324-325; Works Projects Administration, 99; Booker T. Washington, *My Larger Education* (Garden City, New York: Doubleday, 1911), 21-35; John Massey, *Reminiscences* (Nashville, Tennessee: Publishing House of the Methodist Church, 1916), 314-317; Griffith, 570-576; Woodward, 218, 364-368, 398-401, 405-406; McMillan, *Constitutional Development in Alabama*.

[15]Bond, 148, 183-194; Weeks, 162, 197; McMillan, *The Land Called Alabama*, 325; McMillan *Constitutional Development in Alabama*, 220.

[16]McMillan, 325; Works Project Administration, 100.

[17]*Ibid.*

[18]Bond, 240-243; Ida Tarbell, *Life of Elbert H. Gary, the Story of Steel*, 310-313; Horace B. Davis, *The Condition of Labor in the Iron and Steel Industry*, 170; Bond, 148; Works Project Administration, 99; McMillan, 324; Washington, *My Larger Education* (Garden City, New York: Doubleday, 1911), 21-35; Massey, 314-317; Griffith, 570-576; Woodward, 218, 364-368.

[19]Cremin, 149.

[20]*Ibid.*

[21]*Ibid.*, 150.

[22]*Ibid.*

[23]*Ibid.*, 151.

[24]Moore, 737.

[25]Griffith, 580-582; Charles Wesley Edwards, *Auburn Starts a Second Century* (Auburn: Alabama Polytechnic Institute, 1958), 9; Works Projects Administration, 99; McMillan, 321-323; Weeks, 182.

[26]Works Projects Administration, 100; Griffith, 583-584; Weeks, 178-180, 182.

[27]Griffith, 576; James B. Sellers, *History of the University of Alabama* (University, Alabama: University of Alabama Press, 1953), 312-313; Robert Somers, *The Southern States Since the War 1870-71* (New York: McMillan Co., 1871); Clark, 124-125; Works Projects Administration, 100-101.

[28]Moore, 728-739.
[29]*Ibid.*, 730-731.
[30]Moore, 730; McMillan, 311-312; Woodward, 398-401, 405-406; Weeks, 187-192, 200.
[31]*Ibid.*
[32]Moore, 735; Works Projects Administration, 101-102.
[33]*Ibid.*
[34]Going, 168; Griffith, 585-586; Woodward, 399; Weeks, 187-192.
[35]Griffith, 586; Woodward, 406.

1915 - 1939

Forty-two years after Reconstruction vigorous public school action began in Alabama. Reform ideas agitated over the years finally began to influence the citizens of Alabama; and a resourceful, energetic man, William F. Feagin, became state superintendent of education in 1913. Feagin was first appointed superintendent in 1913 to complete the unexpired term of Henry J. Willingham, who resigned to become president of Florence State Normal School. After that Feagin was elected to succeed himself. The new superintendent used his two appointive years to plan and build strong county or local school improvement associations throughout the state. This community organization revolved around observance of four special days—School Improvement Day, Good Roads Day, Health Day, and Better Farming Day. On these days patrons of schools in the state were urged by Feagin to attend special meetings to discuss school problems. Astutely the superintendent realized these meeting days would bring people of all interests to the school; and that citizens, by becoming informed and a part of the school community organization, would vote for the various education reform bills which Feagin proposed.

Feagin's plan was successful, for by 1915 he had secured passage of fifteen laws which practically revolutionized the public school system of the state. Remarkably, Feagin was able to do all this at a time when the governor and legislature were not in political harmony and when the prohibition question overshadowed all else. Among other things, the education laws provided for the introduction of a local school tax amendment, better school supervision, a new system of certification of teachers, compulsory attendance, a state board of trustees for the control of the normal schools, and the Alabama Illiteracy Commission to educate illiterate adults.[3]

For a generation progressive educators in the state had recognized the need for qualified supervision of public schools and teachers with scholarship and professional training. By 1915 cities and leading towns in the state had procured some of the best teachers and administrators available; but the mass of school children lived in the country, and rural school supervision and teaching were still poor. As a result of this, Feagin secured the passage of a law providing a county system of supervision similar to that of the cities. The law created a county board of education with authority to control and regulate the schools of the county and to select the county superintendent of education. The law put the county superintendent on a salary basis and required him to devote all of his time to school supervision.[4]

Another law changed the certification system to encourage better preparation and professional study among teachers. The old law required that all teacher candidates, regardless of their training, take a state examination, and the state determined their fitness to teach solely by their ability to pass the test. The new law authorized a board of examiners to issue certification without examination to top normal school graduates and standard college graduates who had completed a certain number of hours of professional work. The board could also certify teachers from other states without examination if their training met Alabama's

qualifications. Those who were not graduates of the specified institutions could secure an extension of their certificates over a period of three years by pursuing each year a course of professional study for at least six weeks in an approved college. Another act prohibited persons under seventeen years of age from teaching in the public schools. These policies helped promote the professional training of teachers.[5]

In order to improve the training of elementary teachers, a state law placed the white normal schools under the complete control of a state board of trustees, who attempted to make the courses of study at the school more uniform and to enforce this uniformity. Prior to this time each normal school determined its own course of study. All of the normals engaged freely in general academic work and some of them, acting upon their charter rights, conferred degrees although their work did not meet the requirements of four-year standard colleges. The development of instruction in secondary education in the colleges made it feasible and practical to limit the functions of the normals to the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools. The normal schools also began to concentrate on teaching methodology rather than general academic education courses. The greatest problem in the Alabama public school system at the time was the elementary schools, and concerted efforts by the normal schools on training elementary rural school teachers proved a significant reform.[6]

School attendance increased steadily through the years, but the total number of non-enrolled children of school age was still quite large. It was significant when Feagin secured the passage of a law requiring school attendance for at least eighty days each year for every child between the ages of eight and fifteen who had not completed seven grades. For the benefit of adults who were illiterate, a movement was launched to provide schools for them. In 1919 the state made the Illiteracy Commission a part of the State Department of Education, and the legislature appropriated money to maintain it. The Division of Exceptional Education was organized in the State Department of Education to direct the work, and eventually illiteracy was reduced in Alabama.[7]

The most important education act in 1915 was the constitutional amendment authorizing each of the counties and the various school districts to levy and collect a special school tax not to exceed three mills or 30 cents on the $100. All of the state superintendents and the Alabama Educational Association for at least thirty years had urged the necessity for such local taxation for the support of the schools. With indefatigable industry, Feagin directed school forces and secured the active support of newspapers and prominent men in the state. When funds became scarce, he borrowed more than $6,000 on his personal account to continue the fight. The ratified amendment laid the basis for further development of common school education. The state offered a bonus of $1,000 for each mill of school tax that a county levied.[8]

The campaign for the amendment was not only a success, but it also stirred some interest in education in the state. The press, word of mouth, pamphlets, circulars, and other devices informed Alabamians of the astounding school conditions in backward communities. People were chagrined when they learned that

the Russell Sage Foundation and the United States Commissioner of Education placed Alabama at the bottom of all of the states in educational efficiency. The campaign for the amendment was practically an educational revival.[9]

Prior to 1900 and for some time afterward, industrial education struggled for recognition among the old arts and sciences. By 1917, however, industrial education became important in the educational program of the state. The agricultural and industrial schools gave industrial education a larger place in their curricula. Even the white normal schools introduced manual and household arts in their courses of study. Industrial education was a vital part of the work in the black normals from the beginning, but under the guidance of Booker T. Washington, black education became more distinctly industrial in this period. The elements of agriculture, mechanics, and home economics also became a part of high school and elementary school curricula. The courses in vocational subjects were correlated with the other courses of study. Shop work and home projects were conducted along with classroom instruction. Besides the work in regular schools, special evening schools were begun for the benefit of the youth and adults who could not attend the regular schools.[10]

The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, which gave subsidies to high school vocational agriculture teachers, further encouraged vocational education in Alabama. The state added a division of vocational education to the Department of Education with three branches—agriculture, trades and industries, and home economics. Each branch had a trained supervisor. During this period, Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Auburn University) trained teachers, supervisors, and directors in agriculture. The University of Alabama and Alabama College (University of Montevallo) trained similar personnel in trades and home economics respectively. The education of delinquents and the disadvantaged was mainly industrial and vocational. With the assistance of the federal government through the Smith-Bankhead Act of 1920 and subsequent federal acts, civilian rehabilitation work began. This became a function of the Division of Vocational Education in the State Department of Education. The purpose of this new type of vocational education was to provide special training and other services to persons over sixteen years of age who had become physically handicapped in earning a livelihood. Closely connected with these programs was the introduction of physical and health education promoted by the State Department of Education and the State Health Department.[11]

In 1919 a commission composed of educators from the United States Bureau of Education and other experts made a thorough survey of education in Alabama and gave its report to a state education commission. The findings showed Alabama still behind in education when compared with other states. The success of common school education was notable between 1914 and 1919, but educational progress was swift in all states. Alabama was still at or near the bottom of the list of states in the amount spent per capita for education, in the number of days taught, and in the average salary of teachers. Also, the degree of illiteracy was still high in the state.[12]

The report further showed that Alabama, which ranked forty-third among

forty-eight states in school enrollment, had only 69.1 percent of its school-age children attending school. Of this group, only 63 percent attended school daily, which amounted to about 35 percent of the total possible school population. Only one half of the children enrolled in school in the state went beyond the fourth grade. These figures reflect the disinterest Alabama citizens had in schools during this period. Although a compulsory attendance law existed after 1915, it was not enforced. Many people in the state still believed that education was a private concern. In addition, not enough teachers or facilities existed for everyone.[13]

Educational advantages were unequal between urban and rural districts and between sections of the state. The average length of a school term in the cities was about nine months, while in rural areas it was only six months. In several of the hill counties it was less than four and one-half months. In several counties black schools ran only two and one-quarter months. Less than 15 percent of the rural schools were painted, and over 80 percent had insufficient lighting which endangered the eyes of the students. Many rural schools had no water supply, and over 29 percent had no outside toilet facilities. Often the number of students absent was greater than the number present in rural community schools.[14]

A detailed study in the 1919 Report of several selected county school systems in Alabama revealed some startling conditions. The schools usually lacked teaching equipment and were generally unsafe and unsanitary. In one county only nineteen of the forty-three schools in the system had desks for teachers. There was also a shortage of desks for students. Only seven schools in this county had world globes, only five had music charts, and none of the schools had reading charts. No material for teaching art or vocational education existed, and playground equipment was practically unknown. Sanitary conditions were deplorable! The water supply for the schools usually came from an open well on a nearby farm or from an untested spring in the vicinity of the school. Only eleven schools had a water supply on the school grounds; ten schools were supplied with water brought in buckets by their own students. Cistern water, often unfiltered, came from open containers atop decaying buildings. School toilets, if they existed at all, were filthy. In the schools with no toilets children often used the woods and as the 1919 Report phrased it, "a situation often embarrassing for students, especially in the winter when the leaves had fallen from the trees!"

There were many inequalities in teaching efficiency. Illiterate whites were three hundred times as numerous in Jackson County as in Sumter and eight times as numerous in Cleburne as in Dallas. Eighty percent of the white teachers in Alabama had no professional training whatsoever: one third of them had not gone beyond the elementary grades, while a majority of the remainder did not have a day of college instruction. The state had inadequately trained teachers because many qualified persons simply did not want to teach due to low salaries; consequently, others went to states where teacher salaries were higher. Those people seeking higher teaching salaries did not have to go far because Alabama ranked forty-seventh among the forty-eight states in the teacher salary scale. The average salary for a teacher in the state was $344 per year, and 20.9 percent of the teachers made only $100 to $250 per year![16]

The 1919 Education Commission believed more revenue was the essential need of the schools. This, along with more efficient administration and supervision and better coordination of all educational agencies, would hopefully improve the educational system of Alabama. Total school revenue had increased since 1915 as a result of the increase in property values and the levying of local school taxes. All but two of the counties and more than two hundred school districts levied the three-mill tax for school purposes. The Commission pointed out, however, that the advance in the cost of living left the schools in almost as bad a condition financially as they were at the time of the adoption of the local school tax amendment.[17]

The Commission recommended a minimum increase of $1,000,000 to be spent to upgrade the elementary schools. Governor Thomas E. Kilby decided to meet the education emergency by making appropriations out of the state treasury. He persuaded the legislature to levy new taxes and raise property taxes. Because of this colleges and universities received greater increases in maintenance funds than ever before. They also realized some modest appropriations for building purposes. Appropriations for the elementary and high schools were the largest in Alabama history. During the Kilby administration the state spent $19,935,321 for education.[18]

Spright Dowell, the State Superintendent of Education from 1918 to 1920, attempted to reorganize the educational system of the state in accordance with the recommendations of the Commission. The State Board of Education and a State Council of Education were created in 1919 to supervise and coordinate all the state supported schools. This was a return to the centralized system of the Reconstruction period, although the new board had only administrative powers whereas the Reconstruction Board of Education had both administrative and legislative powers. The Board of Education had jurisdiction over all of the schools except Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Auburn University), The University of Alabama, and Alabama Technical Institute and College for Women (University of Montevallo). The Council of Education guided these schools. The Council had no mandatory power; therefore, it did relatively little to coordinate college development in the state. The Board of Education, however, was more centralized in order to establish a coordinated and efficient school system for those schools under its control. The Board obtained a revolving fund of $100,000 per year to equalize educational opportunity throughout the state. This equalization fund divided state money among the counties according to school population.[19]

Dowell also realigned the State Department of Education. Because of the Department's hard work and numerous duties, the Superintendent divided the agency into ten divisions. The ten divisions, with a head of each division assisted by an adequate number of trained helpers, included executive and business management; teacher training, certification and placement; statistics; rural schools; elementary schools; secondary education; physical education; vocational education; exceptional education; and school and community betterment. Some of these divisions represented essentially new fields of state responsibility which

were made possible by the grants of the federal government and the General Education Board.[20]

Dowell emphasized administrative specialization in elementary and secondary school supervision, health education, vocational education, and school and community improvement work to be done in cooperation with the Parent-Teachers Association. Educators regarded Dowell's reforms as one of the most constructive pieces of school work in the country. Progress in Alabama education continued with the publication of a *Course of Study for Elementary Schools* in 1921 by the State Department of Education under Superintendent John W. Abercrombie. The course of study revised and reprinted in 1924 and 1926 presented a plan for meeting the state law to expand from eleven grades to twelve grades in 1924-25. The State Department of Education furnished the booklet to each school official, supervisor, and teacher. It was a handbook for beginning teachers with detailed suggestions for planning the first day of school and continuing with the school laws to be observed by the teacher, the program for each subject in each grade, specific aims for the subject, textbooks and reference books, and requirements for promotion. This guide was helpful to non-college trained teachers and to the increasing numbers of new teachers required for the increasing student enrollment.[21]

The 1919 survey aroused Alabama citizens to demand better educational facilities and equalization of educational opportunity. Each of the gubernatorial candidates in 1926 talked glibly about "an equal chance for every child." Bibb Graves, the successful candidate, pledged himself to a minimum school term of seven months for all of the schools. Under his leadership the legislature increased the appropriations to education by $22,276,160 during a four-year period. A proposed $20,000,000 bond amendment for public school buildings was defeated when certain business interests organized against it. Still, the state erected hundreds of new school buildings, developed numerous high schools, abolished many one-room schools by consolidating them into one large school, and provided transportation for their students. The state reduced illiteracy and promoted teacher training and efficient school supervision by allocating a teacher training fund among the state colleges. An equalization program, begun in 1927, divided state money among the counties according to school population. The program was needed because the wealth of the state was not uniformly distributed. Within Alabama some school districts had tax sources many times greater than other districts. The program worked well to guarantee a better educaiton to children in the poorer districts of Alabama. Equalization and more money for schools enabled the state to require a minimum school term of seven months. By 1930 the average length of the school term for the entire state was 150 days.[22]

Public education for blacks advanced little during this period, for politically powerful people who were concerned with education generally interpreted this to mean white education. Since blacks owned little land and possessed no political power, they could scarcely influence the development of the public school system. Instances of discrimination against Negro schools, especially misap-

propriations of funds, continued throughout the post World War I period. Although the 1916 amendment to the state constitution legalized the much needed district school tax, it did little to help black education. The revenue derived from the measure was seldom distributed fairly. The equalization fund did little to aid Negro education. Theoretically the source of funds for black schools was the same as that for white schools since appropriations were made on a per capita basis; but, in fact, a higher percentage of the money was spent for white schools.[23]

The distribution of school funds in a selected Black Belt county illustrates the problem. In 1930 the county enrolled 11,014 children—975 whites and 10,059 blacks. The state appropriation for the 1929-30 school year was $4.86 per child, making a per capita total of $53,525 for the county. The black schools were entitled to $48,786 of the total $53,525 fund, but actually the state spent only $22,049 for the black schools within the county during the school term. The remaining $26,737 was added to the original $4,739 appropriation for white children. The white county officials further gave the white schools in the county a state "bonus" fund for high school attendance amounting to $3,000, a state illiteracy fund amounting to $164, a state erection and repair fund of $355, a state county high school grant of $4,500, an elementary school attendance fund of $5,466, and other funds including $480 of federal funds which totaled $51,246. This relatively large sum of money, all of which came from the state or federal government, adequately supported white education and kept county taxes low. Many counties with a large Negro population adopted similar budgets.[24]

The story of Negro education in the first half of the twentieth century is the story of the various philanthropic agencies which donated funds to black schools and gave black education its greatest impetus. One such agency, the Slater Fund, established by John F. Slater of Connecticut in 1882, actually provided most of the revenue for black high schools in Alabama. The schools sponsored by the Fund, called county training schools, offered training primarily in agriculture and vocational trades with some emphasis on teacher preparation. The ultimate aim of the Slater Fund was to enlarge the curriculum of the schools to include a basic high school curriculum with two years of teacher training, but state aid was needed to complete the project. In 1927 the Alabama Legislature appropriated $1,000 for each of the existing thirty-five county training schools on the condition that the schools meet standards set by the State Department of Education. From this date the state gradually assumed the responsibility of financing these schools and enlarging the curriculum to include more academic courses. In 1930, after achieving its aim, the Slater Fund withdrew from Alabama.[25]

Another philanthropic agency, the Anna T. Jeanes Foundation, was set up by a Philadelphia Quakeress who contributed $1,000,000 in 1907 to foster rudimentary education in small black rural schools. Anna Jeanes stipulated that William H. Taft, Andrew Carnegie, George Peabody, and Booker T. Washington be the trustees to develop the major policies of the Foundation. The Foundation appropriated money to help counties in the South employ teachers who would assist county superintendents to supervise primary school teachers in rural

areas, to organize industrial classes, and to promote activities for general community improvement. In 1915 Alabama had twenty-two Jeanes teachers employed in nineteen counties. The local school systems gradually assumed the responsibility for paying the salaries of the Jeanes teachers, and in 1926 public funds paid approximately half of the total salary cost. Salaries for twenty-two teachers in that year averaged $96.50 each per month.[26]

John D. Rockefeller in 1903 incorporated the General Education Board to cooperate with local efforts to aid black education. The Board aided in many areas of Negro education in Alabama but concentrated mainly on the area of supervision. In 1913 the Board appropriated $3,000 for the salary and traveling expenses for a state-wide supervisor of black schools. The supervisor's primary duty was to make annual reports about the conditions of black schools in Alabama and to make proposals for improvements. The Report of 1914 urged the improvement of Negro schools as a means to increase labor efficiency. It specifically recommended the establishment of teacher institutes modeled on those conducted by the Tennessee Coal and Iron Company, and it advocated state aid for building schoolhouses. Primarily it believed that supervision of Negro schools was a major need and proposed the extension of the Jeanes Fund through additional local funding. In 1918 with funds from the General Education Board, the state hired a black woman to supervise the Jeanes work, and in 1922 the state hired an additional black supervisor. This stimulated within the State Department of Education the development of the Division of Negro Instruction which in 1927 consisted of a director, a supervisor, a black agent, and a black elementary and industrial school supervisor.[27]

The Julius Rosenwald Fund was set up in response to Booker T. Washington's proposal for building black schools by using philanthropic funds and community resources on a matching basis. The first school built with Rosenwald money in Alabama was at Loachapoka in Lee County around 1915. The total cost of the one-room building was $942.50 of which $150 was raised locally; $132.50, contributed through black labor; and $360, donated by white and black citizens. The Rosenwald share was $300. The experiment was so successful that Rosenwald expanded the grant to finance additional black school buildings in Alabama and the South.[28]

The Rosenwald program was conducted similarly to a high-pressure salesmanship campaign. Able black men with a flair for community organization and crowd persuasion were selected as Rosenwald agents in Alabama and throughout the South to raise matching funds. One such high-pressure fund-raising campaign occurred at Auburn on February 22, 1925. The agents, one of whom was M. H. Griffin, gathered together an enthusiastic group of black and white Auburn citizens on a vacant lot and collected a sizeable sum of money for a school building for blacks. The collection began to drag, however, and more money was still needed for the school. At this point Mayor Yarbrough of Auburn who had already given $100 to the campaign, yelled out excitedly, "If twenty-nine men will join me, we will give $5 each!" This brought other men to the collection table immediately to donate money for the school. Shortly thereafter, an

old blind black woman tottered to the front of the crowd, held up a soiled ten dollar bill, and in an emotion-choked voice said, "Apply this to the training school for my children." Not surprisingly, the crowd went wild with enthusiasm and gave the woman three rousing cheers as contributions again flowed into the Fund.[29] Once more the donations dragged, so Griffin came forward and shouted, "Will Auburn fail?" The crowd, worked up to a fever pitch by this time, roared back, "No!" Just at this crucial moment a seventy-five-year-old black man named Moseley was seen speedily approaching the gathering in an old wagon drawn by two skinny horses. Someone yelled out "Brother Moseley is coming and Auburn cannot fail!" Moseley rushed up to the gathering, dismounted from the wagon, and was met by a group of men who hoisted him up to the front of the crowd where he laid $35 on the collection table. Caught up in the excitement of the moment, Dr. Yarbrough again came forward and declared, "I will give $500 from our treasury and $500 from the white citizens of the city. We are with you, and we shall not stand to see Auburn fail." This put the project over in grand style, and the Rosenwald agents adjourned the group after suggesting three cheers for their "good white friends." Obviously, not all the Rosenwald Fund drives were this dramatic, but the episode gives some indication of the way many black schools were established in Alabama in this period.[30]

Unfortunately it became increasingly difficult for counties to raise funds to be matched by the Rosenwald Fund. This was partly due to the indifference of the community and partly due to uncontrollable economic conditions, such as the rising cost of labor and building materials. Even though in 1928 only 53 percent of the Rosenwald Fund was matched, this Fund contributed a great deal for between 1912 and 1932 over four hundred schools were built in Alabama with the aid of Rosenwald money.[31]

Black schools did make some progress despite the struggle for school funds. By 1930 the length of the school term for rural Negro schools increased from four to six months. The urban black schools increased their terms to almost nine months. Illiteracy among blacks decreased from 69.1 percent in 1900 to 26.2 percent in 1930. The teacher-pupil ratio decreased generally over the years. The educational level of the black teacher gradually increased as did the black teacher's salary: however, in all of these cases the progress was not as great as that made in white schools during the same period of time.[32]

Before the end of Graves' first term as governor of Alabama, the greatest depression in American history began playing havoc with the educational progress made during his first two years. School buildings were erected and expansions were made in anticipation of funds that never materialized after the stock market crash of 1929. A large school debt accumulated, and many school terms were shortened during the last year of Graves' first administration.[33]

Conditions became much worse under Governor Benjamin Meek Miller who succeeded Graves in 1931. During the Miller term, economic depression and the failure of the State Legislature to do anything for the schools caused distressing educational conditions. The 1931 Alabama Legislature cut educational appropriations and did nothing to prevent heavy proration to education in general.

