

Independent Action, 1826-1876

It was inconceivable in 1826 to think that vocational education, as it was known then, should be a responsibility of the public school system. In the first place there wasn't much of a school system available to which it could be attached. Mostly the educational push was limited to the first eight grades; high schools were still largely an educational dream. By 1850 there were no more than 60 high schools in the nation. In the second place, the need for vocational education occurred in locations where large numbers of craftsmen were concentrated, that is, in the large cities. These craftsmen, drawn together by their common interests, attempted to solve their vocational educational needs in their own way. The general problem of vocational education was not of national concern or, for that matter, even of state concern.

"The common school, the basic unit of the American school system, emerged as a response to the conditions of American life during the period 1825-1860. Its origin is

related to the play of social forces and ideas agitating the young Republic. Commerce and industry were expanding. Improvements in transportation and communication—roads, canals, and railroads—brought communities closer together, stimulating the exchange of goods and services as well as the growth of cities. In 1820 the United States boasted twelve cities of 10,000 or more; by 1860 over 100. The emergence of the common school also owed much to the growing heterogeneity of the population. In the 1830's, 40's, and 50's came the great tide of European immigration. The common school would be a means of uniting the growing heterogeneous population by giving the immigrants an understanding of American ways.

"Emergence of a workingman's movement also greatly influenced the development of the common school. By the second decade of the 19th century the United States was rapidly becoming an industrial as well as an urban nation. Factories sprang up over the countryside and, around them, bustling towns and cities; textile mills in Lowell [Massachusetts], shoe factories in Brockton [Massachusetts], pottery works in Trenton [New Jer-

sey], iron mills in Richmond [Virginia]. An important outgrowth of this industrialism was the growth of workingman's organizations, comprised of skilled laborers who began to organize trade and craft unions in order to improve their bargaining power.

"It was virtually inevitable that, in the period of unrest which characterized Andrew Jackson's Administration, these organizations should develop political arms. In 1827 in Philadelphia, fifteen trade unions joined together to form the Mechanics Union of Trade Associations. The movement rapidly expanded, developing political groups called Workingman's parties, designed to agitate for legislation that would extend the rights of labor, including free public education as one of the means of improving the condition of the working class." (Cohen)

This close association of labor and education would a hundred years later add strength to the vocational education movement.

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The Manual Labor Movement

There were few if any educational blueprints to follow as the new nation moved to expand its educational system. Certainly there were none in vocational education. But social needs have a way of reaching solutions one way or another and the independent educational action characteristic of the first half of the nineteenth century is representative of some of the solutions attempted.

The Mechanics' Institute, which originated in England during the early years of the nineteenth century, attempted to regain the educational values lost with the coming of the factory system. The institutes were popular in England and the idea soon spread to the United States. Within a few years nearly every large city had some organization of mechanics whose purposes were in part educational.

The Franklin Institute, which was established in Philadelphia in 1824, was the first institution to be organized in this country on the English plan. Two other representative institutes are the Maryland Institute for the Promotion of the Mechanic Arts, founded in Baltimore in 1826, and the Ohio Mechanics' Institute of Cincinnati, founded in 1828. In keeping with the westward movement, the San Francisco Mechanics Institute was founded in 1854.

Although each institute adjusted to conditions peculiar to its location there were great similarities in purpose. It is not uncommon to find reading rooms, libraries, public lectures, cabinets of models and apparatus, day schools and night schools listed among the objectives. Practice was to be combined with science to the end that a higher type of artisan ultimately would take his place in the industrial world.

The manual labor movement gave rise to a number of institutions in the United States, all of which attempted to meet the needs of the farmer and the mechanic. Sensing the need of scientific farming and improved mechanical skill, Robert Hallowell Gardiner donated a large tract of land located in the town of Gardiner, Maine, for the purpose of establishing a lyceum. Certain characteristics of the mechanics' institute and the manual labor schools were combined with a phase of liberal education to make the lyceum of value to a larger section of the population. Gardiner's school opened in 1823. Some years later, due to the lack of financial support, the

school closed. It had shown, however, a practical way of satisfying a practical need.

While the mechanics' institute was primarily interested in the vocational needs of the population, the lyceum planned for the educational and cultural needs as well. The artist, the farmer, and the mechanic were supposed to find in the lyceum areas of interest and value.

Another plan of education similar to the Gardiner plan was the American Lyceum of Science and the Arts. This was proposed in 1826 by Josiah Holbrook who established a lyceum in Millbury, Massachusetts. Holbrook sought to have in each town a lyceum which would be joined in county and state units to form ultimately a national federation to be known as the American Lyceum.