A. F. Harmon, State Superintendent of Education from 1929 to 1935, expressed the situation mildly when he said, "The quadrennium has been unmarked by any notable achievements with respect to the education of the childhood and youth of the state . . . it has been a period marked by struggle for educational existence."[34]

Indeed it was a struggle! The legislature in 1932 reduced college appropriations 30 percent and common school appropriation 10 percent. Although schools probably could have adjusted themselves to these reductions, the legislature did not provide necessary funds to pay the balance. Common schools and colleges received only half of their reduced appropriations. Retrenchments and drastic salary reductions did not sufficiently meet the situation. Devoted teachers taught for months, some of them for more than a year, with partial pay or no pay at all, to keep alive the crippled public education system. In some rural sections, teachers were boarded by patrons and received as little as $10 a month. Citizens of the state ratified the warrant amendment to the state constitution in July of 1933 as a means to pay the state's debts to its schools. In place of money teachers often received warrants promising to pay in the future, but the warrants authorized by the amendment did not fully pay the money owed to teachers. Often to get money from a warrant a teacher usually had to sell the warrant at a great loss. Teachers during the depression donated several million dollars' worth of service to the schools.[35]

According to rulings of the state courts during the depression, the expenses of the state government had to be paid first, and then whatever funds remained in the state treasury were to be distributed proportionately among the schools and other state social service institutions. Under the Budget and Financial Control Act the balance was automatically cancelled, if the appropriations to the schools and other state institutions were not paid in full at the end of each fiscal year. Under this Act the state could accumulate no deficits. This condition of affairs produced an acute crisis among the common schools in 1933 and 1934, and many college professors received only a part of their already reduced salaries. Local officials cut the terms of many schools short, and a wholesale closing of schools would have resulted in January and February of 1934 had not President Franklin D. Roosevelt poured federal money into the state through his New Deal programs. As a part of Roosevelt's program for unemployment relief, federal money kept hundreds of schools open so that thousands of teachers might be able to work. The amount of federal relief funds spent on Alabama schools was $1,971,982. Fifty-nine counties, twenty-two with population of towns less than five thousand, and the eleven state secondary agricultural schools received this money.[36]

The Federal Relief Administration aided unemployed teachers in the state by setting apart a large sum of money for adult education, workers education, parent education, and recreation and leisure time activities. Unemployed teachers conducted this instruction for small salaries. The total amount of this allotment to Alabama was $1,129,516 in 1934.[37]

Though many substantial rural school buildings existed in 1930, there was a distressing lack of buildings and equipment for rural schools in many counties.

During the depression the building, equipping and repairing of schools were practically suspended except for federal relief projects directed by the Civil Works Administration and the Public Works Administration. The CWA constructed some new school buildings, but was chiefly concerned with the repairs of old buildings. It furnished all labor and from 20 to 60 percent of the cost of materials. More than 1,600 CWA projects were completed or underway in 1934 at a total cost of $1,200,000. The PWA made grants and loans to counties and towns for new buildings amounting to $1,302,500.[38]

By the time of Graves' return to office in 1935, New Deal programs had improved economic conditions. During this year the legislature passed the minimum school program law which guaranteed a minimum school year of seven months, a promise Graves had made in his 1926 campaign.

The Minimum Program Law provides for the calculation of an Average Index of Ability to be used in determining the amount of local contributions required of each county in support of the overall minimum program. The basic formula for calculating state aid is STATE AID = COST OF MINIMUM PROGRAM — UNIFORM LOCAL SUPPORT.

The problem of determining the amount of state-aid for any school system thus becomes one of calculating how much the minimum program will cost and of subtracting from this figure the amount of local support required. In the Alabama Minimum Program Law, four "cost factors" determine the total cost of the minimum program. These four factors are (1) cost of teachers' salaries, (2) cost of transportation, (3) cost of current expenses other than salaries and transportation, and (4) cost of capital outlay which includes purchase of a school site, new buildings, new equipment, and the like. The method of calculating each of these four factors is based on an established formula designed for this purpose. The calculation and distribution of minimum program funds are made by the Alabama State Department of Education under the direction of the State Board of Education.

The free textbook act which furnished free textbooks through the fourth grade was passed during Graves' term as well as the School Budget Act which required the preparation of a school budget in advance of a school year. Also Graves and Superintendent of Education J.A. Keller teamed up to get a 2 percent sales tax passed with the first three-fourths of the tax earmarked for education. By 1937 all but $17,000,000 went for education. This further revised the 1927 equalization program. In 1939 the legislature authorized the Alabama Public School Corporation to assist local boards of education to borrow money for current expenses in anticipation of proceeds from the minimum program fund appropriation.[39]

The year 1939 was an important one for teachers, because legislation in that year served as a linchpin to guarantee career security for teachers in the future. The legislature passed a law requiring that teachers be paid regularly in cash. The Teacher Tenure Law promised job security for experienced teachers, and the Teacher Retirement Law provided pensions for teachers when they retired

from teaching. All these 1939 laws gave teachers additional security in their work.[40]

In the post-World War I years education in Alabama made progress. Schools enlarged their physical plants, improved their equipment, and strengthened their teaching personnel. Many schools also raised their standards and liberalized their curricula. While strengthening work in the traditional fields of instruction, schools also introduced new fields of study to meet changing needs. The unexpected economic depression led to distressing educational conditions; but with federal money and the heroic sacrifices of school officials and teachers, education in Alabama weathered the storm. Total college enrollment doubled between 1914 and 1940. The total enrollment in public schools for 1939 was 691,319, of which 180,000 were high school students. Consolidation of rural schools was facilitated by the operation of 2,860 buses which transported 208,779 children. In 1940 the State Department of Education spent about $20,000,000 of net revenue receipts for the operation of public school plants valued at $60,000,000. Yet, as the aggressive Axis powers in Europe and Asia began flexing their muscles, the educational system in Alabama would have to weather yet another storm, for the approaching Second World War provided an equally severe test for the state's educational system.[41]

FOOTNOTES

1915-1939

[1]Austin R. Meadows. *History of the State Department of Education 1854-1966*. 8; Moore. 739.

[2]Moore. 739; Meadows. 8.

[3]*Ibid.*

[4]Moore. 740.

[5]*Ibid.*

[6]Moore. 741.

[7]*Ibid.*

[8]Moore. 742.

[9]*Ibid.*

[10]Moore. 746.

[11]Moore. 747; Works Projects Administration. 101-102; *Manual of Physical Education*. Department of Education. 1917 (Mobile: Brown Printing Co.).

[12]Moore. 743; 1919 Report.

[13]*Ibid.*

[14]*Ibid.*

[15]1919 Report. 58.

[16]*Ibid.*. 75.

[17]Moore. 744.

[18]*Ibid.*

[19]*Ibid.*

[20]Meadows. 9; Moore. 745.

[21]Moore. 747; Alabama State Department of Education. *Course of Study for Elementary Schools*. Bulletin No. 35 (Birmingham: Birmingham Printing Co., 1926); McMillan. 361.

[22]Moore. 748; Works Projects Administration. 101-102; McMillan. 312-313; Moore. 749.

[23]Bond. 249-251: Department of Education. *Equalization in Alabama* (Montgomery: State Department of Education. 1929). 16.

[24]*Ibid.*

[25]Bond. 264-269: William F. Feagin. *Annual Report* (1916). 77: John W. Abercrombie. *Annual Report* (1920). 31: R. E. Tidwell. *Annual Report* (1926). 71.

[26]Bond. 269-272: State Department of Education. "Jeanes Supervision and Work Conferences for Teachers in Small Rural Schools." 1952: Abercrombie. *Annual Report* (1922). 53: Arthur D. Wright. *The Negro Rural School Fund. Inc., 1907-1933*, (Washington: The Negro Rural School Fund. Inc.. 1933). 32.

[27]Abercrombie. *Annual Report* (1926). 50: R.E. Tidwell. *Annual Report* (1927). 80: J.J. Willingham. *Annual Report* (1913). 45-46: Bond. 272-274.

[28]Bond. 274-286: Ullin Whitney Leavell. *Philanthropy in Negro Education*. 77-113. 176.

[29]Bond. 283-284.

[30]*Ibid.*

[31]Bond. 274-286: Leavell. 178.

[32]Bond. 260.

[33]McMillan. 313.

[34]Moore. 749: Meadows. 11: *Annual Report* (1931-1932).

[35]Moore. 750: Works Projects Administration. 110-111.

[36]Moore. 750: McMillan. 313.

[37]Moore. 750.

[38]*Ibid.*

[39]Summersell. 597: McMillan. 313: Meadows. 11-12.

[40]Summersell. 598.

[41]Works Projects Administration. 101-102.

1940-1954

The prewar educational philosophy in Alabama arose out of the general problems plaguing the nation. Apparently the economic depression with its many social and political ramifications prompted a renewed concern for education as Americans looked toward educational institutions to help solve their problems. The political crisis in Europe stimulated a new spirit of patriotism which ultimately emphasized the importance of the school as a socializing and democratizing institution. The resulting educational awareness produced critics of the existing system of public education; and, even though funds were not always available to enact needed changes, many suggestions were at least tossed about.

The Educational Policies Commission accepted four general educational objectives which suggested the spirit of the times — self-realization, better human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility. The school's role was to guide the individual child in each of these four areas. Since Alabama was a predominantly agricultural state with a low per capita income, state educators chose to emphasize economic efficiency although the other areas were not ignored.[1]

The courses of study for both elementary and secondary schools published in 1941 reflect an emphasis on economic efficiency. The secondary course of study recognized the need within the schools for effective guidance programs which would help students adjust to their changing environment and become

productive members of society. Understanding human resources, developing a balanced economy, conserving land and timber, and improving housing became sub-goals for the schools to pursue. Occupational training, although not new to the curriculum, became a more significant aspect of the total school program. Vocational courses included general business training, typewriting, stenography, business law, bookkeeping and office practice, general home economics, homemaking for boys, vocational home economics, and industrial arts. Other more traditional courses also responded to the economic problems within the society. A course in general science, for example, included units centered around the problems of supplying and controlling water in the community, sources of power for doing work in the area, rural electrification, a study of valuable native materials or food problems in the community.[2]

In addition to the emphasis on economic efficiency, the 1941 courses of study suggested a progressive educational philosophy in the tradition of John Dewey who emphasized concepts such as "education for life," and "basic socializing experiences." The major thrust of the curriculum organization in the *1941 Course of Study*, as in the national progressive education movement, was toward the core curriculum. Such a core included basic socializing experiences which all children, regardless of individual differences in interest, were to have. This course of study recommended that the core program integrate subject matter — usually geography, history, civics, grammar, composition, literature, and health education — and focus on common problems. It was designed to operate from a fourth to a half of the school day. During the remainder of the time the individual student could pursue his special interest and work in basic skills and techniques in mathematics or science.[3]

Since such an innovation could not be established overnight, the program was flexibly organized to allow core subjects to be taught at different times by different teachers in the manner in which most high schools were already set up. The course of study required students in the departmentalized high schools to take certain numbers of hours or Carnegie units in these core subjects. Few school systems adopted the recommended program, but some schools managed to adopt a minimal secondary core program of English and history.[4] At the same time the curriculum in the elementary schools began to shift from a narrow concentration on reading, writing, and arithmetic to a concern for the whole child. A well-balanced program for the elementary schools provided daily living activities, group experiences, recreational and appreciative activities, and development of individual interest as well as the necessary skills.[5]

Another aspect of progressive education, a concern for the physical and psychological needs of the individual, was incorporated into the course of study in a section entitled, "Characteristics of Secondary School Pupils." Individualization meant not only that students pursued their own special interest but also that every element of school life represented an understanding of the nature and characteristics of the adolescent. The secondary bulletin for example, identified certain characteristics of the adolescent ranging from higher blood pressure and growth of brain fiber to strong emotions, aggressive tendencies growing out of the

sex drive, skeptical attitudes toward institutions, and a sensitive desire to be recognized as a person. A good teacher's planning and program of study reflected a knowledge of these characteristics and also a knowledge of the home life and work environment of his students. Since students learned by doing, a good teacher designed school situations which gave adolescents the opportunity to make choices and to experience learning with a minimum of guidance and supervision. This philosophy dictated a new role for both the student and the teacher.[6]

Just exactly how much of the new progressive philosophy was incorporated into the various community schools within the state is unknown; but some systems obviously responded to the needs of the community. In so doing, they broke traditional education practices and adopted newer, more progressive methods. The Cullman County system, for example, changed the image and role of the school when it successfully carried out a project to improve sanitation conditions within the community in order to stop the spread of infectious hookworms. The main participants in the project, the school boys, built and installed over sixty outside toilets in the community. A nearby lumber yard donated culled lumber; farmers donated their trucks; and the skilled carpenters of the community donated their time. Not only did this project initiate a cooperative effort within the community to solve a common problem, but it also started a progressive educational program which provided a real learning experience and taught a practical skill.[7]

The entry of the U.S. into World War II disrupted the growth of the progressive educational philosophy in Alabama. As a result of the war, educators became less concerned with philosophy and more concerned with the practical aspects of the defense of the nation. The schools under the direction of the State Department of Education immediately recognized the importance of the emergency needs of the country. Almost overnight schools became centers for selective service registration, rationing registration, civilian defense training, the sale of war bonds, and the collection of scrap. Above all, the schools served to build public morale by consistently supporting all phases of the war effort. The typical school day during the war began with students singing "The Star Spangled Banner," "God Bless America," "Alabama," or other patriotic songs along with some light-hearted tunes such as "Smile." School schedules were modified to fit wartime schedules and school buses were used to transport defense workers. The State Department transformed the Alabama School of Trades in Gadsden into a war training school which the Air Force used in training every kind of personnel from propeller specialists to airplane mechanics. Vocational education focused on war and food production training. Even the establishment of the University of Alabama Medical School in Birmingham grew out of wartime demands. All over the state educators worked for the war effort.

The Alabama State Department of Education, cooperating with the U.S. Office of Education and other federal agencies, contributed significantly to the war effort and to educational progress in the state. The [illegible] assumed full responsibility for the administration of a national [illegible]sement Lunch

Program, a security measure designed to help provide adequate nutrition for one meal for all school children. The Department also participated in a cooperative effort to solve the school transportation problems which arose as a result of war. Austin R. Meadows, Alabama's representative to the interstate committee studying the transportation problem, published the research study which served as a basis for a national handbook that outlined methods of getting children to and from school safely.[8]

During the early war years construction of school buildings was negligible except in federally funded national defense connected school systems; consequently, the Educational Trust Fund had a $12,000,000 surplus which the Legislature appropriated to education for capital outlay. The Legislature also created the State Building Commission with the State Superintendent of Education as a member to approve future construction of schools and allocate funds for that purpose. The Commission supervised bidding on school construction contracts and made final inspection on all contracts for all educational institutions under the supervision of the State Board of Education.[9]

Toward the end of World War II the Department, in cooperation with Veterans Administration officials, organized and developed a plan of education for veterans through local school systems. Alabama had one of the best veterans' educational programs in the country. It was so successful that by 1949, 48,429 veterans were hired for on-the-job training in industry and agriculture.[10]

In the midst of World War II Alabama educators learned that the state's educational system still was weak. Large numbers of Alabamians were actually educationally unfit for military service. According to the Selective Service definition that adults who had completed no more than a fourth grade education were illiterate; over 28 percent of Alabama's adult population in 1940 were illiterate. Reports show that 18.4 percent of the black Selective Service registrants signed their registration cards with a mark. From May through December 1942, 8.4 percent of the Alabama registrants were rejected for military service because of educational deficiencies.[11]

The statistics published by the Selective Service seriously indicted Alabama's educational system and made many Alabamians conscious of the value of education during a national emergency. In 1943 the Alabama Legislature responded to the problem by creating the Education Survey Commission to make a complete and detailed study of the effectiveness of Alabama's public school system and to make specific recommendations for improvement. On March 1, 1945, after a two-year study, the Commission presented its final report. The report cited the achievements made in public education since the 1919 survey, but it also described in graphic detail the many problems facing Alabama's schools.[12]

The report revealed the general ineffectiveness of Alabama's public schools. In 1940 the average Alabama citizen completed only 7.1 years of school. The national average was 8.4 years. Alabama ranked 45th among the states in the percentage of population twenty-five years of age and older who had completed high school, 44th in the percentage of people who had attended college one to three

years, and 46th in the percentage of people who had completed four years or more of college. Alabama education was weak even when compared with other Southern states. Among the fourteen Southern states, Alabama ranked twelfth in the percentage of population twenty-five years of age or older with no schooling and twelfth in the percentage of population with less than twelve years of schooling.[13]

These facts about Alabama's adult population initiated a study regarding the availability of education to all children in the state. Although enrollment in public schools greatly increased after 1919, not all children were enrolled; and many who enrolled had not attended for one reason or another. From 1919 to 1942 the white schools consistently enrolled about 80 percent of the school population, while enrollment in the Negro schools increased from 51 percent in 1919 to 75.5 percent in 1942. Between 1939 and 1940, 13 percent of all children six to thirteen years of age failed to enroll in school; 16 percent of all children fourteen and fifteen did not enroll; and 43 percent of all children sixteen and seventeen did not enroll. Apparently the compulsory attendance law was not properly enforced, and many students simply did not attend school.[14]

Other problems existed within the Alabama school system. The Commission identified several of these problems such as the short length of the school term, fees and donations, and overcrowded classrooms. By 1943 Alabama had increased the average school term to 168 days. This was within seven days of the 1940 average for the nation. In this area, at least, Alabama improved. Many Alabama schools collected incidental fees from the students. Some schools also collected special fees for the use of libraries, laboratories, typewriters, or other similar purposes. During the 1943-44 school year $393,989.42 was assessed from 112,668 pupils on the secondary level. The practice of charging fees or soliciting donations from students resulted in the exclusion from school of some youths who were unable to pay.[15]

A high pupil-teacher ratio limited educational opportunities. The Commission revealed that one fourth of the county systems in 1942-43 had forty or fewer white youths of high school age to each teacher employed and ninety-five or fewer black youths to each Negro teacher. Another one fourth of the county systems, however, had fifty-four or more white students to each teacher in the white schools and 160 or more Negro students to each teacher in the black schools. While it is true that not all children of school age attended school, the inability of the system to provide enough teachers to educate properly its youth greatly limited the success of the total education program.[16]

The teaching force in Alabama, as elsewhere in the nation, was seriously depleted during the war years as hundreds of teachers left their post to volunteer for active service. Teachers leaving for war aggravated the already existing problem of a lack of teachers in Alabama. The low standards for teacher certification were lowered even more through the issuance of emergency certificates which allowed semi-trained people to fill teacher vacancies. In 1942-43 almost one-half of all the teachers in Alabama failed to meet the minimum standard of the state for the regular elementary teacher's certificate, which required three

years of college preparation. From July 1, 1942, to February 15, 1945, the State Board of Education issued 12,673 substandard certificates to meet the emergency shortage of teachers. Higher standards for certification could not be required, however, until the supply of qualified teachers increased.[17]

The Commission indicated that the state system needed 880 new white teachers and 360 new black teachers each year to meet the demand occasioned by teacher turnover alone. An even greater number of prepared teachers would be needed annually if those with substandard certificates were replaced. If the enrollment in the public schools increased to include all children of school age, even larger numbers of teachers were necessary. In spite of this demand for teachers, many of Alabama's better prepared teachers still left the state seeking higher salaries and better working conditions. Education officials realized that they must make the teaching profession in Alabama more attractive.[18]

Actually the state had a long way to go to raise the status of its teachers because most teachers in Alabama in the early 1940's worked in deplorable conditions for very poor salaries. Some teachers were no better off than those who taught in 1919. In 1942-43, 1,437 teachers taught in one-teacher schools and 1,738 taught in two-teacher schools with little equipment and few supplies. The teacher load was still heavy, although it improved in some areas. The average pupil-teacher ratio in the elementary grades was reduced from 38.9 pupils per teacher to 34.2 pupils per teacher. On the secondary level, however, the situation worsened as the pupil-teacher ratio increased from 31.8 to 36.7. The average salaries for teachers in Alabama increased slightly through the years but consistently averaged less than that for the nation. In 1941-42 Alabama ranked fourth from the bottom among the states in average salaries paid to teachers. In that year Alabama's average annual salary was $755; only Mississippi, Arkansas, and North Dakota paid their teachers less.[19]

Great discrepancies existed in salaries paid to teachers in the state. Apparently local boards of education established salary schedules based on peculiar local consideration, and this resulted in gross inequalities in salaries. Teachers in urban areas were generally paid more than those in rural areas, secondary teachers received higher salaries than elementary teachers, and white teachers received more than black teachers. The highest salary paid in 1943-44 for the white, urban, secondary teacher was $2,961, while the lowest salary for a black rural teacher was $371.[20]

The state in this period increased its monetary allotment for school plant development; but, as in so many cases, the increases were not enough. In addition to lack of funds for building schools, a large number of Alabama's 110 school systems had no organized program of school plant maintenance. As a result, school systems used numerous buildings unsuited for school purposes. The value of Alabama's school plant facilities was the lowest in the nation. In 1943-44 the value of school plants per pupil enrolled amounted to $143 for white students and $29 for Negro students, an average of $103 per pupil enrolled.[21]

In 1944 the public schools of Alabama occupied 5,101 buildings. Of this number, 559 were church buildings and 842 were privately owned. They were

generally old structures, many of which were constructed before 1920. Many school buildings lacked modern conveniences such as central heating, indoor plumbing, and sufficient lighting. Examples of improper facilities were numerous. Dangerous stoves heated over 2,500 schools. Approximately 3,000 children in the state attended schools with no toilet facilities whatsoever. Like the students at the turn of the century, they used the woods. Thousands of students carried their own water to schools for drinking and cleaning purposes. An additional 50,000 children used hand pumps on the school grounds. Only about one-fifth of the buildings were equipped with indoor toilets and running water. In 1944 over 2,600 schools still lacked electric lighting.[22]

The curricula offered by Alabama schools in the 1940's were just as drab as the school buildings. Some interesting and specialized courses were taught but were probably not available in all schools. Very few students in Alabama enrolled in the fine arts courses such as art, band, glee club, or music and art appreciation. In 1943-44 only about 3 percent of Alabama's high school students enrolled in art compared to a national average of 15 percent. The low enrollment probably resulted from a lack of interest, a lack of facilities, and a lack of teachers. Compared to the national average Alabama had few students enrolled in foreign languages, commercial geography, and bookkeeping. Alabama schools, however, did enroll a large percentage of students in English, social studies, home economics, mathematics, science, and agriculture. Mathematics generally consisted of general math, algebra, and plane geometry. Science included general science, chemistry, and physics with a small enrollment in biology. The most common social studies courses were history and civics; although some sociology, geography, and economics were taught. The English courses most often taught were language and literature; but penmanship, journalism, public speaking, and forensics were offered in some schools. A few courses not generally found in the curriculum but reflecting the spirit of the times included aeronautics, Bible, occupational studies, pre-flight training, and pre-induction training. Although most large urban high schools offered a wide variety of subjects, there was no effective program of guidance and counseling to direct students in their choice of subjects.[23]

Many of the high schools in Alabama offered a college preparatory program, but the number of high school students who went to college declined during the war years. The number of students who graduated from high schools in the state declined from 1942 to 1943. In 1943 the deans of the southern liberal arts colleges compared the academic work of the freshmen who graduated from Alabama public secondary schools to freshmen from both private and public schools in other states and with freshmen from private schools within Alabama. Most of the deans considered public school graduates of Alabama to be slightly inferior in their academic work to graduates of out-of-state public schools. Seven deans of white colleges rated the Alabama graduates "somewhat poorer," while four rated them "somewhat better" and two, "much better." Freshmen from Alabama's public schools ranked equally to graduates from private institutions.[24]

Apparently Alabama's college preparatory program was typical for the

South; but when compared to national averages, Alabama's program produced inferior students. In the early 1940's Alabama high school graduates who entered Alabama colleges ranked significantly lower in scholastic aptitude and English mechanics than average college freshmen throughout the nation. From 1934-44 the average score of college freshmen from Alabama city high schools was 91 per cent of the national norm in scholastic aptitude and 86 percent of the norm in English mechanics. The average score of college freshmen from Alabama rural high schools was 70 percent of the national average in scholastic aptitude and 66 percent of the national norm in English mechanics. It is no wonder that a system lacking proper facilities and qualified teachers turned out poorly prepared students.[25]

The American Council on Education in Washington published the gloomy report of the Alabama Survey Commission shortly before the war's end. With the return of peace and eventually the return of prosperity to the state, Alabamians were ready to deal with the problems uncovered by the report and to consider the various recommendations and proposals. The State Department of Education, which had expanded during the war, provided a great deal of professional leadership in the area of educational growth and reform. E.B. Norton, the State Superintendent of Education, cooperated with other chief state school officers in creating a national study commission and a subordinate planning committee designed to help states solve their educational problems. Dr. Norton became the first executive secretary of this national council after serving a short time as U.S. Deputy Commissioner of Education. A.R. Meadows, who succeeded Dr. Norton as superintendent in 1946, served for two years as chairman of the planning committee.[26]

In the early post-war years the Department busied itself in administering federal programs, such as the National School Lunch Program and the Veterans' Education Program, and in establishing the authorized vocational high schools in the state. The National School Lunch Act of 1946 made federal aid available to schools which agreed to serve lunches containing milk, meat or an alternate, vegetables and/or fruits, bread, and butter. Within a year after the passage of this Act, 33.2 percent of the state's school children were fed over 26 million meals at an average cost of 18.5 cents per plate. While this program aided the physical welfare of the people of the state, the vocational and veterans' training programs enhanced the economic welfare of the people. Ultimately, as these vocational and veterans' programs expanded to meet the needs of growing industry, the wealth of the people increased. The new prosperity enabled the people of Alabama to invest more money through taxes for public education.[27]

Public concern for education after World War II eventually brought state politicians into the picture. James E. Folsom, campaigning for governor in 1946, promised to provide a minimum annual teacher's salary of $1,800 and to call a constitutional convention to write a new state constitution. Apparently the campaign promises did not suit professional educators, and Dr. Meadows worked out a compromise with Folsom to support a minimum school term of nine months and an average teacher salary of $1,800 rather than a minimum salary. The actual

salary requested by the State Department of Education ranged from $1,200 for a certified teacher with one year of college training or less up to $2,400 for the highest trained teacher. The Department pointed out to the legislature when it submitted the appropriation bills that the proposed sliding scale for teachers' salaries encouraged high school graduates and teachers to continue their college education in order to receive higher salaries. It was hoped the number of qualified teachers in the state would thus increase.[28]

The proposed program met the overwhelming approval of the legislature. A newly created joint House and Senate Committee on Education visited various counties and cities to get firsthand information on education. After a detailed study, the legislators and the newly elected Governor Folsom agreed to recess early in the regular session and meet in a special session for the purpose of raising revenue to finance an educational program. During the special session the legislature authorized a constitutional amendment which earmarked funds from the sales tax for teachers' salaries. In 1947 the state Parent-Teacher Association, the Alabama Citizens Committee for Schools, and the Alabama Education Association joined with Department of Education officials, legislators, and the governor to insure the passage of the State Tax Amendment. Two years later the legislature passed a tobacco tax for education; and in 1951 the sales tax, part of which went into the Education Trust Fund, was increased to 3 percent. By that year the average teacher's salary increased from $1,239 to $2,127.[29]

At the same time the State Course of Study Committee began work on a new course of study for the public schools. The Committee accepted the general educational philosophy of the *1941 Alabama State Course of Study* and agreed to develop materials in each general subject area as a unified program through all twelve grades. Like this course of study, the new one dealt with the basic social and academic programs and with the development of individual competencies and special interests. The new course of study emphasized the combined responsibility of the school and the community in building a better society and illustrated ways in which representatives of community agencies and individuals of the community might participate in the development of a community school.[30]

Following these precepts one rural school organized a survey to identify community problems which the school and community might work toward solving. One of the most important and immediate results of the survey was the aroused interest of the community in its own living problems. As a result of the survey the school program emphasized the improvement of the home environment through more sanitary toilets, safer water supply, more screening of homes, more consideration of labor-saving devices, extension of the use of electricity in the homes, greater food supply, and better farm practices. A similar survey in an urban community identified three major objectives: improving the quality of social relationships, reducing juvenile delinquency, and increasing the adequacy of housing facilities. The school became directly involved in the first two objectives not only by making its facilities available to the community for recreational and cultural events but also by actually organizing and sponsoring the events. Certain specialized teachers, such as the physical education teacher and the

librarian, were hired for the entire year and organized programs for the community during the summer months. The course of study suggested that all schools work in similar ways to improve society.[31]

The *1950 Course of Study* and the ideals it represented did not survive long. In 1954 State Superintendent of Education W.J. Terry, published a new course of study which represented an almost complete reversal in educational philosophy. The state returned to the theory of basic fundamental education and abandoned attempts to establish progressive educational theories. New post-war problems caused the shift. Inflation was rampant; the first flood of "war babies" produced a severe strain on an educational system which had too few schools and not enough teachers. Schools seemed unable to meet the demands of an expanding industrial economy for trained and intelligent manpower. Public concern grew over the threat of Communist expansion at home and abroad. Also, Alabamians wanted their schools to teach sound scholarship.[32]

The attack against progressive education began elsewhere in the nation in the late forties. One critic, Bernard Iddings Bell, claimed that through the progressive educational philosophy Americans surrendered to a vague utilitarian mediocrity which deprived the nation of a humanely educated leadership. Bell argued that school systems suffered from misplaced emphasis; they had taken over domestic functions that were properly parental and had excluded religion. To solve the problem, Bell actually proposed publicly supported denominational schools as well as curriculum changes which emphasized scholarship. Another critic, Mortimer Smith, encouraged parents to insist on "education's historic role as a moral and intellectual teacher." Arthur Bestor, probably the best known of the critics, claimed that social progress could be attained only through the systematic training of everyone's ability to think. The great subversion of American education, according to Bestor, was the divorce of the schools from scholarship and teacher training and from the arts and sciences. Gradually, as a result of these indictments, education changed throughout the nation and in Alabama.[33]

FOOTNOTES

1940-1954

[1]State Board of Education, *Course of Study and Teacher's Guide for the Elementary Schools*, Department Bulletin, 1941, No. 5, 3-7.

[2]State Board of Education, *Program of Studies and Guide to the Curriculum for Secondary Schools*, Department Bulletin, 1941, No. 6, 90-150.

[3]*Ibid.*, 31-56.

[4]Unpublished paper, "A Progressive Era for Education in Alabama (1935-1951)," by William B. Lauderdale, Auburn University, 9-13.

[5]State Board of Education, *Program of Studies for Secondary School*, 1941, 31-56.

[6]State Board of Education, *Program of Studies for Elementary Schools*, 1941, 3-7.

[7]State Board of Education, *Program of Studies for Secondary Schools*, 1941, 171-190; State Board of Education, *Course of Study and Guide for Teachers, Grades 1-12*, Instructional Series, Bulletin 11, 1950, XII-XIV.

[7]Unpublished Paper. "A Progressive Era for Education in Alabama (1935-1951)." Lauderdale. 17-18.

[8]Meadows. 14-17.

[9]*Ibid.*

[10]*Ibid.*

[11]*Ibid.*

[12]American Council on Education. *Public Education in Alabama. A Report of the Alabama Educational Survey Commission* (Washington. D.C.. 1945). 123.

[13]*Ibid.*. 2-7.

[14]*Ibid.*. 121-123.

[15]*Ibid.*, 124-127.

[16]*Ibid.*, 128-132.

[17]*Ibid.*, 132-134.

[18]*Ibid.*, 207-210.

[19]*Ibid.*. 210-212.

[20]*Ibid.*, 213-223.

[21]*Ibid.*

[22]*Ibid.*. 245-248.

[23]*Ibid.*

[24]*Ibid.*. 134-141.

[25]*Ibid.*. 162-174.

[26]*Ibid.*

[27]Meadows. 16-17.

[28]*Ibid.*. "Unpublished Report." Lauderdale.

[29]Meadows. 17-18.

[30]Meadows. 18. State Department of Education. *Alabama Course of Study*. 1950. XV-XIX: 38.

[31]*Ibid.*

[32]*Alabama Course of Study*. 1-12. Bulletin No. 5. 1954. Meadows. 18.

[33]Arthur Cremin. *The Transformation of the Schools: Progressivism in American Education*. 338-347; Bernard Iddings Bell. *Crisis in Education*; Mortimer Smith. *And Madly Teach*; Arthur Bestor. *Educational Wastelands: The Retreat from Learning in Our Public Schools*.

1954 - Present

The post-war period in Alabama brought new challenges and demands upon school systems and higher education, both of which worked under severe hardships during World War II. Science equipment was obsolete and science teachers who were lost to industry and the war effort never returned. Shortages of supplies and building materials limited school construction. Even teaching materials were in short supply because of wartime shortages of paper and printing. The teacher shortage, evident throughout the war, became chronic. Alabama's school leaders warned that these problems must be dealt with, but people in the state generally ignored the warnings. At the same time, the birthrate of the war period produced ever-increasing classes of beginning pupils for the schools each year. The result of all these factors was a decade of critical shortages of everything except pupils.[1]

Alabama education was the target of a growing volume of criticism and controversy on many topics—aims, discipline, and the curriculum. Certain aspects of public education in the state were savagely attacked: such as the so-called progressive education, the new movement termed "life adjustment" education, soft discipline, easy courses, secular curriculum, and the control of schools by educationists. "McCarthyism" caused efforts in the state to prescribe loyalty oaths for teachers and professors and, in some cases, to intimidate certain liberal educators.[2]

One of the most significant events in Alabama education in the last two decades, however, was the reversal of the "separate but equal" policy for schools for Negro children in the state. After a lengthy series of court battles to insure full status for black students in public institutions of higher education, the crucial case of *Brown vs. Board of Education* came before the United States Supreme

Court. On May 17, 1954, the Court declared that segregation must go. The "separate but equal" policy established by *Plessy vs. Ferguson* (1896) was officially dead. Recognizing the revolutionary nature of its decision, the Court in a case the next year indicated that a gradual approach to desegregation would be acceptable. Most of the border states took relatively early action to carry out the Supreme Court's decision; but in Alabama where blacks were numerous, the decision met with much resistance.[3]

Groups of whites gathered in large numbers in some places in Alabama to prevent the integration of the schools. When the state was ordered to admit Autherine Lucy, a Negro applicant, to the University of Alabama, some irresponsible students and townspeople of Tuscaloosa resorted to violence to prevent her from remaining at the University. Even with heavy police escort and in the company of the Dean of Women, her car was pelted with stones, and ruffians jumped on top of the car. When she was suspended because of the rioting she accused school officials of conspiring to keep her out of the University. As a result she was expelled by the school. Violence occurred on other occasions when integration was attempted. Demonstrating blacks and local and state law enforcement officers often clashed. Even Governor George Wallace tested the will and power of the court by "standing in the schoolhouse door" in 1963 but was unsuccessful. By the use of federal power, the orders of the federal courts were carried out. Time and again the National Guard in the state or the Army of the United States carried out the orders of the federal courts over the strong protests of state and local officials.[4]

The dual school system in Alabama was further dismantled by Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, which barred discrimination in all federally aided projects and programs throughout the country. This act was particularly effective since virtually every school district in the United States received some federal aid. Alabama's two major universities, most of the smaller state colleges, and the larger public school systems were integrated by 1965. Various Supreme Court decisions in the early 1970's, such as *Singleton vs. Jackson Municipal Separate School District* which set forth black and white faculty requirements in desegregated schools and *Swann vs. Charlotte-Mecklenburg*, which declared that student transportation must be used whenever necessary to eliminate racial isolation of students, further implemented the desegregation of schools in Alabama.[5]

The elimination of the dual school system in Alabama was not easy. Much of the focus of desegregation efforts of the past decade in the state was in small rural districts where resistance to desegregation was often the most determined and violent. These rural districts, relatively easy to desegregate in the structural sense and subject to consistent legal and administrative pressures as well as to national publicity, were often the first to abandon the formal trappings of racially separate schools. In the last few years attention has shifted to the urban school systems not only of Alabama and the South, but of the whole nation. In these systems the complexities of size, geography, transportation, and hypocrisy have made school desegregation an issue which has demonstrated that resistance,

legal rationalization, and violence are not peculiar to any one area of the United States.[6]

Today in Alabama some school districts still do not move toward desegregation unless required to do so by the courts, and in some instances desegregation plans designed by the courts have been unrealistic. Even when taken back into court, some of these districts submit desegregation plans which the court believes to be totally inadequate. There are other school systems which, although not adequately desegregated, do offer good educational programs to serve black students. Many school districts are meeting change and grappling with it as effectively as their capacities and the past will allow. Others are quietly yielding to change, knowing they can never return to the simplicity of the past but hoping that somehow they will be delivered from the confusion of the present.[7]

Resistance to desegregation has waned. Many Alabamians have come to believe that segregation in Alabama schools has stunted the mental growth of both whites and blacks by teaching the white child to underestimate the human worth and intelligence of anyone who is not white and by teaching the black child to hate himself and his culture. Other whites in the state argue that integration has hurt the quality of Alabama schools because the effort to make the black minority feel secure has caused a de-emphasis on academic achievement in the schools. Perhaps with continued desegregation of Alabama schools, racial misunderstandings in the state will subside even more, and blacks will become greater contributors to the economic, political, and social development of Alabama.[8]

The launching of "Sputnik I" in 1958 by the Russians caused the federal government to begin pumping money into all state and local educational institutions to insure trained manpower to equal the Russians in scientific development. Title III of the National Defense Education Act, passed in 1958, authorized matching grants of federal funds to states to equip and remodel school laboratories and classrooms and to improve services in science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages. This Act, which grew out of a seemingly national emergency, marked the beginning of a new trend in education in Alabama as it did in the other states. This federal aid to education did not cease when the so-called space race was won. Instead, it increased and expanded into many different areas.[9]

Since 1958 federal aid has greatly stimulated the progress made in education in the various states, especially in states such as Alabama which fail to provide sufficient state and local revenue for schools. Because federal guidelines accompany federal money, state and local educational policies are sometimes influenced by national policies; for example, NDEA funds initially dictated an emphasis upon the areas of science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages. It caused textbooks to be rewritten for science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages. Content became more theoretical and highly specialized.[10]

In addition to emphasizing science and mathematics, the 1958 Act also made funds available to states for the expansion of guidance and counseling and testing, areas which needed much improvement according to the *Alabama Course*

of Study. 1954. Now an effective counseling program is a standard requirement for school accreditation by the state.

In 1964 Congress extended NDEA funds to improve instruction in history, civics, geography, English, and reading. Congress expanded NDEA funds to cover economics in 1965 and industrial arts in 1966.[11]

More recently, with established United States superiority in space and with political detente, educators have concentrated on non-technical needs. In 1970 Congress passed the National Foundation on the Arts and Humanities Act to help fill the cultural void created by growing mass technology. Since then, NDEA grants in the area of the arts and humanities have greatly enriched the curricula of some Alabama schools by providing needed materials and supplies. Between 1958-1974 Alabama received and matched $18,786,756 in federal funds under NDEA.[12]

In 1965 Congress authorized another general program of financial assistance through the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. It, too, included guidelines categorized under several major titles. Under Title I local school systems in Alabama received 346 million dollars in the nine years between 1966 and 1974 for the education of children from low-income families or children who were otherwise educationally deprived. This money financed programs in the state mostly in the areas of mathematics and reading. Title II of ESEA provided funds for school library resources, textbooks, and other instructional materials such as audio-visual equipment and various printed materials. Prior to 1974 Alabama received 12.5 million dollars under Title II.[13]

Title III of ESEA aided the establishment of supplementary education centers for academic enrichment and programs such as guidance and counseling, health services, remedial instruction, and innovative exemplary programs. The 13.2 million dollars received by Alabama school systems under this Title supported the innovative sequential English program in Baldwin County, the use of educational television in small high schools in Etowah County to teach courses in calculus and other specialized areas, the after-school instructional and study center in Russellville, the library dial access service in Jacksonville, and many other programs involving individualized instruction. Money from Title III and other areas of ESEA helped fund the Right to Read Program intended to eliminate functional illiteracy in the country. Since the goal of this program is to insure literacy among 99 percent of the nation's sixteen-year-olds as well as 90 percent of citizens over sixteen by 1980, reading programs are becoming a major part of the public school curriculum in Alabama.[14]

Title IV of ESEA provided additional aid for cooperative research programs sponsored by universities and state departments of education but is no longer in existence. Title V provided money to assist state agencies in administering federal programs and in improving state departments of education. The State Department of Education allocated most of its Title V money to hire subject area specialists to serve as consultants to local school systems throughout the state.[15]

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act, together with NDEA, profoundly affected education within Alabama. The enormous amounts of federal

money expended in the state bought educational supplies, equipment, and services for the students which the schools alone could not provide. Still, some Alabamians believe that general aid void of all federal stipulations would best serve the educational needs of the state.[16]

The federal government initiated several specialized programs to help remedy specific problems in Alabama, such as civil defense education, driver and traffic safety education, and drug education. These subjects occupy a major place in today's curriculum. Alabama first entered the federally sponsored Civil Defense Adult Education Program in 1962. At that time the state sponsored teacher-training seminars. It also certified teachers in the area of civil defense dealing with nuclear attack. These teachers organized courses in various communities throughout the state. When the adult population became less fearful of a nuclear attack and, consequently, less interested in the courses, the state extended the program into the public schools. Within a few years the program expanded to include natural disasters and became a regular unit of either the science or social studies curriculum for high school students.