In time the lyceum degenerated to nothing more than public lectures and entertainment, so that its original purpose was lost. However, it had aroused interest in agricultural and industrial education, and a number of schools were finally established as a further expression of the need for practical education.

Another phase of the manual labor movement developed with the formation of manual labor academies. In addition to studies in the academy each student worked in a shop or factory owned by a local businessman, who paid the institution for the services of the student. It was contended that most of the young men enjoyed the work, that mind and body were benefited, that studies were most often accelerated, and that the expense of education was reduced materially. The Oneida Institute of New York was an example of this type of school.

In 1832 the House of Representatives of the Pennsylvania General Assembly requested that the Education Committee prepare a report on manual labor academies. The committee found that educational expense could be reduced 50 percent when connected with manual pursuits, that three hours of exercise daily contributed to the health of the student, and that manual labor did not detract from progress in classical studies. The committee felt that distinctions between rich and poor tended to break down, and that the combination of studies and labor contributed to the development of a better citizen.

Another interesting development was the formation in July, 1831, of the Society for Promoting Manual Labor

in Literary Institutions. The Society was convinced of the need for reform in the seminaries of learning, and it set out to arouse interest in the addition of exercise to the curriculum. Theodore D. Weld was chosen as the General Agent for the Society. He was well qualified for the job, since he had been previously connected with the Oneida Institute.

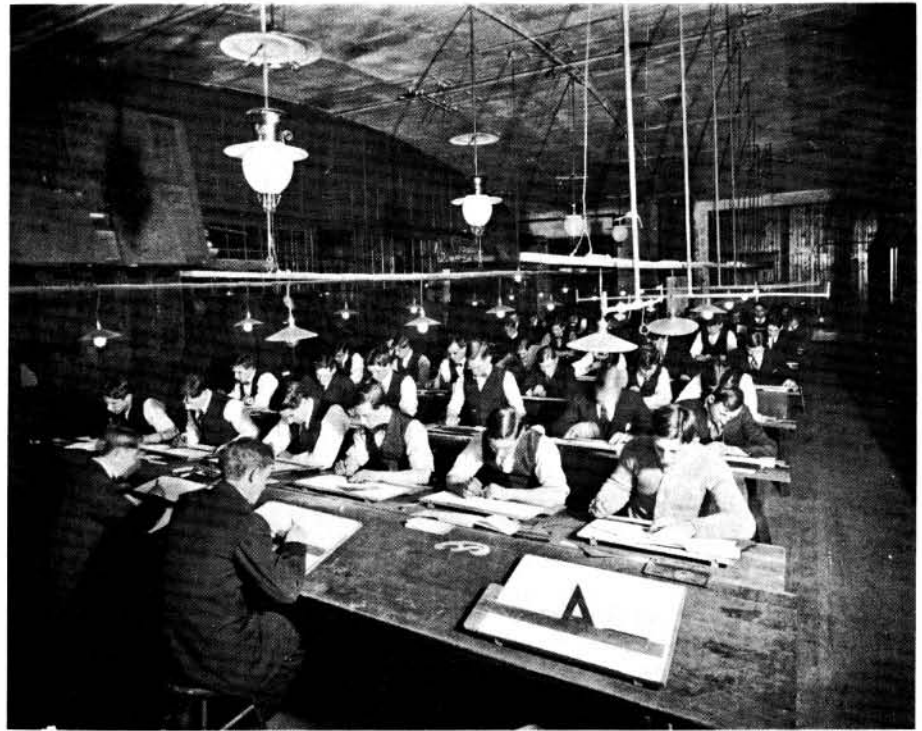
The zeal with which Weld attacked his job is illustrated in his report to the Society in 1833:

"In prosecuting the business of my agency, I have traveled during the year four thousand five hundred and seventy-five miles; in public conveyance, 2360; on horseback, 1800, on foot, 145. I have made two hundred and thirty-six public addresses. Of these, one hundred and ten were upon the subject of manual labor education, ninety-seven upon temperance, and the remainder upon general education and other topics of public interest. I have written two hundred and eighty-two letters upon the business of the Society, and received more than that number, many of which being application for personal services, have remained unanswered, from the utter inability to command the requisite time."

The report contained testimonials from many influential people of the country in support of manual labor schools. The difference between manual labor institutions and others rested chiefly in the use of the hours of relaxation. In the manual labor school the student worked at some useful project while students of other schools occupied their time as they chose. It appears that the society had no particular quarrel with the curriculum of the schools and stated that the manual labor system did not infringe upon the hours of study. Weld's report continues:

"The laboring classes, who make up nine-tenths of the community, are disgusted and repelled by the grotesque and ludicrous antics of the gymnasium. They say, leave wooden horses to children, and monkey tricks to monkeys. A negative objection to gymnastics may be stated in passing, and that is, the time spent in them affords no *pecuniary advantage*; and another, that the exercise benefits *only the student*; makes no contribution to the resources of the country, and no addition to the means of human subsistence."