In 1971 Alabama received a federal grant of $500,000 to develop a pilot civil defense program which is now a part of the ninth grade curriculum. The State Department of Education cooperated with the State Civil Defense Department in publishing a text *The Challenge of Survival* which emphasizes disaster readiness, prescribes safety measures, and explains the function of government in time of emergency. The publication is so successful that the Federal Civil Defense Department asked the state to revise it and make it applicable on a nationwide basis. When disastrous tornadoes ravaged the state during the night of April 3, 1974, many lives were saved as a result of some ninth grade students' having studied *The Challenge of Survival.*[18]

Following the passage of the Federal Highway Safety Act of 1966, the Alabama Legislature passed an act which placed an additional one dollar fine on persons convicted of moving traffic violations and earmarked this revenue for a statewide program in driver and traffic safety. The act placed the responsibility of the program with the State Department of Education which established new criteria for high school programs and organized teacher-training courses. Several years later the legislature enacted compulsory driver education and made it a requirement for graduation but failed to supply the necessary funds; therefore, the program did not get off the ground. Finally in 1973 the legislature appropriated three million dollars for driver education programs, which included driver training and safety, pedestrian and bicycle safety, motorcycle education, and adult programs. These courses undoubtedly have saved many lives and lowered insurance rates for young drivers.[19]

Drug education, originally a part of temperance education, received a big boost as a result of the National Drug Education Training Program begun in 1970. A subsequent Alabama law charged the State Department of Education with the responsibility of developing a comprehensive drug education program for all youth in the state in grades one through twelve. The Department recently implemented an interdisciplinary curriculum aimed toward drug prevention covering

the physiological and pharmacological aspects of drug abuse along with its social effects.[20] The Department established resource centers in various regions of the state to coordinate local activities and made available to a number of school systems enough funds to pay substitute teachers so that regular teachers could attend workshops on a released time basis. In an effort to reach as many people as possible, state specialists work closely with colleges and community agencies in sponsoring programs for the public.[21]

State and local initiative caused other recent curriculum changes. State-sponsored changes in curriculum include additions to the social studies curriculum, educational television, the development of special education, adult basic education, and the expansion of the vocational education program. The State Legislature, for example, responded to Sputnik, the Cuban Missile Crisis, and other cold war tensions by passing an act in 1963 requiring all Alabama high schools to teach special units about communism. These mandatory units entered the curriculum as part of ninth-grade civics and twelfth-grade civics and American government. The *1964 Alabama Course of Study* directed social studies teachers to teach communism in an objective, analytical, and comparative way. It directed all social studies teachers to expand the basic freedoms of religion, speech, press, and assembly to include the new freedoms of air and space; to develop citizens to maintain our culture; and to emphasize the preservation of resources.[22]

Mainly due to the interest of Governor Gordon Persons, the State Legislature established in 1953 a statewide public education television network which was the first of its kind in the nation. Alabama educational television brought about revolutionary curriculum changes in the schools by making unusual educational experiences available to thousands of students at the turn of a television switch.[23]

In addition to in-school programming, after-school telecasts reach much of the school population as well as the general public. Since 90 percent of Alabama's school children have television sets at home and the average family devotes five hours a day to television viewing, AETV is an effective educational tool and community service.[24]

Special education is another recent curriculum change. For years the constitutional provision for free public education for all children applied mainly to the normal or average child while exceptional children were denied educational services because of their abnormalities. They were eventually forced out of the regular school program because of their inability to compete with average children, or they remained in the program but achieved little. Parents educated exceptional children at their own expense or not at all. Eventually the philosophy concerning the exceptional child began to change, and more people realized the importance of helping these children to become adults who can function effectively as members of their families and society.[25]

In 1971 the state passed the Alabama Exceptional Child Education Act authorizing mandatory education for exceptional children. This law required all school systems to expand the regular school program to provide at least twelve

years of appropriate instruction and special services for exceptional children who could not benefit from regular classes. These included the mentally retarded, the speech impaired, the physically handicapped, the deaf and hearing impaired, the blind and vision impaired, the emotionally conflicted, the socially maladjusted, and the intellectually gifted. The State Department of Education administers the program and provides guidance to local educational agencies in forming and conducting special education classes. In addition to regulating the standard minimum of instruction, the Department also regulates the qualifications for specialists, teachers, therapists, and other personnel.[26]

In 1974 there were 2,737 state special education classes financed through state minimum program funds. These classes serve 35,000 students, but the program must continue to expand to accommodate additional children.[27]

Another curriculum change is the Adult Basic Education Program, which offers an educational alternative for those adults who did not complete a regular school program as youths. The real push for ABE in Alabama started in 1965 in response to the 1960 census, which revealed that 43 percent of Alabama's two million adults received less than the equivalent of an eighth grade education and some 58,570 others received no formal schooling at all. Through ABE the adult learner is provided with the background tools of reading, writing, spelling, and mathematics which in turn allow him to expand his knowledge to other fields such as social studies, language arts, health, and consumer education. The ABE program includes grades one through eight with priority given to the lower four grades. Classes are held primarily at night in school buildings, churches, clubhouses, homes, and correctional institutions, and they usually meet twice weekly for two to three hours per session with a total of 150 hours of instruction necessary to complete each of three levels. All expenses for ABE are covered by the state; therefore, there is no charge to the learner.[28]

The Adult Basic Education Program helps people to achieve a measure of success and master tasks which prior to the courses seemed difficult or impossible. In 1973 ABE enrolled 23,330 students. Of this number 2,609 people learned to read and 2,315 learned to write. Approximately 1,500 adults received a better paying job, promotion, or raise because of ABE. Over 2,000 reported that their jobs paid a minimum wage of $1.90 an hour for working forty hours per week and fifty-two weeks per year. This means an increase to the economy of $8,650,928 each year. In addition, over 1,000 students opened bank accounts for the first time and over 3,500 children stayed in school because their parents were in ABE. These statistics suggest that entire communities ultimately benefit from the success of Alabama's Adult Basic Education Program.[29]

In recent years the rapid expansion of the vocational education program has significantly altered the curriculum in the public schools. Since World War II and throughout most of the 1960's, vocational education emphasized the fields of technology and business in an effort to meet the demands of growing industry and mechanization. New courses were added to the curriculum but apparently an anti-intellectual stigma hindered those who participated in these classes. Some people felt that only the "dummies" looking for crip courses enrolled in the

vocational classes; consequently, new area vocational schools were created to emphasize the significance of vocational training. Often students are bused from their regular high school to the area vocational school for particular courses and then returned to the high school. These area schools are designed to train students for employment immediately upon completion of high school. They do not take the place of trade schools or technical colleges which are often more specialized and offer advanced training.[30]

In addition to regular vocational classes some school systems operate innovative programs designed to meet community needs. The Anniston City Board of Education, for example, secured a 167-acre farm to be used by the schools for training programs in productive agriculture and off-farm agricultural occupations. The students enroll in agribusiness classes and manage the farm. Specialized classes in livestock production and ornamental horticulture are also taught as part of the program. The program helps the community deal with rising food costs while providing educational experiences for the community's youths.[31]

A unique telecommunication course is being prepared for the Pell City area. It will consist of three district levels: a specialized program for the disadvantaged, a program for the area vocational centers at the secondary level, and a program for the technical colleges. All levels will train students for gainful employment as linemen, cable testers, cable splicers, framemen, or control office maintenance men. This new project will provide the expanding telecommunications industry with qualified workers, and it will provide all the people of the state with a specialized service.[32]

The Future Homemakers of America in the Scottsboro School System developed a community aid project for the elderly citizens of the area. The girls who first initiated the project in 1965 wanted the aging citizens of their community to know that someone cared about them and that a generation gap need not exist between youths and their grandparents. The FHA'ers organized a Senior Ladies Club in order to carry out the project. Only three women attended the first planning meeting in 1965, but the club quickly grew to more than 40 members. The ladies participated in various educational programs and activities planned for them by the Future Homemakers of America, and the girls learned from the experiences shared with the senior ladies. Apparently, the community became captivated by the project, and now the community center also plans special events for the elderly each week. The community began a nutrition project which provides hot lunches at noon to 75 aging persons at a minimum cost. Because the FHA'ers inspired the project, they served the first meal. Hopefully the project will spill over into other areas of the state so that more of Alabama's 327,000 citizens over 65 years of age can be served.[33]

While the curriculum developed in many diverse and new areas, co-curricular activities expanded as well. Today the typical high school in Alabama boasts of dozens of academic and civic clubs, competitive athletic teams, marching bands, award-winning yearbooks and newspapers, as well as organizations for future homemakers, nurses, doctors, and secretaries. Because some activities interfered with the regular school program, exploited the students for profit, or in

some cases endangered the health of the students, school officials have taken action to regulate all activities under their jurisdiction. The establishment of various national and state organizations concerned with promoting educational and other appropriate school activities has led to a certain uniformity of activities among all schools.[34]

The Alabama Association of Secondary School Principals, an affiliate of the national organization, is responsible for setting up guidelines and criteria to be used by local school officials in approving school activities. The Association insists that schools promote only those activities which benefit youths in educational, civic, social, and ethical development. The Association also insists that approved activities should not hinder regular class attendance, and activities should be supervised by a teacher and should be free of entry fees or other purchases. More specifically, the Association recommends that awards and prizes, such as educational trips and scholarships, should be "adequate in number." It also specifies that organizations, clubs, and businesses sponsoring a contest must not use the activity as a "front" for advertising a company name or product. To avoid problems, the AASSP issues a calendar of events listing all approved activities held each year at the regional and state level in which local systems may participate. Although membership in the AASSP is not compulsory and no method of enforcing the recommended standards exists, most school systems agree that the standards are sound and, therefore, adhere to them on a voluntary basis.[35]

The Alabama High School Athletic Association which is approved by the AASSP, was formed in 1921 to regulate the exploitation and foul play in school sports. Apparently athletic competiton was so stiff that some schools employed nonstudents to participate in athletic events. Other schools used grown men on their school teams. The AHSAA successfully banned these unfair practices and now strives to promote pure amateur athletic competition in the high schools. Currently, 40,000 students in the state participate in some kind of competitive sport outside the scope of the regular physical education program. Spectator attendance is high at most events, especially football and basketball; other sports such as track, swimming, baseball, and volleyball are becoming more popular. Girls' sports events also are popular and growing. Some critics think that too much emphasis is placed on competitive sports and that the concept of winning overshadows the ideal of sportsmanship, not to mention the whole academic program. Most Alabamians, however, believe that competition reflects the American way of life and that "participation in competitive athletic programs enables students to perform better in our competitive, capitalist society."[36]

The rules and regulations governing student behavior in today's schools reflect the many changes occurring in our society since the Mobile public school system published its first handbook in 1854. School administrators must now cope with the emerging philosophy that education is a right and not a privilege, and that students possess the same constitutional and legal guarantees as adults. Now many current school handbooks are extremely explicit, and potentially con-

troversial regulations are carefully worded. These rules, while regulating behavior of students, also safeguard their individual liberty.[37]

Many parents are concerned with what seems to be a lack of discipline in the schools and wonder if administrators enforce the rules and regulations that exist. True, some school officials ignore some violations out of fear of legal difficulty or irate parents. On the other hand, some educators believe that what appears to be a lack of discipline is really only a relaxed and more democratic atmosphere. They take the position that innovative methods of instruction shock parents who are accustomed to structured education and, consequently, charge the schools with mismanagement and lack of discipline. The discipline problems that do exist may be related to our increasingly more permissive society.[38]

Since the 1945 survey, Alabama has made much progress in education. Most of the progress resulted from the post-war boom which stimulated major advances in all sectors of society. Because the whole nation made large strides during the same time Alabama still lags behind most other states with many of the same educational problems still existing. Overcrowded conditions in the schools, for example, represent a constant problem in some areas of the state. Although the Alabama public schools enrolled 808,401 youths and employed 31,262 teachers in 1973 — an average teacher-pupil ratio of one teacher for every twenty-five children — in reality some classrooms are still seriously overcrowded. These crowded conditions are due to the large increase in urbanization as one-half of Alabama's citizens now live in cities. Integration forced some schools to close and others to consolidate. On the other hand, some of the overcrowding in Alabama schools is a result of positive factors; for example, education is more highly valued by Alabama citizens, the compulsory education law is more strictly enforced, and the drop-out rate is declining. Senior high school enrollment increased by 94 percent between 1946 and 1968. Since the number of births in the state decreased from 82,525 in 1953 to 59,442 in 1973, enrollments in elementary and secondary schools are expected to decline in the future. Hopefully, this will cause the pupil-teacher ratio to become even lower.[39]

The problems of low teacher salaries and inadequate qualifications are slowly being corrected. Since 1973 when the Legislature authorized a 11.37 percent salary increase and added the AA rank, the average classroom teacher has received approximately $9,264 per year. In addition to higher salaries, teachers are covered by social security, teacher retirement, and tenure. They receive personal leave and state financed group insurance.

Today at least 98 percent of public school teachers have college degrees, and all have at least two years of college training.[40] Although Alabama's teachers are now better qualified than ever before, the teaching force could be improved. Most educators in the state believe that salary increases will eventually attract more motivated, intelligent people into the teaching profession as well as retain good teachers. They reason that differentiated salary schedules based on training and experience motivate teachers to obtain higher college degrees and reward teachers who remain in the profession from year to year.[41]

The Alabama Education Association is a group that has worked to improve

education. Since its beginning in 1856, the AEA has conducted wide-range programs aimed at improving the teaching profession while protecting and promoting the welfare of its members. Over the years the organization has supported the teachers' retirement system, the tenure law, the sick leave program, the minimum school program, and other progressive educational legislation in the state.[42]

The Association operates mainly through committees and commissions established from time to time with specific responsibilities. Currently the commissions are Ethics, Human Relations, Politics, Instruction and Professional Development, Moral and Spiritual Values, Professional Rights and Responsibilities, Public Relations, and Legislative. These commissions are responsible to 39,852 members through 700 elected representatives to the Assembly of Delegates who make all policy decisions.[43]

In the last few years the Association has employed two legal firms, a public relations firm, and a lobbyist to work for its special interest and to provide the teachers of Alabama with legal protection and with a strong influence on legislation and other political matters. As an example, the Professional Rights and Responsibilities Commission and the staff legal counsel assist teachers with problems of unfair dismissal or transfer.[44] Some educators, as well as lay citizens, worry that AEA will become an all-powerful teachers' union utilizing the strike and other "non-professional" means to better the lot of teachers at the expense of good education. Most teachers, on the other hand, believe that radical measures such as striking will not be necessary in Alabama as the state responds to teacher needs in a fair and just manner.[45]

Involved in all discussions concerning what is best for the education of Alabama's children is the Alabama Congress of Parents and Teachers, more popularly known as the PTA. This volunteer body of lay people is basically concerned with the welfare of children in the home, school, church, and community. The all-inclusive membership, which means that by joining a local PTA one automatically holds membership in the state and national PTA, provides the 150,000 member-state organization with both unity of purpose and power to affect needed legislation in education.[46]

Since its beginning in 1900 and its affiliation with the national organization in 1911, the nonpartisan state PTA has always strived for a better educational program for Alabama children. Through its legislative committee the state PTA has supported reforms such as local taxation laws for schools, compulsory education laws, effective child labor laws, school bus safety laws, teacher tenure and teacher retirement acts, and child abuse laws. During the depression years of the 1930's the state PTA led the fight to keep the schools open; for instance, the organization raised money in many communities to pay teachers' salaries. In most recent years the Alabama PTA deserves much credit for the creation of a Youth Division in state government and for passage of an amendment to the constitution on judicial reform. This amendment will establish juvenile courts in all counties in the state. In the future the PTA will continue to work toward solving the problems which plague our educational system.[47]

Funding education has always been a problem for Alabama, yet each year more and more money is spent. Many taxpayers feel that Alabama does not appropriate enough money for public education while others believe that the money appropriated could be spent more wisely. In 1973 money appropriated for education from both federal and state sources paid for 97,506,004 lunches and 6,137,964 breakfasts served to students in 1,313 public schools, the transportation of approximately 400,000 students at a cost of $46.85 a year per pupil transported, salaries for 31,262 teachers and other state educational personnel, textbooks, school plant construction and maintenance, and numerous other expenses. The state provides 63.3 percent of the total revenue, and the federal government provides 15.6 percent. The remainder comes from county, district, and other funds including philanthropic donations and school fees.[48]

In recent years Alabama has made much progress in the area of plant construction and maintenance. Since 1954 the legislature made funds available to local schools through state bond issues for capital outlay in 1959, 1963, and 1973. Federal and local governments also supplied funds for school construction; consequently, many new school facilities have been constructed and small, inadequate buildings have been abandoned. In 1972-73 only three one-teacher schools existed in the state and only fifty-three schools existed with less than six teachers. Modern schools, mostly built during the construction boom between 1951 and 1970, are usually large, reinforced brick buildings accommodating hundreds of students. Most are centrally heated, some are air conditioned and carpeted, and all have indoor sanitary facilities. With the concept of the self-contained classroom in mind, school architects generally designed these buildings to hold thirty-five student desks arranged in rows, with a teacher desk and blackboard at the front, a few bookshelves along the walls, and maybe a closet for the teacher. Some of the newer experimental schools are designed for more flexible classroom use. These classrooms have sliding or collapsible walls, light movable tables and chairs, small-group activity areas, rotating book stands, portable blackboards, and no planned "front" or "back." Science and language laboratories contain thousands of dollars worth of equipment neatly arranged around the room or in private carrels suitable for independent use. All new schools have kitchens equipped with modern conveniences, gymnasiums with locker rooms and showers that have an ample supply of hot and cold running water, and water fountains. With funds available through the $100 million bond issue passed in 1973, more schools will be constructed in the state.[49]

The State Board of Education and its administrative agency, the State Department of Education, have played a major part in the present-day development of the state school system. The State Board of Education receives its powers and authority from the legislature and is composed of the Governor, who serves as its president, and eight members. The State Superintendent of Education, who is appointed by and serves at the pleasure of the Board, is secretary and executive officer. When the Board was created in 1919, the members of the Board were appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate for six-year terms. Since

1971 the members are elected, one from each of the old congressional districts for four-year terms with half of the membership elected every two years.[50]

The State Board of Education establishes policies and exercises general control and supervision over the public schools of Alabama, state-owned junior colleges and technical institutions, and two four-year institutions—Alabama State University and Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical University. Mainly the Board exercises its duties and responsibilities through the State Superintendent and the State Department of Education. It adopts rules and regulations governing various facets of public education, including preparation and certification of teachers, prescription of courses of study for the public schools, equalization of public school facilities insofar as possible, adoption of budgets, and recommendation of legislation for all agencies under its control.

Since the elected State Board of Education assumed its duties many changes have been made in education in Alabama. Many of these changes have been brought into being because of the new role assumed by the State Board of Education. The Governor is the president and ex-officio member of the State Board of Education. Governor Wallace has given leadership and support to many of the progressive steps taken to improve Alabama's education system.

Improvements along many fronts simultaneously have taken place since 1971. One significant improvement is the raising of standards for teachers to be approved for certification. In 1971 there were over 5,000 teachers who were issued a defense certificate. This was a sub-standard certificate which was used during World War II and which was issued for twenty-five years after the close of the war. The issuance of these certificates was discontinued as one of the first acts of the new State Board of Education upon recommendation by the State Department of Education officials. In 1974 there were fewer than 300 provisional certificates issued to teachers in the entire state. Thus, the standards of excellence for those who teach in Alabama's public schools have been raised.

Another step to improve teacher competency is that the State Department of Education officials visit each teacher training institution and approve its teacher training program for the purpose of certifying teachers from that program. If a program is not approved no person graduating from the institution will be issued a certificate to teach in the elementary and secondary schools in Alabama. This is the first time in the history of Alabama that this action to assure the proper training of teachers was implemented.

Teachers who are assigned out of their fields of training are assumed to be less effective in their teaching assignments than those who have been trained in the specific subject areas where they teach. The State Board of Education reduces the state appropriations by an amount of $500 a year to the local county or city board of education for each teacher assigned out of his or her field of training. Through the excellent cooperation of county and city superintendents, teachers have been almost universally assigned to classes and levels of their training. The pupils are assured that their teachers know their subject matter when such teachers have been assigned in their fields of training.

From 1971 to 1975 the teacher load was reduced from twenty-five to twenty-

two. Smaller classes is a goal of the State Board of Education and the Governor as well as the officials of the State Department of Education. Through the excellent cooperation of State officials and the State Legislature 1,867 new teacher units were added during the period from 1971-75. Additional teacher units usually mean a reduction in the pupil-teacher ratio, but teacher support units such as special education, librarians, counselors, driver education, specialized areas in art, music and other assignments tend to reduce pupil-teacher ratio. The actual pupil-teacher ratio, counting all teachers was reduced from twenty-four in 1970-71 to twenty-two in 1974-75. The average salary for teachers in the public schools in Alabama was increased from $7,376 in 1970-71 to $9,323 in 1974-75.

The increase in revenue made available for textbooks from the regular appropriation was from $1,652,984 or $1.94 per pupil in 1970-71 to $4,842,788 or $6.07 per pupil in 1974-75.

TOTAL STATE APPROPRIATIONS TO EDUCATION

Year	
1930	$ 10,632,129.00
1940	14,795,041.08
1950	67,262,612.60
1960	155,584,681.49
1970	384,460,633.79
1974	608,858,837.80

The chart above shows the total amounts appropriated from the Educational Trust Fund for the years indicated. The chart below shows the portion of the above appropriations granted for institutions of higher learning.

TOTAL STATE APPROPRIATIONS FOR INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING

Year	
1930	$ 2,795,615.00
1940	2,327,462.08
1950	9,271,462.28
1960	22,930,206.83
1970	86,167,052.60
1974	158,249,799.00

An historic forward step was taken in 1973 when upon the recommendation of the State Department of Education, the State Board of Education, and the Governor Alabama's first state-supported kindergarten program was provided by the State Legislature. Eight kindergarten programs were financed — one was provided for each district of the State Board of Education members.

Since 19[illegible] the state and county and city systems have moved forward in getting their schools accredited either by the State Department of Education or the regional accrediting agency. In 1971 there were only 6 percent of the elementary schools accredited whereas in 1974 over 30 percent were accredited. Ninety-eight percent of the senior high schools are accredited. Standards for accreditation are being revised and through the process of accreditation, schools will be upgraded.

A host of other improvements have been accomplished. Twenty-eight trade schools or institutes have been upgraded to technical colleges. Sixty area voca-

tional schools are now in operation throughout the state. The number of teachers in vocational education including those in area schools and industry has increased from [illegible] in 1970-71 to 2,291 in 1974-75. In 1970-71 there were 21,286 students attending junior colleges within the state. During 1974-75 the number of students increased to 40,658. Junior college programs of study have been expanded to include extensive nighttime course offerings as well as adult basic education.

In 1972 the Alabama State Department of Education began utilizing the team approach in the deployment of consultants to assist local school systems in programs of teacher in-service education. The consultative teams visit school systems, assist in establishing needs, and provide training sessions designed to improve teacher competencies. This team concept to provide professional service for local school systems has been highly successful.

The State Legislature in 1973, provided funds for the establishment of a first-year-teacher pilot program in Alabama. The first-year-teacher program is designed to assist first-year teachers on a continuing basis during the initial year of teaching experience. Two regions of the state were selected as pilot projects, one at the University of Alabama in Birmingham serving surrounding school systems and another at Auburn University providing service to that area of the state. Nearly 700 first-year teachers have been served since the beginning of this pilot effort.

One of the problems that has plagued public education throughout the years is the inability to operate the schools at a level of excellence which is desirable for the best interests of the children and society. The quest for excellence in education is never ending. Lack of sufficient revenue to purchase the kinds of services to attain a higher degree of excellence has been a reality all during the past. With the increase in financial support which has been achieved in Alabama a higher degree of adequacy has been attained than was possible previously. Even though there is more money available, inflation has taken its toll in the real purchasing power of the dollars which are available for public education, thus, retarding the progress toward excellence.

Teachers are better trained today than ever before and they are being placed in their fields of competency to a greater degree than ever before. These two factors will improve the level of efficiency in the teaching process and the children will be beneficiaries.

Since its reorganization in 1972, the administrative functions of the State Department of Education, are implemented by State Superintendent LeRoy Brown and Assistant State Superintendent Erskine S. Murray through an organization of five major divisions.[51]

The Division of Administration and Finance, directed by W. H. Kimbrough, administers both federal programs and state services involving large revenue appropriations. This division administers federal funds available through the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title III of the National Defense Education Act, and Title IV of the Technical Assistance Civil Rights Act. Other services administered by this division range from statistical and accounting ser-

vices to the administration of programs such as the school food program and the free textbook program. The Division of Administration and Finance also directs school bus transportation services, school architectural services, the use of surplus property, and school surveys. Recently the division established the Alabama Needs Assessment Study to determine the critical educational needs of the state. The division began conducting an Educational Program Audit for each project funded under Title III of ESEA. Through this audit, state officials may better implement accountability in education.[52]

The Division of Instruction, headed by J. C. Blair, is directly concerned with what is actually taught in the classrooms throughout the state. It supervises and directs all subject-matter areas except those related to vocational education. The various sections within the division include relatively new areas such as Adult Basic Education, Right to Read, In-School Educational Television, and the Exceptional Children and Youth Section as well as two administrative sections, the General Administration and Accreditation Section and the Pupil Personnel Services Section. The traditional academic subject areas are divided into the Social Sciences Section and the Language and Fine Arts Section. The former includes social studies, science, and mathematics as well as civil defense and drug education, while the latter includes English, reading, speech and drama, foreign languages, music, and art. Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Driver and Traffic Safety Education constitute a separate section.

Many of the special programs conducted by the Division of Instruction have been mentioned in connection with curriculum changes and innovations within the public schools. In addition, the division directs a first-year-teacher pilot program designed to guide and assist first-year teachers as well as to examine teacher attitude and competency. In 1973 the division assumed the responsibility of administering the state's first public kindergarten program in eight pilot centers. The division also provides multi-media resource services to schools and organizes educational workshops for the continuous professional development of all teachers and professional employees.[53]

The Division of Departmental Services, headed by Frank T. Speed, provides administrative services for the entire department. The Mail, Files, and Supplies Section, for example, performs the important function of supplying office materials. It distributes the mail and maintains files for the State Superintendent of Education and other officials on various programs and topics related to education. The Graphic Arts Section prints and publishes departmental bulletins and newsletters, employing a staff of layout designers, illustrators, and machine workers. The Personnel Section plays a vital role in the operation of the department as it maintains lists of potential employees as well as a record of all those actually employed.[54]

Other sections within the Division of Departmental Services are Management Information, Planning and Evaluation, Research, Data Processing, Training and Teacher Certification. The division is currently developing a Pupil Information System which will provide teachers and others with data to determine the learning needs of individual students, to help provide a basis for the

prescription of appropriate learning activities, and to evaluate student progress. It is also working toward the implementation of an integrated data-base management information system (MIS). This effort is funded through an ESEA grant and is based on the logic that data is a resource which can be classified, stored, and used for many applications from a single storage area. An operational integrated data base of limited scope is expected by late 1975.[55]

The Division of Vocational Education and Community Colleges, under the leadership of T. L. Faulkner, supervises the activities of junior colleges and technical colleges, provides industrial development training, and supervises elementary and secondary vocational education programs. The division is subdivided into several branches to carry on its duties. The Program Services Branch is concerned with curriculum development, vocational teacher education and certification, approval of veterans' training, the development of instructional materials, accreditation of school programs related to vocational education, career education, and guidance and placement. The Program Supervision Branch is composed of specialists who serve schools in the areas of agribusiness, business and office education, health occupations, home economics, distributive education, trade and industrial education, industrial arts, adult vocational programs, and cooperative education. The Support Data Branch includes research and evaluation services, manpower training services, construction coordination services, and long-range planning. The Manpower Training Service is currently organizing training programs for the disadvantaged, unemployed, and underemployed throughout the state.[56]

Several innovative projects are also developing in the Junior College Branch and Technical College Branch. The Walker County Trade School, under the supervision of the Technical College Branch, is combating the energy shortage with a Mining Technology Program designed to supply Alabama mining companies with an estimated requirement of 4,000 to 5,000 new employees. The MTP will be used in a new facility costing $450,000. The U. S. Bureau of Mines is providing $91,000 for equipment, and several Alabama mining companies are providing an additional one million dollars for instructional equipment. The newly devised two-year course will train students to repair and operate mining equipment and electrical or hydraulic systems as well as teach them welding techniques and other skills.[57]

Another school, the Bessemer State Technical College, is developing a project for energy conservation and environmental research. Students in this new program will be trained in technical skills such as building construction, installation of heating and cooling equipment, and maintenance of equipment. Students will also participate in environmental research in the development of a program to demonstrate energy conservation. The Division of Vocational Education and Community Colleges is constantly working with similar programs to help Alabama become a fully employed and economically efficient state.[58]

The state program of rehabilitation and crippled children services operated as a part of the Vocational Division until 1955 when it was made a separate division. Today the Division of Rehabilitation and Crippled Children, under the

direction of George M. Hudson, provides specialized services to handicapped persons of the state. Unlike other divisions within the department, it is concerned with helping persons overcome a physical or mental disability and is not involved with instructional education. The Crippled Children's Service, for example, treats state resident children who suffer from such crippling conditions as cerebral palsy, heart disease, cystic fibrosis, brain tumor, visual defects, hearing loss, cleft palate, and others. The family physician usually refers the child to one of the eleven regional centers in the state. Eligibility for treatment is determined by the staff through an evaluation of the treatment plan and the family's financial situation. Although the major source of funds for the program comes from direct appropriations by the State Legislature and federal grants, families when able assist with the costs. The clinics which are staffed with qualified nurses, social workers, and physical therapists provide out-patient services such as laboratory services, speech therapy, auditory training, nursing service, family counseling, and other social services. The clinics provide hospitalization and surgery when necessary.[59]

Opportunities for the handicapped are provided through Vocational Rehabilitation. This program is designed to preserve, restore, or develop the ability of disabled men and women for gainful employment. Eligibility for Vocational Rehabilitation Services is based upon the presence of a physical or mental disability which is a substantial handicap to employment. The program determines the extent of the client's disability and his potential rehabilitation. It also determines work tolerance and adjustment difficulties and offers needed counseling and guidance services. Physical restoration which includes medical and psychiatric treatment, surgery, braces, and other aids are furnished. After attending to the physical needs the program provides job training in colleges, trade schools, business schools, or through workshops, on-the-job training, correspondence, or private lessons. The final task is securing employment for the client, which is accomplished through cooperation with private business and industry.[60]

Since 1954 the story of higher education in Alabama is one of changes and developments to meet the growing needs and demands of the Alabama people and culture. The state now has increasingly large numbers of schools and colleges to support. This is in keeping with a national trend to bring college-level courses closer to the homes of students. Following this trend, Alabama in 1972 had approximately fifteen junior colleges, six private junior colleges, eighteen private senior colleges, and fifteen state-supported senior colleges. Financial expenditures to support these institutions gradually increased during the 1960's and 1970's, and in 1972 $106,444,000 was appropriated for higher education or approximately $936 per full-time college student. This amount appropriated for higher education was about 15 percent of the state taxes for 1971-72.[61]

The college curriculum in Alabama has gradually expanded and grown. Accompanying this expansion, and seemingly diametrically opposed to it, has been the movement to increase specialization and to narrow the scope of the college curriculum. In essence, however, what resulted is that many colleges and universities in the state have endeavored to provide a broadened curriculum with

specially designed courses in most major areas of learning for all students. In this manner all graduates might be expected to gain a balanced education plus a modern specialized field.[62]

The University of Alabama reflects the great changes that colleges and universities have undergone in the last twenty years in the state. Following the turmoil surrounding initial attempts to integrate the University in 1956, Frank A. Rose succeeded Oliver C. Carmichael as president of the school. During Rose's presidency a 5 million dollar Greater University of Alabama Development Program and a 42 million dollar capital improvement program began. Additional dormitories were built to house increased enrollment. The school inaugurated programs in American Studies and International Studies. In June, 1963, the University was integrated, and the first black graduate received her degree in May, 1965. In 1965 Rose designated the University's expanding operations in Huntsville and Birmingham as branch campuses. In 1967 a School of Social Work was established, and in 1968 the School of Commerce and Business Administration was redesignated as a college. Rose resigned as president in 1969. During his term, student enrollment doubled from 6,000 to 12,000; and total assets, legislative and non-legislative support, and operating budget tripled.[63]

Rose's successor was David Matthews. At the time of Matthews' selection as president of The University of Alabama, the Board of Trustees restructured the University administration to meet the changes of the previous years by appointing presidents for the University of Alabama in Birmingham and in Huntsville.[64]

The University attempted to become a leader in meeting challenges facing higher education. In 1970 the University made a bold departure from the traditional academic approach to undergraduate education with the creation of the New College, a program centered around independent study and interdisciplinary course work tailored to stimulate individual potential. Among other academic innovations are the Computer Honors Program, the May Interim Term offering opportunities for academic innovation, the Engineering Technology Program, and the campus [illegible] fail option. A Presidential Venture Fund was initiated to encourage [illegible]s to the teaching-learning process.[65]

A Graduate [illegible]otary Science was established in 1971, the only such school in the s[illegible]73 the College of Community Health Services was begun to meet the need [illegible]eneral community health care in Alabama. At the same time, existing courses were brought together under the new School of Communication, and older divisions of the University were strengthened. In the past two years, for example, chairs of Insurance, Banking, and Transportation have been established in the College of Commerce and Business Administration. The recent acquisition of Jones Law School in Montgomery symbolizes the University's expansion of legal services. The active participation of the University with six other highly diversified colleges and universities in the Alabama Consortium for the Development of Higher Education symbolizes the University's cooperative approach to raising educational standards.[66]

Today The University of Alabama is stressing two aspects of its charge to serve the state. The University strives to be known as a place of intellectual ex-

citement for individuals seeking an undergraduate education that will develop each person's potential to its fullest. Accomplishing this objective does not mean a lessening of emphasis upon graduate and professional education. On the contrary, such an approach demands an inquisitive, caring, and an aggressive faculty who will put its expertise in research as a means to the end of both teaching and service. The second aspect of the school's emphasis is outreach. Outreach involves counsel to state and local government through the Bureau of Public Administration, the Alabama Law Institute, the Marine Science Institute, the Natural Resources Center, and the Center for Business and Economic Research. It also involves attention to health needs through such agencies as the Center for Developmental and Learning Disorders, the Speech and Hearing Center, and Psychological Clinic. Other outreach involvements include the showboat, *Alabama Belle*, the Jubilee Singers, and the University Symphony Orchestra, all of which serve as touring vehicles for culture and entertainment throughout Alabama; as well as the 50,000 non-resident students who annually participate in the University's continuing education programs all over the state. In summary, The University of Alabama seeks to accomplish its charge as the state public university by implementing to the fullest its motto: teaching — research — service. Fifteen major divisions, forty-two academic departments, and over fifty institutes and service agencies help fulfill the University's mission. In 1973-74 the University enrolled 14,938 students and awarded 2,241 undergraduate and 1,242 graduate degrees.[67]

Auburn University passed through the burgeoning post-World War II years under the capable leadership of Ralph B. Draughon, who became president of the institution in 1948. Perhaps the best single indication of Auburn's growth under Draughon's administration can be ascertained in the number of degrees awarded. In the ten years ending in 1955, Auburn awarded more degrees than it did in the years from 1872 to 1945. When Draughon left office in 1965, a record of 27,457 degrees had been awarded during his presidency.[68] More than twenty major buildings and dormitories were constructed under Draughon in the never-ending race to catch up with enrollment growth. Among the more important were W. Vann Parker Commons Building and Ralph Brown Draughon Library.

Auburn joined the Alabama Educational Television Network in October, 1955. Through this medium Auburn became a part of a continuing education program throughout the state. Educational television developed closed circuit service to the campus in 1961 and added remote facilities in 1964.[69]

Because legislative appropriations did not keep pace with growth, Auburn University and other state institutions suffered financial troubles in the late fifties. Draughon's leadership was especially effective in bringing together all educational interests in Alabama to develop a coordinated legislative budget. State appropriations to Auburn increased 170 percent in the 1960's.[70] With Alabama Polytechnic Institute becoming Auburn University on January 1, 1960, the Legislature thus recognized the status which Auburn had obtained in the educational program of the state. The first black admitted to Auburn University was

enrolled in the Graduate School in January, 1964. In the fall of 1972 there were 212 blacks enrolled at the University.[71]

Harry M. Philpott became president of Auburn in 1965. He continued the building program of the previous administration and launched a program of his own. Among other buildings Haley Center, the towering ten-story Arts and Sciences Education complex, was completed in 1969. In 1971 Auburn's School of Veterinary Medicine, the oldest in the South and the sixth oldest in the nation, moved into its new six million dollar complex on a 200-acre site. The Fisheries Building, housing the institution's world renowned fresh water fish program, and the Fine Arts Theatre Building were two additional structures completed in late 1972. With the addition of these new facilities, the University had sixty-two major classrooms, research, and service buildings, with two million square feet of assignable space.[72]

Philpott began planning for Auburn University at Montgomery in 1967. Although legal barriers delayed the beginning of the freshman class until 1969, substantial progress has since been made in building a campus, recruiting a qualified faculty, and developing a library. The AUM campus enrollment reached 2,050 in the fall of 1972, a thirty-three percent increase over 1971. Plans project an enrollment of 5,500 students by the end of the 1970's.[73]

Auburn University initiated in 1967 a penetrating study of the entire instructional program. As a result a liberal educational program providing a foundation year of study in languages and literature, history, natural sciences, and mathematics was initiated in 1969. The graduate program at Auburn grew considerably, and by July, 1972, the degree of Doctor of Philosophy was available in seventeen departments and in four interdepartmental or interdisciplinary programs. The Doctor of Education degree was available in five departments. Through June, 1972, a total of 8,632 graduate degrees were awarded by Auburn University, 646 of which were doctoral degrees.[74]

At the beginning of the fall term in September, 1972, Auburn University retained its status as the largest school on one campus in Alabama with an enrollment of 14,528. Today Auburn University, in the words of Philpott stands "on the threshold of great progress and achievement."[75]

Jacksonville State University located in northeast Alabama is another college which has become a multi-purpose institution in the last twenty years. Under the leadership of Houston Cole, enrollment, accompanied by an expanded curriculum, in the college rose tremendously after World War II. To encompass these changes, the name of the institution was changed in 1956 from Jacksonville State Teachers College to Jacksonville State College. The increase in enrollment and the diversification of the curriculum continued so that in 1966, once again, the institution's name was changed to Jacksonville State University.[76]

Today under the leadership of Ernest Stone, who became president of the school in 1971, Jacksonville State University has evolved into a large pedagogical institution which is diversified, yet individualized to assist students in the areas of career training and preparation. The University offers the Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Science, Bachelor of Science in Education, Bachelor of Science in

Business Administration, Bachelor of Science in Nursing, Bachelor of Science in Medical Technology, and Bachelor of Science in Law Enforcement degrees. Course work is offered in basic engineering, medicine, law, veterinary medicine, pharmacy, and agriculture. The University offers graduate degrees in English, history, mathematics, education, business administration, biology, chemistry, music, physical education, and guidance and counseling.[77]

A summer school program affords the opportunity for students to earn credit toward graduation or to secure, extend, or renew teacher certificates. The University also maintains at both the secondary and elementary levels laboratory schools in which students are given training in the application of the principles learned and subject matter in the classes. The Department of the Army operates a Senior Division, General Military Service Branch, Reserve Officers' Training Corps unit at Jacksonville State with either a two- or four-year program of instruction.[78]

Currently there are more than forty-five buildings on the campus with physical plants valued at more than fifty million dollars. Enrollment figures continue to rise to 5,000 students in 1974 with a faculty and staff in excess of 350 people. These programs and services, combined with a qualified and capable staff, afford Jacksonville State University the opportunity to be a leader in the field of education and training for the student of today.[79]

Similarly Troy State University, originally Troy State Teachers College, began to grow and expand its services after World War II. Enrollment soared with veterans and teachers returning to the campus; however, it was during the 1960's that Troy State University experienced its greatest expansion. In that decade more money was spent for school building construction than was previously spent for capital outlay in the entire history of the institution. The school obtained in 1964 a new president Ralph Adams, and in 1967 a new name Troy State University.[80]

The establishment of the University's branch centers began in 1961 with the opening of a residence center at Fort Rucker, Alabama. Its success in carrying educational programs to the military was so immediate and so profound that it prompted university officials to open another center in 1965 at Maxwell Air Force Base in Montgomery. The courses offered by the two centers attracted students in such numbers that by 1966 both were designated branches of Troy State University and both were authorized to grant undergraduate and graduate degrees. In 1973 University services were offered at Craig Air Force Base in Selma and at Hurlbutt Field in Florida. Educational opportunities were exported by the school to bases overseas in 1974.