Despite any differences we might have with Weld's educational theory



he was in fact an ardent supporter of manual labor as a part of school work. He held that participation of all students in manual labor activities would tend to make labor honorable and the laboring man respected; it would also develop a community of feeling and identity of interests.

The Rensselaer Institute was a school of the type advocated during this period. It was founded by Stephen Van Rensselaer in Troy, New York in 1824, and opened on Monday, January 3, 1825. Van Rensselaer proposed to instruct persons in the "application of science to the common purposes of life." This school was a realization of the growing idea of combining science and practical work for a better understanding of the interrelationships between chemistry, natural philosophy, and mathematics on the one hand, and agriculture and mechanics on the other.

Although the manual labor movement had largely run its course by the time of the Civil War it did set in motion a number of educational ventures. Among the many significant developments of the period was continued concern for the education of women, agricultural education, and business education.

The pioneers of women's education included in their curricula opportunities in home-related subjects. In addition to Emma Willard's work, Mary Lyon, another promoter of college education for women, founded Mount Holyoke Female Seminary in 1837 in

Organizations of mechanics for educational purposes originated in England in the early 19th century. The Franklin Institute in Philadelphia was patterned on the English organizations and was the first such institute in the U.S. when it opened in 1824. This 1890's photo shows the Drawing School room at the Institute. (Photo courtesy of the Franklin Institute)



Mary Lyon pioneered higher education of women in founding Mount Holyoke Female Seminary (now Mount Holyoke College) in 1837 to provide for women the type of education that Harvard and Yale provided for men. Because of budget restrictions, both she and her students had to pitch in with maintenance chores. Many of the early graduates went on to missionary work in Asia and Africa.

South Hadley, Massachusetts. This successful college, which touched lightly on the area of cooperative living for women, did not advance the cause of home economics because of its belief that the home was the place to teach "housewifery."

Rather, "Mary Lyon had great interest in the educational problems of the daughters in poor families, the women whom education had passed by. Her plan for a female seminary became a financial possibility after a long and somewhat disappointing fund raising campaign. When her school opened it was necessary that each of the students perform two hours of domestic work each day in order to reduce the expenses of operation; the rule applied to all, even to Miss Lyon." (Barlow)

Elmira College, which opened in Elmira, New York, in 1855, required its young women to take work in domestic science and general household affairs. It also was the first women's college to grant degrees in 1859.

Stimulation to the home economics movement came from Catherine Beecher. She published in 1841 her *Treatise on Domestic Economy for the Use of Young Ladies at Home*, which touched upon almost every phase of homemaking. She pointed out the urgent need for teachers and parents to include in the school work some preparation for matrimony. For the next 20 years, this text, adopted widely by public and private schools, set the pattern for homemaking education.

The acknowledged leader of the home economics movement was Ellen Swallow Richards. She was graduated from Vassar in 1870. In the same year she began the study of chemistry at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The first woman to enter that institution, she was awarded the bachelor of science degree. In 1875 she married Professor Richards, head of the department of mining and engineering.

Ellen Richards devoted her knowledge of chemistry to the improvement of living conditions, particularly in the field of sanitation. She named this study "euthenics"—the science of controlled environment for right living. It was her interest and work in the study of the family and the home, however, that led to the development some years later of the home economics movement. But her story will be told later.

Emma Willard, Catherine Beecher, Mary Lyon, and Ellen Richards were educational reformers whose ideas

were thought by many to be visionary and impractical—they had to fight social conceptions that the place of women was in the home. Their educational models constituted a new plan which insisted upon the rights of women to educational equality.

Agricultural education during Colonial times and during the early years of independence was promoted chiefly through the work of numerous societies. Some of these were scientific in nature while others were concerned with practical farming. They usually included the most important persons of the time as active members. Benjamin Franklin, George Washington, Robert L. Livingston, and John C. Calhoun were identified along with hundreds of others who promoted interest in increasing the quality of production in agriculture in all its areas.

The societies sponsored research and experimentation, collected treatises, and prepared many documents which were distributed widely for the benefit of farmers. George Washington became a "book farmer." The early lyceums, academies, colleges, and universities established courses and departments of agriculture. Many memorials were presented to Congress requesting liberal endowments to state universities to promote agricultural development. Prior to 1862 it was not uncommon to find agricultural courses in the public high schools, although the adoption of such programs usually reflected local interests.