Today the 300-acre campus contains twenty major buildings and a number of service structures. The University is organized into colleges and schools: the College of Arts and Sciences, the School of Business and Commerce, the School of Education, the School of Nursing, the School of Journalism, and the School of Fine Arts. The Graduate Division is an important component of the University system. The University continues to teach well over 6,000 students through its main campus and its two branches.[82]

The University of Montevallo has also gone through great changes and has broadened its ability to serve the people of Alabama. Alabama College, as it was known in 1952-57 became the third institution in the state to offer graduate instruction. This program, begun in 1955, was aimed primarily at the further training of teachers in Alabama. In 1956 Alabama College became coeducational. Enrollments tripled from 1957-63 during the presidency of Howard Phillips. Delos P. Culp served as president from 1963-68. As did almost all of his predecessors, he stressed classroom performance to the faculty. He initiated the largest building program in the school's history, which resulted in six new buildings and the extensive renovation of others. The modern gymnasium, student union, and library now in use are part of this effort. Further renovation of classroom buildings continued under the current president of Montevallo, Kermit A. Johnson, who was appointed to his position in 1968. Funds were obtained to restore and renovate two buildings of historical importance on campus, King House and Reynolds Hall. Two new academic buildings and two dormitories were also constructed.[83]

In 1969 the school was renamed the University of Montevallo, mainly because schools comparable to Montevallo were of university status. Administratively the University was organized into three colleges: Arts and Sciences, Business, and Education. A fourth college, Fine Arts, was subsequently organized. Between 1968 and 1974 enrollment rose from 1,860 to an all-time high of more than 3,000. Much of the increase could be traced to a strengthening of the graduate program, which now serves an increasing number of students on a full-time basis.[84]

In line with its beginnings and tradition, the University continued to add to its program according to the needs of the state. In recent years the response has been of a specific and technical nature: a department of speech pathology and audiology housed in a modern new facility, a greatly expanded social work program, and an educational television studio and production center in conjunction with the Alabama Public Television Network. The Alabama Traffic Safety Center on the campus is the most extensive facility of its kind in the Southeast. The campus is the site of numerous conferences and workshops because of its facilities, location, and beauty. Events such as the state Future Homemakers of America convention host visitors from all over the world.[85]

Tuskegee Institute has served the people of the state by expanding and changing its educational programs. Under the administration of its fourth president, Luther H. Foster whose tenure began in 1953, Tuskegee Institute expanded into a thirty million dollar plant on 5,189 acres of land. Its current operating budget is sixteen million dollars, the enrollment is 3,200 students, and faculty and staff members number one thousand.[86]

Tuskegee Institute is a professional, scientific, and technical institution with a strong liberal arts base for all aspects of the curricula. Its offerings are at the university level and include thirty-three undergraduate and twenty-three graduate degree-granting courses of study in six major areas: College of Arts and

Sciences, Schools of Applied Services, Education, Engineering, Nursing, and Veterinary Medicine.[87]

The Institute has enrolled more than 57,000 students during its nine decades of service. Its living alumni today number approximately 24,000. They are to be found in all parts of the country and throughout the world. More than 80 percent of all black veterinarians in the United States have graduated from Tuskegee, and the Institute has supplied 92 percent of all black professional foresters. These examples obviously show Tuskegee Institute's commitment to prepare blacks in professional areas in which employment opportunities are emerging.[88]

Tuskegee continues the tradition of service to disadvantaged people, and its efforts were helped tremendously by the establishment in 1969 of the Human Resources Development Center with a grant from the W. W. Kellogg Foundation. The Center coordinates the Institute's outreach programs, conferences, and basic adult education offerings. The Institute has entered into contracts with the United States Agency for International Development in recent years to provide assistance in vocational education for Indonesia, to establish teacher training institutes in Liberia, and to help with the development of the poultry industry in several African nations.[89]

Florence State University's name change to the University of North Alabama in August, 1974, symbolizes that institution's expansion since 1954. The organization of a Graduate Division in 1956 proved to be of major importance to the University. In 1974 graduate degrees began to be awarded in elementary education, secondary education, school administration, supervision of instruction, reading specialization, counseling and guidance, and business administration. Of the 3,642 students enrolled in the fall of 1973, 393 were in graduate study. The number increased to 517 in the 1974 summer school.[90]

Personnel services underwent great changes. Until the 1950's there had been a Dean of Women but no Director of Men's Affairs, which reflected the double standard of conduct regarding women that was prevalent at the time. Gradually the personnel staff came to be professionally trained as advisors and counselors to better serve the students. Social activities, cultural events, housing, employment, financial aids, and referrable services are today all part of the University offering. A massive building program began in 1960. Through aid from Florence Housing Authority, thirty-two acres of land were added to the campus. Eleven structures were built with borrowed funds, bond issues, and academic grants from federal programs.[91]

The major reasons for the success of the University of North Alabama have been small classes, personal interest in students, high academic standards, proud alumni, and an ever-changing program that meets the demands of the time. At present there is a strong movement toward specialized higher education to meet employment opportunities. The University wants to include pre-professional and professional preparation of students in a variety of fields in the arts and sciences, business, education, and nursing and allied health sciences. Service to students and community through the utilization of staff and facilities and the generation of new knowledge through personal and institutional research are basic purposes

of the institution. The wider range of academic offerings and the more abundant financial aid for research have not changed the goals of higher education in Florence, but they have added a new dimension which has created interest throughout the University.[92]

A major development recently in higher education in the state was the establishment of the University of Alabama in Birmingham. In 1954 when the Birmingham Extension of The University of Alabama was relocated on the Medical Center campus, the foundation was laid for a totally distinct university. The presence of non-health science courses fostered a spirit of cooperation. Their coming made it possible for potential medical, dental, and allied health students to take large segments of their pre-professional work on campus; moreover, the courses provided opportunities for growing numbers of Medical Center employees to pursue college course work. In the fifties and through the early sixties the undergraduate and graduate departments of the two schools continued to grow.[93]

In 1966 the President of The University of Alabama and that school's Board of Trustees decided to transform the Birmingham Extension Center into a four-year College of General Studies under a vice president for Birmingham affairs, Joseph F. Volker. In 1969 the Board granted full university status upon the Birmingham campus and Volker became president. Simultaneously the entire University of Alabama system was reorganized, with the campuses at Tuscaloosa, Birmingham, and Huntsville each having its own president to report directly to the Board of Trustees. The University of Alabama in Birmingham graduated its first students in 1970.[94]

In 1971 the College of General Studies was renamed University College. The new entity contained schools of Engineering, Business Education, Humanities, Natural Sciences and Mathematics, and Social and Behavioral Sciences. In addition to offering the baccalaureate degree, each of the six schools of University College offered graduate work. From June, 1970, through June, 1974, 71 Ph.D. degrees and 1,115 M.A. and M.S. degrees were awarded by the University of Alabama at Birmingham.[95]

Approximately 7,400 students registered for classes in the University College in the fall semester of 1973. During the academic year 1973-74, University College served the educational needs of more than 11,000 students. It has a diverse undergraduate student body with one quarter of the students being over the age of twenty three, and 50 percent taking classes in the evening. Half of the students have full-time jobs and 20 percent working part-time.[96]

The black community of Birmingham has been among the first to recognize the programs at University of Alabama in Birmingham as valuable for upward social mobility. In the undergraduate student body, blacks represent more than 11 percent of the enrollment and some 16 percent of the enrollment in each of the schools of Nursing, Community and Allied Health Resources, and the Graduate School. Perhaps the school's influence on minority groups will be felt immediately in the health sciences. At present all of the health schools have in-

creased their enrollment of blacks who will soon be practicing in the health professions.[97]

Today approximately 130 foreign nationals from forty-one countries are studying at the University. The largest portion of them come for advanced training in the health sciences, but an increasing number matriculate in the programs of University College. The University of Alabama in Birmingham attempts by a competent faculty, a convenient location, a wide variety of courses, and a year-round availability of curricula throughout the day and evening to bring education to people of the state.[98]

The University of Alabama in Huntsville is another part of the University of Alabama System. Academic programs were initiated in Huntsville in 1950; in 1963 degree opportunities at the master's level were provided; in 1964 degree programs at the baccalaureate level were initiated. Doctoral programs in physics and engineering were initiated in 1971. In 1973 the University of Alabama in Huntsville received its first resident in family practice and its first medical students taking electives toward their M.D. degree from the University of Alabama School of Medicine. The University is accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. The 332-acre campus consists of eight buildings, all of which have been constructed since 1960. They contain modern equipment and exemplify modern functional design.

A spectacular example of the vast expansion of higher education in the state was the beginning of the University of South Alabama at Mobile in 1964 with 276 students. Now a strongly based institution beginning its second decade, it anticipated that 1974 fall quarter registrations were expected to exceed 5,900. Most recent expansion of the school includes construction of a new Medical Sciences Building, Humanities Building, and a new Information Center. In 1974 approximately thirty-five new faculty members joined the University. A new Graduate School offers master's degrees in biology, English, mathematics, and psychology. The school has a Department of Dramatic Arts and College of Business and Management. The University operates the Dauphin Island Sea Laboratory and plans to initiate a new journalism program.[99]

One of the more important programs is the Evening Studies Program which makes it possible for part-time students to obtain an undergraduate degree in six years or less. The program serves Mobile area residents. Another important aspect of the University of South Alabama is the three-year-old College of Medicine, which will help supply much-needed doctors throughout the state.[100]

Livingston University, like many other higher institutions of the South, evolved from an Ante-bellum academy. In 1835, a group of citizens in Livingston began a fund for education, but it was not until 1839 that an academy came into existence. In 1883, the state legislature passed a bill appropriating $2,500 a year to establish it as a normal school for white girls.

The state assumed active control of the Normal School in 1907. In 1910 G. W. Brock was elected president. During his tenure of more than a quarter of a century, the College experienced steady growth and progress in every phase of its activities. The institution at Livingston continued as a normal school until

1929, when it became State Teachers College, Livingston, Alabama, with the authority to confer the degree of Bachelor of Science. In 1947 the College was authorized by the State Board of Education to confer the degree of Bachelor of Arts. In 1957 the name of the institution was changed to Livingston State College by an act of the State Legislature.

Livingston University, with an exclusive governing board of trustees, grew out of Livingston State College by an Act of the State Legislature in 1967, implemented by the State Board of Education in 1968. In 1969, the Trustees of Livingston University authorized the College of Education and the School of Graduate Studies to offer a program leading to the degree of Master of Science in Continuing Education.

The University seeks to provide its students with a sense of historical events, the ability to grasp the significance of rapid change which occurs in our world, and an appreciation and enjoyment of the aesthetic values of life. The students are guided in their efforts to deepen their understanding of man so that they may better fit knowledge to their own needs and those of society.

Livingston University is accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools and by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education. This accredition gives regional and national recognition to credits and degrees earned at the University.

Alabama State University, a coeducational institution, was founded in 1874 at Marion, Alabama, as "The State Normal School and University for Colored Students and Teachers." On February 25, 1887, the State Legislature changed the name of the school to "The Alabama Colored People's University" and authorized a move to Montgomery in 1887. During the following February, the Alabama Supreme Court held that public funds could not be expended for support of the school as a university. Without benefits of state funding, President William Burns Paterson managed to keep the school in operation with only tuition income and private contributions. To assure state support for the school, the Legislature in 1889 changed its name to "The State Normal School for Colored Students." A six and one-half-acre tract of land was purchased and the school moved to its present site.

In 1920 the school was authorized to offer a two-year professional curriculum in teacher education. In 1929 the school was designated "The State Teachers College" and the curriculum was expanded to include four-year, teacher-training programs. In 1946 the State Board of Education, responding to public demand, authorized general purpose curricula leading to the baccalaureate degrees in the arts and sciences. The Board also changed the name of the school to "Alabama State College for Negroes." Alabama State was elevated to university status in June, 1969.

The University has graduated more than 25,000 persons, most of whom became teachers and administrators in the public schools of Alabama and the nation. Others have found prominence in the professions and in business. Today, the University holds membership in the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and the American Association of State Colleges and Univer-

sities. Alabama State University has had only six presidents during its 100 years of operation.

In recent years large denominational schools in Alabama, such as the Baptists' Samford University in Birmingham, have made remarkable strides. In 1957 Samford, then Howard College, moved to a new 400-acre campus in Birmingham and began building extensively with the nineteenth major building, the Fine Arts Center, scheduled for completion in 1975. Thirteen auxiliary buildings have also been added as well as the 6,000 seating capacity, lighted Seibert Stadium.[101]

Howard expanded its curriculum in the 1950's to include courses not usually offered in a small liberal arts college; for instance, offerings were added in teacher education, business administration, and applied music. The historic and renowned Cumberland School of Law, established in 1847 at Cumberland University in Lebanon, Tennessee, was acquired by Howard in 1961. In early 1965 the master's degree program was reinstituted, and the Division of Graduate Studies was established. As a consequence of these developments, the institution was rechartered as Samford University in 1965.[102]

In 1966 three divisions were elevated to school status and became the School of Business, the School of Pharmacy, and the School of Education, each headed by a dean. The University continued to emphasize liberal arts and sciences by requiring most undergraduate students to complete fifty-two semester hours of general curriculum courses.[103]

During the turbulent decade of the 1960's Samford University escaped any overt confrontation with radical elements. Recognizing the growing maturity of students and the value of their opinions, the University added students to faculty committees. In 1968 the administrative organization of Samford was restructured with the appointment of vice presidents for major areas of responsibility — academic affairs, financial affairs, and student affairs. At the same time, the University appointed deans for Arts and Sciences and the Division of Graduate Studies. In 1970 the Division of Music obtained school status and became the School of Music with its own dean. In 1972 Samford acquired a School of Nursing which operates in conjunction with the Baptist Medical Centers. An Air Force Reserve Officers Training Corps unit, the only ROTC unit in the entire Birmingham area, was established at Samford University in 1972.[104]

Most recently the University has instituted graduate work in eight major areas. The Cumberland School of Law has developed into the largest law school in the state. The school has undertaken various curriculum innovations such as the Honors Program, the January Term which is a separate school term in the month of January, and an enlarged program of adult education classes. Each school has reviewed its curriculum resulting in major revisions to update requirements and course offerings. Currently under the presidency of Leslie S. Wright, the University still retains a core of requirements in the liberal arts for the entire student body to provide "Academic Excellence in a Christian Environment."[105]

Another thriving private denominational school is the Methodists' Huntingdon College in Montgomery. Huntingdon is a four-year liberal arts college. In

1958 the school completed construction of the Delchamps Student Center. This building includes a swimming pool and gymnasium which makes possible intercollegiate athletics. In 1963 the Julia Walker Russell Dining Hall opened on campus. A new dormitory with wings for men and women was completed in 1970.[106]

Under its current president, Allen K. Jackson, Huntingdon emphasizes a strong liberal arts program and maintains its 'ties' with the United Methodist Church, although it has students and faculty members from all denominations. Huntingdon offers courses at night in continuing education, and in the future it will offer more through Search, a new program designed for women interested in completing college. In these ways the College is attempting to prepare Huntingdon students to meet the needs of a changing society.[107]

Judson College, a small Baptist women's school in Marion, experienced growth in the 1950's and 1960's. Indicative of this was the expansion of the physical plant when the Alumnae Auditorium was renovated in 1966. In 1968 the school dedicated Julia Tarrant Barron Hall, Robert Bowling Memorial Library, a new gymnasium, a science building, and a student union building. Construction continued, and in 1969 the school opened another new dormitory.[108]

More important than the growth of the physical facilities was the growth of the student body. Judson's continuing emphasis on academic progress with more qualified faculty and stronger degree programs has led to the current 600-student limit set by the College's Board of Trustees. Judson is Alabama's only senior college exclusively for women and is committed to a basic liberal arts education. The College encourages students to engage in independent study programs, and an Honors Committee offers the gifted an opportunity to graduate with degrees of distinction. The College has added a completely new language laboratory and offers a Junior Year Abroad program. Through affiliation with Birmingham Baptist Hospital, Judson has an approved pre-medical technology curriculum.[109]

In 1961 Judson ranked fourth among southern colleges and universities in percent of women graduates listed in Who's Who of American Women. In 1965 a thirty-four month B.A., B.S. degree program was introduced in the South by Judson. The College offers twenty-nine majors, professional internships, overseas study programs, and an ROTC program through cross registration with Marion Institute. The Alabama Women's Hall of Fame originated at Judson and is housed in the college library.[110]

Today Judson is dedicated to anticipating and meeting women's educational needs. A Judson academic dean probably best summed up the school's role in the state by saying, "As women enter fields today thought of as men's work, they will be exposed to temptations inherent in that work — they should be educated to the hazards as well as the challenges."[111]

Oakwood College, a co-educational liberal arts college operated near Huntsville by the Seventh-Day Adventists, also experienced much post-World War II growth. At least eighteen new buildings have been erected. The school achieved full membership in the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools as a liberal arts college in 1961. In 1964 Oakwood College became a member of the United Negro College Fund. At present the College property consists of 980

acres, of which 500 are under cultivation. The main campus comprises forty acres.[112]

An increasing number of students come to Oakwood annually from thirty-seven states and twenty-one foreign countries. The College offers seventeen departments of instruction. As of July, 1974, 2,040 students had graduated from the institution, exclusive of its high school division graduates. Under the guidance of the Seventh-Day Adventist Denomination, the Oakwood program of Christian education is focused both on Christian growth and academic excellence.[113]

In the last twenty years St. Bernard College in Cullman has evolved from a high school and junior college into a fully accredited four-year liberal arts college; however, this Catholic school operated by Benedictine monks has had an uneven growth in enrollment. In 1964 the enrollment stood at 500. During the next four years there was a gradual increase to over 800. Reflecting state trends, a gradual annual drop in students was evident in 1969, so that by 1973 the College enrollment stood at the same number that it had been in 1964.[114]

The College has consistently stressed the liberal arts. St. Bernard's general philosophy of education is based on a belief in God and the need for moral values of conduct. Although the college is operated by Catholic churchmen in a definite religious atmosphere, students of different denominations experience no prejudice. Since the beginning of the four-year college, over half of the student body has not been Catholic; similarly, a number of the faculty and staff are not Catholic.[115]

In the early 1960's a large-scale building program began which resulted in the construction of a college chapel building, a faculty house, a dining hall, and a science hall. Course offerings at St. Bernard are designed to satisfy the needs of the students, the majority of whom are from Alabama. An enrollment drop in the early 1970's, coupled with inflationary pressures increasing the operational expenses, forced the College to realign some of its educational programs. Some of the science courses which were popular in the 1960's have been curtailed in the 1970's, while new socioeconomic courses were added to the curriculum. In 1973 the College offered a Bachelor's Degree in biology, business, education, English, history, mathematics, and philosophy.[116]

Over the years St. Bernard College has been most responsive to the needs of the Cullman community and the entire North Alabama area. It has played a major role in the training of a majority of the teachers presently working in the Cullman County School System. It works diligently with many of the area schools in determining accreditation needs of teachers and responding to those needs through curriculum offerings.[117]

One of 28 Jesuit colleges and universities in the United States and 235 throughout the world, Spring Hill College is heir to a renowned and successful system of Jesuit liberal education. The system derives its traditions and ideals from four centuries of academic experience and educational wisdom.

Spring Hill College was founded by the first bishop of Mobile, Michael Portier. After purchasing a site for the college on a hill near Mobile, Bishop Portier

went to France to find teachers and funds for the new college. Upon his return he rented a hotel next to the college grounds and started the first semester on May 1, 1830, with an enrollment of thirty students. On July 4 of the same year the bishop laid the cornerstone of the first permanent building. It stood on the site of the present Administration Building and opened for classes in November, 1831. Spring Hill thus takes it place among the oldest colleges in the South. It is the third oldest Jesuit college in the United States.

In 1836 the governor of Alabama signed a legislative act which chartered the college and gave it "full power to grant or confer such degree or degrees in the arts and sciences, or in any art or science . . . as are usually granted or conferred by other seminaries of learning in the United States." This power was used in the following year, 1837, when four graduates received their degrees.

At the request of His Excellency, Archbishop Toolen of Mobile, the college became coeducational in 1952. At present the ratio of male to female students is approximately 3:2. Black students were accepted into all departments of the College for the first time in 1954. The present enrollment of the college is 800.

Hopefully, the expansion and progress of the formerly mentioned denominational schools are reflective of that being made by the other denominational colleges and universities in Alabama, which include Athens College, Birmingham-Southern College, Daniel Payne College, Faith Baptist Bible College, Miles College, Mobile College, Selma University, Stillman College, and Talladega College.

Junior colleges have occupied an important place in Alabama's higher education system particularly since 1963 when Governor George Wallace launched a statewide network of public junior colleges. There are basically three types of post secondary programs found in the state. One is the two-year program of general education and liberal arts offerings that can be transferred to a four-year institution or represent a terminal program for other students.[118] State junior colleges which attempt to offer this program include Alexander City State Junior College, S. D. Bishop State Junior College, Brewer State Junior College, Jefferson Davis State Junior College, Enterprise State Junior College, James H. Faulkner State Junior College, Gadsden State Junior College, Patrick Henry State Junior College, Jefferson State Junior College, Northeast Alabama State Junior College, Northwest Alabama State Junior College, Snead State Junior College, Southern Union State Junior College, and Lurleen B. Wallace State Junior College. There is a great diversity of programs offered in and among these junior colleges.[119]

Alabama Christian College in Montgomery sponsored by the Church of Christ is a junior college which has undergone change and expansion. Alabama Christian College moved to its present site in 1964 and constructed nine modern buildings. This is the first phase of a plan to provide sixteen buildings and facilities for 1,400 students. The Southern Association of Colleges and Schools accredited Alabama Christian College in 1971. A broadening of the curricula to include health occupations education and continuing education classes in the evening is expected to cause enrollment to increase from its present level of 800 students.[120]

Alabama Lutheran Academy and Junior College, located in Selma, is committed to the task of preparing citizens to develop their full potential so that they can honor God and more faithfully serve their fellowman in this complex and technological society. The school endeavors to grade the skills and improve the quality of life of all citizens in the state through the use of its facilities and the expertise of its faculty and staff. Other denominational junior colleges in the state are the Catholic Cullman College in Cullman and Lomax-Hannon Junior College in Greenville sponsored by the A.M.E. Zion Church.[121]

Supplementing the state and denominational junior colleges are the private nondenominational schools, such as Walker College in Jasper. This College provides the first two years of college education in fine arts, engineering, science, liberal arts, business education, and other professional programs on a standard sufficient for preparation and transfer to accredited four-year colleges. Like other schools in the state, Walker began to grow in the 1950's. Since 1956 the number of campus buildings increased to eleven and are arranged on the rolling hills of a thirty-seven acre campus. The present physical plant includes one administrative classroom building, two classroom buildings, a student center, chapel, gymnasium, dining room, three residence halls, bookstore, library, and several dwellings. Unlike its sister public junior colleges, Walker does not have the community college concept with courses in non-academic areas. Eighty-five percent of Walker's graduates complete a senior institution baccalaureate program with 79 percent of all Walker students going on to a senior college or university. Marion Institute in Marion is also a private nondenominational junior college serving the educational needs of the state.[122]

A second type of post-secondary program in Alabama features various new semi-professional and technical fields that require some mathematics and science beyond high school level. These schools are often called technical institutes or colleges and are popular in communities where the offerings can be related to industrial and other local needs. Schools of this nature include Alabama Aviation and Technical College, Alabama Technical College, Harry M. Ayers State Technical College, Bessemer State Technical College, J. T. Drake State Technical College, Richmond P. Hobson State Technical College, Douglas MacArthur State Technical College, Northwest Alabama State Technical College, Opelika State Technical College, John M. Patterson State Technical College, Edward E. Reid State Technical College, Shelton State Technical College, Council Trenholm State Technical College, Southwest State Technical College, George C. Wallace State Technical College, Atmore Trade School, Carver State Technical Trade School, Gadsden State Technical Institute, J. F. Ingram State Vocational School, Muscle Shoals Technical Institute, N. F. Nunnelly State Technical Institute, Chauncey Sparks State Technical Institute, Tuscaloosa State Trade School, and Walker County State Trade School.[123]

The third type of post-secondary program in the state offers some or all of the programs noted, but this program additionally provides opportunity for individuals and groups in the community to study community needs for education beyond the high school level and develop educational offerings accordingly. Such

schools in the state are John C. Calhoun State Junior College and Technical Institute, George C. Wallace State Technical Junior College, Lawson-Wenonah State Junior College and Technical Institute, and George C. Wallace State Junior College and Technical Institute.[124]

The vast expansion of colleges and universities in Alabama is not the only major change that higher education has undergone in the last two decades. The quality of education has gradually improved with increasing amounts of state and federal money available to hire more and better qualified teachers and to purchase more educational material. To look at the change in attitudes of the great mass of students who are in the state colleges and universities gives an even more perceptible view of the changes in higher education.[125]

As young people began school in 1974, certainly a new spirit dominated Alabama college campuses as well as those around the United States. Not since the 1950's have students in Alabama been so pragmatic in their outlook or so highly oriented toward careers and financial security. Today's students are worried about the shaky economy, and they are overwhelmingly concerned with the preparation for lucrative and satisfying jobs. The political activism and revolutionary fervor that existed as a result of the draft and Vietnam War has disappeared.[126]

The mood of students in the 1970's is similar to that of the 1950's in that today's students are chiefly concerned with their personal lives. Students seem to be preoccupied with getting into the mainstream of economic life. The analogy to the 1950's, however, is only partly valid. Public opinion analysts who periodically survey American youth document the fact that the social and moral values that flourished on campus in the 1960's have grown stronger and more powerful. More liberal sexual mores, a lessening of automatic obedience to establish authority, and skepticism about the United States political process seem to have become fixed characteristics of many Alabama young people.[127] The overriding influence on student attitudes today is the economy. The greatest worry among students is that there will be no jobs for them after graduation. As a part of the heritage of the 1960's, Alabama students want their careers to provide them with greater self-expression and self-fulfillment as well as high salaries. That is a significant departure from what young people sought in the 1950's and substantially narrows their future job options.[128]

Throughout the years, private education has continued to be a major aspect of Alabama's total education framework. Before the advent of free public education, private institutions and religious or sectarian institutions were the primary means of educating youth. Today in Alabama over 82,000 children, 20 percent of the school-age population, are enrolled in 309 private or denominational schools. Basically these institutions are intended to serve the special interests or purposes in the community and provide the type of instruction desired by the parents. To some extent these private schools compete with public schools for students. At the same time, because they educate so many youth, the private schools save the state thousands of dollars each year and relieve crowded conditions within the public schools.[129]

The Roman Catholic Church operates the oldest and largest denominational school system in the state. The Church maintains sixty-one elementary and high schools in Alabama. Other private denominational school groups include the Baptists, who maintain twenty-seven elementary and high schools; the Lutherans, who operate twenty elementary and high schools; the Methodists, who support six grade schools. The Presbyterians, the Episcopalians, the Jews, the Seventh Day Adventists, the Reform Church in America, the Church of the Nazarene, the Assembly of God, the Church of Christ, and the AME Zion Church operate denominational schools. Most of these schools promote religious objectives similar in principle to those of the Catholics. These are more oriented to the needs of the local church and, consequently, are not as standardized as the Catholics.[130]

In addition to denominational schools, 115 private schools and academies exist in the state. Some of the private schools maintain high academic standards and are accredited by the State Department of Education or the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools.[131]

Many of the private schools in the state began in the 1960's with the coming of integration in the public schools. These academies, established by local citizens in new pre-fabricated buildings and in churches, developed rapidly. Many of the new academies are accredited neither by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools nor by the state of Alabama, although approximately sixty of the academies are accredited by the Alabama Private School Association which began in 1966.[132]

The state maintains five state special schools. The Alabama Institute for Deaf and Blind, which has been operating since 1858 at Talladega, is considered by some authorities in the field to be one of the most comprehensive programs for the deaf and blind found anywhere in the country. Although at first restricted to blind or deaf children of school age, by 1945 the school established adult departments to train men and women. In 1955 out-of-state children as well as Alabama children became eligible to attend the school.[133]

In 1968 the Special Technical Facility for the Blind and Deaf was opened at Talladega. The Facility is a comprehensive rehabilitation center and vocational trade school adapted to meet the needs of those who are blind or virtually handicapped and those who are deaf and hard of hearing. Any person sixteen years old or older who has a visual or hearing loss great enough to limit his or her employment potential or persons with such handicaps who need evalution service or prevocational training are eligible to receive services at the Special Technical Facility for the Blind and Deaf. Clients who are otherwise severely handicapped may enroll at the Special Technical Facility as long as they do not deny a deaf or blind or deaf-blind person enrollment because of overcrowding.[134]

In 1969 the Alabama Institute received a federal grant to establish the Southeast Regional Center for deaf-blind children. The Center will enable deaf-blind children to achieve their full potential for communication and adjustment to the world around them. Recently, a pilot program was begun for mentally retarded deaf children. It is anticipated that facilities and programs will be devel-

oped to take care of from 300 to 500 children located throughout Alabama. The pilot program is to develop curriculum and determine cost for permanent facilities to be constructed in the future. This particular program will be known as the Special School for the Deaf. The future for the Alabama Institute for Deaf and Blind and all of its divisions is encouraging as it continues to relate its programs to those people it serves.[135]

Partlow State School. Alabama's largest facility for the mentally retarded, is located in Tuscaloosa. Originally known as the Alabama Home for Mental Defectives when it was founded in 1919, its name was changed to Partlow State School in 1927 to honor W. David Partlow who was the superintendent of Bryce Hospital and who furnished the inspiration and guidance which led to the founding of the Alabama Home for Mental Defectives. In October, 1944, R. C. Partlow was named to replace Dr. Woodriff as assistant superintendent. Under Dr. Partlow's guidance and supervision, considerable expansion of facilities and programs occurred. After he retired in 1965, improvements in these areas continued under the direction of Joseph E. Barrett. T. H. Patton succeeded Joseph Barrett as superintendent in July, 1968, and served until December, 1971, when he was replaced by Peter Blouke.[136]

More meaningful contributions to the care and treatment of the residents of Partlow State School have taken place since the April 13, 1972, federal court decision *Wyatt vs. Stickney*. Since that time Partlow has been operating on a timetable to comply with forty-nine stringent standards drawn up by noted authorities in the field of mental retardation. Notable progress has resulted because of the intense dedication by employees at all levels. Despite concerned efforts to achieve the necessary changes, it soon became apparent that it would be virtually impossible to accomplish in a few short months what the court mandate stipulated; nevertheless, by the end of the 1973-74 fiscal year, twenty-nine of these standards were met. Perhaps the most significant development since the court order was the sharp reduction in the Partlow population. The number of residents was reduced from over 2,300 to less than 1,400. Over 200 residents were discharged while those remaining were transferred to developmental centers at Decatur and Mobile, sent to adjustment centers in Eufaula and Thomasville, and placed in group homes or individual apartments.[137]

Equally important was the substantial increase in the number of professional and non-professional employees. Since April, 1972, the total number of employees at Partlow rose from 800 to almost 1,900. An increase in the hiring of professional staff members began after the court decision, and recruitment of essential professional positions as outlined in the court order continued throughout 1972. As a result, numerous qualified professionals for mental retardation joined the staff. The departmentalized system that existed in past years was superseded by a new organizational structure which called for the creation of many new areas of service such as Pharmacy, Diagnostic and Evaluation, Community Placement, Microfilming, Staff Education and Development, Support Services, and Habilitation Services which included language development, functional living,

motivational and academic development, vocational and work activities, and occupational therapy.

Many improvements in general living conditions at the residential areas have taken place since the court decision. Every building where residents lived was equipped with thermostatically controlled heating and airconditioning. The Diagnostic and Evaluation Center was responsible for devising rehabilitation and post-institutional plans for all residents of Partlow. Extensive examinations including social evaluations, speech and hearing evaluations, educational evaluations, and psychological evaluations were conducted for every resident at Partlow.[138]

Partlow State School in future years will attempt to move residents from the abnormal setting of the institution's wards to the more normal setting of the community. According to Richard Buchley, Partlow's superintendent, the major goals of the school are to develop community alternatives to institutionalization, make every effort to develop additional group homes, and provide transitional living facilities for those people currently in the institution. While major attention in future years will be focused on placing as many residents as possible into the community and meeting the 49 standards as outlined by the court order, the residents who must remain at Partlow shall certainly not be forgotten in this process. These residents will be provided with the necessary training that will allow them to reach their fullest potential and have a meaningful life.[139]

The State Training School for Girls seventeen miles from Birmingham trains those girls who have committed crimes. The girls are in school about half of each day and spend the other half in vocational training or in maintenance work. Besides their academic work, pupils take physical education, sewing, home economics, hemstitching, laundering, and beauty-shop operation. Much of the vocational work is planned to reduce the expenses of the institution. The instructional program not only fills the special needs of the pupils but also is accredited by the Alabama Department of Education. Discipline is maintained by the withholding of privileges.[140]

The Alabama Boys' Industrial School established in 1900 is located near Birmingham on a 260-acre farm. The boys at the school are usually admitted by the juvenile court. Local welfare officers supply case histories for about 90 percent of those admitted. Pupils are released on good behavior under the supervision of local departments of public welfare. Some boys are given indefinite leaves of absence but remain technically under the control of the school until they reach the age of twenty-one. Release depends upon the individual's record and prospects. The education program conducted for ten months of the year includes work through the tenth grade. An effort is made to assist boys in graduating from high schools away from the campus. The school gives a large amount of freedom to the boys and emphasizes self-control and self-discipline. This policy results in an increased number of escapes since some of the boys are habitual truants, but the policy is valuable for character development.[141]

The Alabama Industrial School is located on a farm at Mt. Meigs not far from Montgomery. Formerly a state institution for black delinquent youth, now the

school admits by court order both black and white pupils. The vocational training of the school is concentrated on farm work, but pupils also receive training in such skills as carpentry and bricklaying. The instructional program is in session eight months out of each year; half of the pupils are in school each day, and half are employed in maintenance and farm work. The school program extends through the ninth grade, and state adopted textbooks are used.[142]

The education of Alabama youth and adults occurs outside of formal schools also. The non-school agencies of education in Alabama are so numerous that they defy adequate compilation, but a few need to be mentioned to illustrate the vital role they play in the educational development of the state. The Young Men's Christian Association and its counterpart the Young Women's Christian Association carry on a program of social, recreational, and educational activites in communities throughout the state. The Boy Scout movement successfully brings out-of-door pleasure to its members. Similar organizations for girls, like the Girl Scouts and the Camp Fire Girls, attract membership and interest. Public libraries, museums, newspapers, books, magazines, and periodicals are other non-school agencies that bring education to the people of Alabama.[143]

One of the newest and most successful non-school education agencies in the state is the Alabama State Council on the Arts and Humanities. It began in 1966 as a result of a 1965 Congressional Act which created the National Foundation on the Arts and Humanities. The Act provided funding through the National Endowment for the Arts for the promotion of cultural activities throughout the nation. A certain sum was allocated annually to each state to be matched by an equivalent sum provided within the state to foster a better balanced society involving all art forms. Although the Alabama State Council on the Arts was created by executive order on April 8, 1966, of Governor George C. Wallace, the order was amended by the State Legislature and signed into law by Governor Albert Brewer on September 12, 1969. The Act placed Alabama in the official position of recognizing, encouraging, and supporting the growth and development of the arts.[144]

From its inception the Council has worked hard to provide technical and financial assistance to local organizations in sponsoring activities of the visual and performing arts within communities throughout Alabama. The purpose of the Council's program is to increase interest, participation, and support in the arts by supplementing local initiative and local funds to enable a greater number of quality activities to be seen and heard throughout the state. Acting as a catalyst, the Council is able to bring together a community's desire for artistic performances and exhibitions and the equally strong desire of the artists to perform and to show their work.[145]

The Alabama State Council on the Arts and Humanities may underwrite the expense of performances of professional groups in the communities: orchestra, theatre and opera companies; dance groups, and chamber music ensembles, to name a few. The Council may help finance traveling exhibitions of painting, sculpture, and other visual and decorative arts to museums, galleries, and libraries.[146]

Considering the limited financial resources available in the state, Alabamians can be proud of several bright spots which exist in the state cultural picture. Cities such as Birmingham, Mobile, and Huntsville and university campuses in Tuscaloosa and Auburn offer symphony music and other performances of the highest caliber. Excellent commercial theatre productions and ballet are brought to Birmingham, Mobile, and Huntsville. Museums in Birmingham and Montgomery and the Art Gallery in Mobile are well attended and bring to Alabamians some of the best in art exhibitions.[147]

The state has five theatre groups at colleges and universities in Montgomery, Huntsville, Birmingham, and Mobile. A limited fare of opera is offered chiefly by the Mobile Opera Guild and Birmingham Civic Opera. Vocal and instrumental recitals by local artists and groups are presented in many smaller cities in addition to the larger ones. There is widespread activity in the visual arts in many parts of the state with a truly heartening display of talents available including painting, sculpture, various crafts, and several scores of organizations. The number of exhibits, outdoor shows, competitive shows and the number and size of prizes grows almost daily and reaches into small towns. Historical preservation and architecture are also being actively promoted in the state. Art festivals are conducted annually in Birmingham, Mobile, Huntsville and many other cities. The Alabama State Council on the Arts and Humanities, although only eight years in existence, has helped to accomplish many things.[148]

Another non-school agency of education is the Alabama Art Commission begun in 1919 during the governorship of Thomas E. Kilby. The Commission was established "to encourage the study of fine and useful arts, and art teaching; to make investigations and surveys; to adopt standards; and to do and perform such other things as will promote an interest in art in all of its relations." Other legislated duties were "to advise in determining plans, designs, and models for buildings, parks, statues, fountain and public monuments, or in making additions or alterations in existing buildings; to maintain permanent or temporary exhibitions and a library of art and allied subjects; and to make annual reports of its activities."[149]

Membership in the Commission consists of the governor, the state superintendent of education, the state highway engineer, the director of the Department of Archives and History, and six other members to be appointed by the governor. The appointed members serve without pay for a period of six years. The Commission can be called upon by any state, county, or municipal officials, or by the trustees or other officials of state or private institutions, or by any individuals.[150]

The Commission has not been in continuous operation, but in 1969 and 1970 the Commission did work with the State Highway Department in making decisions concerning the historical embellishments to be used on the Mobile Tunnel Ventilation Building. That was the last official request made to the Art Commission; however, this virtually ignored body of qualified persons remains available any time its services are requested.[151]

Since the first hardy settlers established crude schools in the wilderness around Mobile, education has been an important factor in the economic progress

of Alabama and its citizens. Education is an investment in economic growth. Some people now see that the effort, money, and time put into education has a relationship to the standard of living that individuals may attain. Many studies show the direct relationship between the educational level of individuals and their lifetime earnings. One study based on United States Census data revealed that a college graduate in Alabama could be expected to earn $125,000 more during his lifetime than a schoolmate who only finished high school.[152]

Studies reviewed in a recent publication of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare show clearly the relationship between the educational level and the lifetime income of male workers in Alabama. Men and women with college or high school educations earned 82 percent of all annual individual incomes of $10,000 or more. Conversely, 77 percent of annual individual incomes under $5,000 were earned by men with inadequate elementary school educations.[153]

Incomes of Alabama college graduates show greater difference between start and peak of their careers than for men with lower levels of educational attainment. In 1956 college graduates started careers with annual incomes that averaged about $5,400. College graduates in their productive "peak" years—late forties and early fifties—had an average annual income of about $9,100. This was an increase of 70 percent between average incomes at start and peak. The comparable figure was a 14 percent increase in the average annual incomes for both elementary and high school graduates. Estimates of average college costs and for the twelve years of public school in the United States afford opportunity for further comparisons of earnings of persons with high school and college education, respectively. In 1961 the 19,000 public high schools graduated 1,700,000 youths. The total estimated cost in public funds for their twelve years of public education was $7,855,054,000. The average cost of four years of college was estimated at $6,200 in 1961. Very little arithmetic is needed to show that the public and the parental investments in high school and college education pay off in terms of increased earnings compared to workers with lower educational attainment. More recent figures bear out the findings that education is one of the more important determinants of the amount of income received by individuals.[154]

The relationship between education and employment has been shown in many studies. Invariably the unemployed groups include high proportions of persons whose educational level is low. The amount of schooling a person has shows a close relationship to employment opportunity and security of the worker in his job. In the labor force about one fourth of male workers in the twenty-five to fifty-four age group have completed high school. Among those who have not completed high school, the long-term unemployment is three times higher for those who are high school graduates; their rate of involuntary part-time work is three times greater. In 1900 nearly two thirds of the entire United States labor force were unskilled workers; in 1960 hardly one job out of five could be filled by untrained labor. The Rockefeller Fund Panel reported that it is precisely

those employment fields which require the highest competence and most extended preparation that exhibit the greatest increase in employment.[155]

The relationship between education and income is further substantiated by figures for family income according to the amount of schooling of each head of a family in 1961. The median income for families headed by college graduates was $8,143, while the median income for families headed by persons with elementary schooling was only $4,386. Of the families headed by persons with elementary schooling nearly one fourth of the families had incomes of less than $3,000, and nearly one half of the families had incomes of less than $5,000.[156]

Figures for 1961, according to occupation of head of family, also showed work differentials in favor of professional and technical workers (whose education would include college and professional schools) and of manager proprietors and officials over other groups of workers. Lowest family incomes were found among families headed by household workers, farm workers and laborers, and groups with low average education attainment. Median income of families of all employed civilians increased from $3,319 in 1950 to $5,620 in 1960 and $5,737 in 1961. Median income of families of professional and technical workers increased from $5,029 in 1950 to $6,447 in 1955 to $8,806 in 1961. The study of data for any recent year leads to similar findings.[157]

Usually higher educational attainment affords easier access to occupations that are recognized as economically and socially more desirable. In this respect it could be said that higher education attainment and social mobility were related. The occupational picture of Alabama and the national economy are aspects of the culture that change at an increased rate. In 1900 in the United States there was one machine for every 250 workers; now there is about one for every 25 workers. An increase of 90 percent has occurred in the number of electricians since the end of World War I. The need for scientists in all fields increased 75 percent during the 1970's. Personnel employed in the various health services has increased five-fold in twenty years' time. All of these fields present clear illustrations of the key importance of education in Alabama at both professional and vocational levels.[158]

The economic aspects of education are significant, but also significant is the relationship between education and individual happiness. Through the educational history of Alabama, as well as that of the rest of the nation, there has been a consistent emphasis upon individual achievement—the realization of one's potential as the end product of education. Education is important to individual happiness because schools have become direct instruments for keeping the United States a land of opportunity. Schools give a fresh start to each generation.[159]

There is a growing awareness in Alabama of the relationship between the investment people make in education and their economic progress. The standard of living is high in the United States in those states where people invest their time, money, and efforts in education. Studies have been made at various times that point out this relationship between education and the economic progress of state or nation; for instance, both Brazil and the United States stand relatively high in natural resources. Until recently, both general and technical educational

developments have been low in Brazil and high in the United States. This in part accounts for the fact that productivity per person in the United States averaged over $2,100 during the 1950's, while that of Brazil was under $200 for the same period.[160]

Post-war studies abroad reported similar relationships between educational expenditure of countries and the national income of those countries. Those countries with high educational expenditures had high national income. The same general thesis can be applied to Alabama and other states. In general, states which through the years have a good record of investing in public schools are found to have high per capita incomes. This relationship is true, although the pattern of natural resources may vary considerably. There are states with limited mineral and soil resources and short-growing seasons that rank high in productivity as shown by per capita income. These states have traditionally given above-average support to their schools. Although possessing relatively rich resources, there are also some states which rank low in productivity as shown by per capita income. They have traditionally supported their public schools at low levels.[161]

The educational level of people in the state has a definite relationship to their living standards. Many studies clearly show that people in Alabama who have a good education produce more goods, earn more money, buy and consume more goods, read more magazines and newspapers, are more active in civic and national affairs, enjoy a higher standard of living, and contribute more to the economy than those who are not so well educated.[162]

Education is necessary for the economic growth of Alabama. Much of the responsibility and contributions to the growth of the state economy depends upon educated people providing wise and prudent leadership. The better educated the people are, the more capable they are to work, lead, and contribute to the state. Education for all people costs more, but their productivity is raised, and the taxes they begin to pay to governments at the local, state, and national levels show what a sound investment education has always been. An advanced and efficient state economic system cannot use the typical large group of unskilled labor with low educational levels.[163]

These are only a few of the effects education has on Alabama. Actually education has touched many other aspects of state life including scientific programs, cultural programs, and state leadership. Education must be emphasized even more in the state to aid Alabamians to meet various problems and crises that will certainly arise in the future. The controversial historian Arnold Toynbee stated that most societies throughout history ended for lack of continued ability to meet the recurring challenges that history brought into their course. No culture has ever survived indefinitely by exploiting and limiting its people and by regulating the use of their abilities, all of which may be needed by that society. This theory suggests that the people of Alabama may be wise to cherish and strengthen that educational system which places greatest value upon optimum development of every person.[164]

FOOTNOTES

1954-Present

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FUTURE

Currently several new philosophies of learning and some innovative educational techniques are challenging traditional public school educational patterns throughout Alabama. These trends have entered all aspects of the school environment; some may be permanent and others shortlived. Some of the trends result from changes outside the regular school program and are influenced by legislation, litigation, patterns of local control or national audit, and other social and economic factors; for example, schools may decide to deal primarily with the parents, who are legally the guardians of the students, or directly with the youth who desire a greater voice in the operation of the school. Because the courts have recently ruled in favor of student rights in particular cases, the trend in education is to allow more student participation through democratic school governments.[1]

Other innovations result from changes in philosophy concerning the nature of the learner or of the subject. Trends in school subject areas result from the search for ways to unify topics so that students can make sense of the large amount of information placed in the program. This involves consideration of what a student can learn and when he should learn it; consequently, subjects such as career education are pushed downward into lower grade levels. Schools recently began offering specialized courses in order to attract all students and teach them in a manner that will benefit the individual. As a result, school status is now determined by its retention rate rather than its dropout rate.[2]

Methods of teaching are also changing as new ideas concerning teacher effectiveness emerge. The schools are moving from lectures, projects, and field trips into a mixture of group activities, independent study, and increased use of audio-visual equipment. Recently, schools introduced "auto-instructional" devices—teaching machines, programmed learning activities, and educational television. Soon schools may make extensive use of computer-assisted instruction. Other examples of this trend are the use of experiments to replace "canned" exercises in science and the attention to listening and speaking in order to learn a foreign language through conversation rather than through mere translation. The inductive approach to learning, exemplified by inquiry and discovery, emphasizes the process by which a student learns rather than the content to which he is exposed. In inquiry a student applies his own thinking in order to verify predetermined explanations, while in discovery his thinking is directed toward solving a problem in his own way. These new techniques are being tried and tested in certain school systems throughout the state.[3]

In the immediate future changes in education will reflect current issues and problems. School officials will debate these issues, and both proponents and opponents will collect data to support their particular argument. Current proposals designed to improve the quality of education in Alabama include revamping teacher-training programs in the universities, stimulating a statewide system of teacher salary raises based on merit rather than tenure and number of degrees held; improving libraries, especially at the post-secondary level; expanding the

pre-school educational program; increasing special education classes and driver education classes; and eliminating or transferring to budgets other than education, matters such as mental health programs, civil defense, civilian rehabilitation, and industrial development training.[4]

Other problems which need to be solved involve fundamental questions as follow: should schools return to a narrow academic curriculum; should schools continue offering non-academic courses, such as film making and photography; should schools continue their involvement in co-curricular activities, such as football, school plays, and beauty contests; and should teachers compete with each other for a particular assignment or assume different roles on an instructional team. A big issue among the parents of Alabama concerns the question of how schools should go about teaching moral and ethical values. Because these issues will be solved slowly and deliberately, a few radical changes will take place in the state in the next few years or in the next few decades. But what about a century from now? What will Alabama public and private schools be like in the year 2076?[5]

Schools of the future, similar to those today, will be shaped by unforeseen and sometimes uncontrollable environmental changes. The political structure, for example, may undergo significant changes which will thereby influence the pattern of education. Several prognosticators have speculated on the type of government that will exist a century from now. One soothsayer predicts that the traditional bureaucratic government will be replaced by community governments composed of loosely interwoven committees created to solve immediate problems. If this occurs, control of education will be placed solely on the community level and the program of each school will be determined locally. Individual differences will necessitate alternative schools or patterns of instruction from which parents and students may choose. Boards of education will maintain surveillance of various programs for the protection of the public interest, and the board members will be held accountable in courts for the accuracy of their claims. The educational establishment will continue to deal with certification of teachers and accreditation of programs, and such agencies will be composed of individuals with competencies demonstrated to colleagues and lay citizens. The government will reduce its active involvement in education but will arbitrate charges of unfair practices and unnecessary duplication of effort.[6]

The economic system may become more socialistic. One forecaster claims that there will be a decline in competition among people and an end to contrived demand and planned obsolescence for products and material goods. In the future productive capacity will be geared to meet the identified minimum needs of all people. Each family, whose size will probably be predetermined, will be guaranteed a minimum annual income. The increased amount of leisure time will be utilized for cultural pursuits rather than for material ones. The effects of these economic changes on education would be numerous. For one, all youth will be guaranteed an education. Insurance policies funded by a minimum tax assessed in proportion to the amount of education obtained by the parent rather than on real wealth or property may be developed for education. Such an in-

surance policy would guarantee specialized education for exceptional children regardless of the cost of the program.[7]

Others predict that society will become more humanistic. By 2076 the community may function as an extended family. There would be a decline in nationalism and ethnocentrism as society learns to tolerate wider diversity because of pooled knowledge, experience, and insight. Status will be accorded in terms of an individual's contributions to others. Loyalty to mankind will supplant local and national patriotism. This atmosphere will allow schools to become the forum for special interest groups rather than for the discussion of ideas accepted only by the majority. Students will be helped to make sound decisions based on a detailed examination of public relations, propaganda, and vested interest. The fields of psychology and philosophy will be brought formally into the curriculum; and students will be assisted to deal systematically with reality, truth, and other values. Mental health will be a prime factor for education in this humanistic era.[8]

In the future the desired educational program may be determined in advance and not structured to fit available resources. Learning facilitators may arrange, devise, or create an appropriate series of materials to fit the needs of the individual. Resource personnel may be available within the school or broader community to develop materials according to specifications established by the learning facilitators. Other instructional personnel may be drawn from all aspects of the large community served by the school. Capable adults may be called upon as resources for particular activities. Businessmen, professionals, and other specialists may direct apprenticeship activities which cannot occur in the classroom. Instructors may be determined by their academic qualifications with consideration given to cultural, emotional, social, and ethical factors. Teachers may be employed on a renewable contractual basis rather than upon a permanent one through tenure. Retraining may be expected and will carry no connotation of diminished worth or loss of status. Teachers may select colleagues with whom they prefer to cooperate, and students may choose their teachers.[9]

Learners may be grouped according to interest, motivation, task, and performance. A wide range of ages and capabilities may be accommodated. A student in the future may advance in the program when he demonstrates a general maturity level rather than an intelligence level. Within some groups the learner may receive instruction and process data. In other groups he may explore his capabilities, improve interaction with others, and integrate experiences into a meaningful whole. Time will be allocated by the learner, and activities will be conducted at the time the participants consider appropriate. No activity will be mandatory and students will be free to enter or leave the school at any time. In the future the term "school" may apply to any learning situation and not to a particular building.[10]

Special teams composed of parents, physicians, psychiatrists, older students, and professional educators may evaluate student progress in the future. Performance in actual or simulated situations and records of experiences, rather than acquisition of knowledge, may determine a student's competency. Since each learning situation will involve a formal or informal contractual relationship

among resource persons, professional teacher, and student, the criteria for successful completion of a program may be established in advance according to specific behavioral objectives. The evaluation of a student may therefore follow the guidelines set forth in the contract. Student and faculty representatives may continuously evaluate the curriculum with policies established by the larger community. They will make recommendations for new programs and for the elimination of existing ones to the Board who will also receive advice from employees, producers, and consumers. As a result, the school program in the future will constantly undergo modification.[11]

Foods served in future Alabama schools may be fabricated foods, such as the following: combinations of protein extracted from soybean, fat from corn or cottonseed, and sugar from other sources. By 2076 people may be eating many things that look, feel, and taste like the foods we know today but are really fabricated by-products.[12]

Perhaps continued emphasis on nutrition will open up new fields and new positions in education for people who are highly qualified in the areas of food and nutrition. The computer may determine child nutrition programs. It will be used for menu-planning, purchasing, computating production needs, controlling both personnel and product inventory resources, nutritional monitoring, and even setting the serving system for the food service department. The complexity of child nutrition programs may call for managers with a higher degree of technological training as well as more skill in human relations to compensate for the depersonalized nature of the automated system.[13]

The following accomplishments may become realities during the next 100 years. A universal child nutrition program will enable every student from preschool through graduate school to participate in one or more food service programs at no direct cost to parents. Federal, state, and local governmental agencies will share the funding and administration of the nutrition programs. Child nutrition programs might operate year round and will incorporate a wide variety of program and menus to meet the nutritional needs of participants. Directors will be participating in auxiliary feeding programs, such as programs for the elderly and special food service programs for needy children. In Alabama in 2076 it may not be unusual to see school nutrition programs feeding the entire community from infants to oldsters.[14]

Food processors and equipment specialists will be working more closely with child nutrition program directors in developing and refining products to insure maximum utilization and acceptability. Also nutritional education will be an integral part of the curriculum. Teachers at all levels will be certified in nutrition education and will incorporate it as a continuous part of the total school program. Proper health habits and nutrition training will enable the population of Alabama and even the world to lead relatively healthy and disease-free lives which will increase the average life span by approximately twenty years.[15]

The people of Alabama can look forward to an exciting future of new, delicious fabricated foods, shared food purchasing and continuous feeding and

computer-aided management, all combining to make child nutritional programs in 2076 superior in nutrition, efficiency, profitability, and acceptability.[16]

Educators have contrived several possible prototypes for future schools. Because the school has the responsibility of transmitting the past to students in the present, it is suggested that the school of the future may resemble a museum library. In some institutions reference data have already been placed in memory drums, and the library has been converted to dial-access retrieval system. This method codifies related data so that students may readily obtain all information needed to solve a particular problem. New technology will enable students to use the dial-access system while at home; consequently, the school should become a depository or a warehouse where recorded information is stored until it is needed for the solution of problems.[17]

Those educators who believe that the school should be the center of the community advocate the motel-resort model for future schools. Already some schools have assumed the responsibility for many recreational activities, and it is anticipated that the role of the schools in this area may increase as leisure time becomes more abundant. It is possible that both youngsters and adults will maintain residence at school for extended periods of time in order that they may fully participate in joint educational and recreational programs.[18]

The future school may possibly be modeled on a travel agency basis, whereby the school would establish an appropriate program for each student and refer him/her to another agency of the community for instruction and actual experience. Some students would be sent to business and industry; others would be sent to museums, libraries, or research stations. At any rate, the school would be maintained primarily to provide administrative services.[19]

The travel agency model school might not be adequate for future needs; therefore, the concept of the clinic-diagnostic center is also envisioned. This model school would be composed of clinicians trained to diagnose the various educational needs of the students and to prescribe various programs to be followed. The student would pursue this program both in and out of school. The clinicians would periodically evaluate the student and new programs would be prescribed as the student progressed.[20]

The recent rise in programs for the very bright, the handicapped, and the exceptional child suggests that the future school may resemble a hospital-treatment center. In such a school all special groups of students would be treated, including those suffering from the disease of ignorance. Students would remain in schools for different lengths of time and undergo various kinds of treatment.[21]

The hospital-treatment center model is compatable with another model based on the concept of the therapeutic center. The therapeutic center idea is derived from the belief that students are educated through unofficial and informal contacts with adults and peers. It is possible that individual and group therapy sessions, such as those conducted by counselors in group guidance discussions, should become the focus of the curriculum of the future school.[22]

It is also conceivable that the school of the future may be a large communications network that will beam lessons to students who are located in other areas.

This model is designed so that specialists and even international figures could deliver the same lecture or demonstration to thousands of students simultaneously at the flip of a switch. This model complements the concept of a museum-library in that it, too, is computerized.[23]

Another idea which has been developed is the research center-laboratory model school. This type school would consist of shops, laboratories, and studios where actual experimentation would be conducted by the student under supervision. This school emphasizes actual experience for traditionally academic courses. Unlike the travel-agency model where students participate in actual experiences in the community, this type of school would offer simulated experiences directed by certified teachers.[24]

What will higher education be like in the future? Higher education has been the subject of intensive scrutiny in the past few years. Various national panels and commissions have issued a long list of distinguished reports, studies, and monographs. From these efforts, as well as from basic census data, a number of developments and trends that will continue to have an impact upon higher education throughout the remainder of the 1970's can be identified.[25]

In the period from 1974 to 1979 enrollments in higher education will continue to grow, but the rate of growth will be slower than in the 1960's and 1970's. The best available estimates for Alabama, taking into account demographic data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census as well as enrollment data for Alabama institutions, indicate a total enrollment of 154,000 to 164,000 in 1980. That would be an increase of 28,383 to 38,383 or 23 percent to 31 percent over the 1973 enrollment of 125,617 and of 50,672 to 60,672 or 49 percent to 59 percent over the 1970 enrollment of 103,328. The rate of growth would be well below that of the 1960's when enrollments increased 151 percent from 41,142 in 1960 to 103,328 in 1970, but the slower the rate of growth masks the fact that in absolute numbers enrollments in the 1970's will have grown almost as much as they did in the 1960's. From 1960 to 1970, enrollments increased 62,186, while from 1970 to 1980 they are projected to increase to between 50,672 and 60,672. Most of the increased growth is expected to occur in public institutions, although changes in federal student aid policies may alter or slow the recent trend toward students enrolling in growing proportions in public institutions.[26]

During the last decade and a half, Alabama has moved progressively closer to national averages on a variety of indicators of social and economic well-being. That progress gives every sign of continuing. As the proportions of students who finish high school and the proportion of those students who continue post-secondary education approach national averages, Alabama's post-secondary institutions would experience growth at rates somewhat above the national average. Especially in urban institutions and in the junior colleges, students enrolled part-time are likely to compose a growing proportion of total enrollments.[27]

Continuing education—for professionals, for mid-career executives, for ordinary citizens interested in obtaining or upgrading a skill or in self-enrichment—is expected to become an increasingly important function of both two-year and four-year institutions. The present trend toward greater diversity among

students is expected to continue. Students representing a greater range of interests, ages, abilities, and backgrounds are likely to be found with increasing frequency in post-secondary institutions. The proportion of women students and minority students who enroll in higher education and continue through the baccalaureate into graduate and professional programs should also increase.[28]

The current emphasis upon technical and vocational education is likely to intensify. Technical and vocational education should remain particularly sensitive to the needs of the local economy. Since those needs shift with time, sometimes with remarkable rapidity, institutions offering vocational and occupational programs will continue the need of retaining flexibility in their curricular offerings. Just as it is important to maintain flexibility to offer new programs to meet emerging needs, so will it continue to be important to keep the flexibility for phasing out programs for which need no longer exists.[29]

Despite the well-publicized excess supply in some fields, graduate and professional enrollments should continue to grow well into the 1980's. Some fields will experience declines, but overall pressure on graduate and professional enrollments should rise as the number of baccalaureate degrees granted continues to increase. Interest in innovative and non-traditional education programs is likely to increase. At the same time, a reasoned defense of traditional methods and measures of excellence seems to be gathering force within the academic community. The creative tension between these two forces should result in a system that is responsive to judicious and constructive change while avoiding harmful and ill-considered disruption.[30]

With expanded physical plants built in the 1960's and 1970's and with a decline in enrollments, the pressing need for physical facilities present in the 1960's should lessen so that an increasing proportion of total state funds for higher education ultimately can be used for the improvement of existing programs. There will, of course, continue to be a need for capital monies in specific instances.[31]

In recent years, the emigration from Alabama of its basic resource, its people, especially its young people, has been substantial. The beginnings of a reverse trend are now apparent. That reverse trend should intensify as the economic, social, and cultural progress of the state continues. As national averages in indicators of social and economic well-being are neared, present revenue sources should expand sufficiently to provide funds necessary to continue the substantial progress that has been made, particularly in this biennium, to bring all levels of education nearer to regional and, ultimately, to national standards of financial support.[32]

With state appropriations increasing, institutional accountability — not merely fiscal but educational—will continue to receive increasing emphasis among public officials as well as with the public in general. Institutional autonomy is highly valued, but with independence and autonomy go responsibility and accountability. Effective management of resources will continue to be expected, but accountability should not degenerate into a crude accounting of degrees awarded and unit costs. The functions of a system of higher education

are complex and interrelated. The legitimate desire for enhanced accountability, which is the expectation that the system of higher education will serve the public interest by fulfilling its goals and purposes in the most effective and efficient manner possible, will not be furthered by a narrow-gauged and simplistic view of the functions of higher education.[33]

Although trends in Alabama higher education can be predicated in the near future with reasonable accuracy, predictions for the distant future are only guesses. Will there even be institutions of higher learning in 100 years? Probably there will be, because higher education not only will survive but will flourish if it continues in the future to equip men and women with the knowledge to meet the challenge of a changing society. Indeed, stable society could not last long without higher education fulfilling this function. As a noted author has said, "When things start changing outside, you are going to have a parallel change taking place inside." Higher education can provide leadership in lessening the shock of these changes.[34]

Universities, at least those with some degree of excellence, tend to survive for centuries. Considering the services and the potential, large universities in the state will survive and flourish, but what of the small college in Alabama whose existence even today is threatened? Perhaps many of these schools will consolidate, and others will close without desperately needed funds. Many educators believe, however, that these schools will continue to play a significant role in higher education; for in a society in which numbers are rapidly replacing names, the campus which stresses warmth and reinforces the personal identity of the student is essential.[35]

The study of certain social, economic, and political phenomena can also give some idea of the kind of higher education that may exist in the distant future. The obvious need of many citizens for health care will stimulate programs in universities for the training of allied health personnel and will be given special impetus should a national health insurance plan be adopted. The urban crises which confront America seem to defy solution. It is estimated that in 2018, the United States will have a population of 550 million, of which 95 percent will be urban. Problems of environmental control, population, density, health, crime, education, financial support, public utilities, and many others will increase in magnitude and complexity in Alabama and will require adequate manpower for solution. The universities can train this manpower. The transition in the state to mass higher education and now to "universal access" is a movement of tremendous proportion and may continue, for it is in keeping with the traditional American belief that individuals should have the opportunity to develop their potentialities to the fullest.[36] Faculty and administrator, as well as the student body, in post secondary institutions may become more racially integrated. Positions of leadership may be held by a much higher percentage of women. Alabama's natural resources suggest that further industrialization of the state will proceed at a rapid pace. Industrial needs for educated manpower, improved school systems, transportation, and related matters will have a decided impact on higher education. It is logical to expect a closer relationship between industry and higher education

with reference to training, recurrent education, and placement of students in specific areas. Joint educational planning may be called for because it will become too costly to duplicate relatively low-enrollment courses or even departments. As a result of this joint education planning, institutions in the state may no longer crowd excessive numbers of students onto their campuses.[37]

College and university buildings in Alabama may be radically different. This will be necessary because of the increased use of electronic and other types of equipment and programmed teaching. Larger cities in the state will have clusters of schools. In some places whole communities may live out their lives in one vast building with places of residence, factories, businesses, and schools. The higher education curriculum in the state may experience changes. There will be greater use of the news media in educational programs. Higher education may move into industries, houses, public meetings, and wherever society is working. More emphasis will be on aesthetics, human relations, technology, and values. Higher institutions of learning may educate students for living, not simply for making a living.[38]

Teachers of the future may exert more power over the system, and may be better paid. Students may participate more in school administrative decisions, and there may be more emphasis on student rights. College attendance may be spread over a wider span of years with periods of absence. Whatever the future direction, Alabama will be wise to assure education continued success. Education depends upon society's financial support and upon the quality of interaction between teacher and student. To remember that education is an intensely personal experience and a lifelong process is to carry two bright torches into the future.[39]

FOOTNOTES
Future

[1]Firth and Kimpston, 650-655.

[2]Firth, 659-670; Community interviews; E. J. Duffy, "Directions for Learning," *The 80's Where Will the Schools Be?* (Reston, Virginia: The National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1974) 4-8.

[3]Firth, 671-675.

[4]Kate Harris, *Birmingham News*, "Passage of $1.5 billion Education Budget South," Sunday, November 24, 1974.

[5]Community interviews.

[6]Firth, 650-675.

[7]*Ibid.*

[8]Firth, 675-680.

[9]*Ibid.*; Denny G. French, "The Eighties, Theory and Application," *The 80's . . .*, 1-4.

[10]*Ibid.*

[11]*Ibid.*, Dan Kahler, "What if . . .? Creating Your School" *The 80's*, 13-16.

[12]Unpublished Report, "History of School Food Service Section," State Department of Education, 2-4.

[13]*Ibid.*

[14]*Ibid.*

[15]*Ibid.*

[16]*Ibid.*

[17]Firth, 682.

[18]*Ibid.*, 682.

[19]*Ibid.*, 683.

[20]*Ibid.*, 683.

[21]*Ibid.*, 682.

[22]Firth, 683-684; Kimball Wiles, *The Changing Curriculum of the American High School* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963) 301-305.

[23]Firth, 684-685; Community interviews.

[24]*Ibid.*

[25]"Historical Background, Current Situation, and General Recommendation—Planning Document #1 of the Master Plan for Higher Education in Alabama." Unpublished Report, Alabama Commission on Higher Education, 24.

[26]*Ibid.*, 25; Richard Beremdzen, "Population Changes in Higher Education," *Educational Record*, LV, No. 2 (Spring, 1974), 120.

[27]"Historical Background," 25.

[28]*Ibid.*, 26.

[29]*Ibid.*

[30]*Ibid.*, 27.

[31]*Ibid.*

[32]*Ibid.*, 28.

[33]*Ibid.*

[34]Alvin Toffler, *Future Shock* (New York: Random House, 1970), 35.

[35]Unpublished Report, Huntingdon College by David K. Morris, 7; St. Bernard College, Unpublished Report, Fr. Aloysius Plaisance, O.S.B., 6; Walker College, Unpublished Report, 5.

[36]Tuskegee Institute, Unpublished Report, 7; Beremdzen, 120; Howard R. Bowen, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the Association of Graduate Schools* (October, 1972), 8-9.

[37]Fred M. Hechinger, "The Crisis of Money and Identity: Is Continuing Action Possible?" *Chonge* (September, 1972), 43-44; "History of Tuskegee Institute," Unpublished Report, 8-9.

[38]Theodore W. Hipple, *The Future of Education: 1975-2000*, 6, 7, 9, 14, 16-18, 31, 35, 36, 40, 135, 218, 226; Maurine S. Maness, "Higher Education in Alabama as Reflected by the History of University of North Alabama, Florence," 9.

[39]Hipple, 10, 11, 70, 77, 135, 169; McKenzie, Unpublished Report, 9.

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