It is difficult to find conclusive evidence of specific business courses in the schools of the Colonial period. Handwriting and arithmetic, which were basic in business procedures, were included in the curricula of many of the early schools. On occasion, bookkeeping of an elementary nature was included, but this was largely accidental and depended upon the attainments of the instructor and the willingness of the students to pay for the instruction. The schoolmaster of the first school in Philadelphia, founded in 1683, offered for eight shillings per quarter to teach reading, writing, and casting of accounts. The arithmetic of the Colonial period, taught largely for personal use, also may have had prevocational significance for some students, but "commercial" education was taught primarily by means of an apprenticeship system.

The early national period brought no significant changes in the curriculum for business subjects, although the

high schools which developed after 1821 continued to include the three basic subjects of handwriting, arithmetic, and bookkeeping. The important educational movements after 1820 brought additional attention to the field of business training, but the lack of organization and leadership hampered development.

Leadership in the field of business education was assumed by the private schools that developed after 1850. In the early years, the subjects offered by the schools were closely related to the traditional bookkeeping, arithmetic, and handwriting. By 1863 stenographic courses were appearing in the expanded curricula of the more progressive schools. The business world was quick to accept shorthand. Ten years later, in 1873, the invention of the typewriter mechanized writing and improved communication methods. Almost overnight another area of instruction was added to the programs of the private business colleges.

The business colleges were organized for profit, and the profit motive caused many of them to overlook other real opportunities. There were few textbooks and the teachers were frequently poorly prepared for the job. The pressure caused by the needs of commerce made the training of clerical workers a profitable business. It was during this period that Platt Rogers Spencer achieved nationwide fame in the field of penmanship.

The high school was an ideal institution for the development of business courses. The very first high schools were developed with the idea of "fitting young men for commercial life." Although many schools did offer instruction in commercial courses, the main stream of attention was directed toward preparation for college. Boston, Philadelphia, St. Louis, Washington, D.C., and New Haven were among the cities that first developed business programs in the high schools.

Educational Leadership: Making the System Work

By Congressional default the educational system in the United States became an administrative function of each of the states. The Constitution did not provide for a national system so it was left up to each state to devise its own. The thin thread of national concern for education provided no actual guidance for the development of education.

Educational practices were trans-

planted from Europe and to some extent Americanized by local demands and desires. Schools gradually moved toward secular control, education facilities were expanded, and the idea of a free public system of education was tempting in many ways. Making education tempting was the task of numerous educational leaders.

These educational leaders are important to vocational education not because of their particular contribution to vocational education but because they built a sound system of education to which vocational education was attached in 1917. Actually dozens of persons should be mentioned but only three have been chosen for a brief analysis of their educational careers. People like Mann, Barnard, and Swett are representative of the builders of the school system in America.

Horace Mann was born on May 4, 1796, in Franklin, Massachusetts. He died on August 2, 1859, in Yellow Springs, Ohio. He was born in poverty and his health was weakened by hard work in childhood. After his graduation with honors from Brown University in 1819, he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1823. He supported himself during the last two years of his study by teaching Latin and Greek at his alma mater. He practiced law for 14 years, first at Dedham, later at Boston, Massachusetts.

In 1837, Mann began almost 12 years of service as secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, an office he helped to create while serving as president of the Massachusetts State Senate. He then succeeded John Quincy Adams in the U.S. House of Representatives. In 1853 he became the first president of Antioch College, in Yellow Springs, Ohio, a position he occupied until his death.

When Mann took office as secretary of the board in Massachusetts in 1837, education was in a pitiable state. Local school committees neglected their duties, especially with respect to the legal requirements of school visitation and certification of teachers. Attendance laws were not rigidly enforced, school buildings were in disrepair, and teachers were inadequately trained.

Mann labored unceasingly to improve the condition of the schools. He appealed to educated and influential men to join his crusade. He conducted institutes for the teachers, held public meetings, and collected reports on local school affairs.

The *Common School Journal*,



Horace Mann already was world famous when he accepted the presidency of Antioch College in 1853. He had won his fame in Congress as a persistent foe of slavery and in Massachusetts where his work as first secretary of that state's Board of Education won him the title of "Father of the Common School." (Photo courtesy of Antioch College)

which Mann edited for 10 years, presented educational ideas, described current practices, and proposed improvements. That journal served as a model for state department publications and for the journals of teachers' associations in other states. It set high standards for professional journalism in the field of education.

The 12 annual reports Mann prepared contained descriptions of conditions and events both within the state of Massachusetts and in other states and countries. The celebrated *Seventh Report* contained his account of the schools of Prussia and thus stimulated the reorganization of public elementary education. The 12 reports may well be included among the "educational classics" in American educational history.

During Mann's service to education in Massachusetts, rapid progress was made. He led in the development of the concept of free, public, universal education aimed at the inculcation of personal, social, and civic virtue and efficiency. Mann's legacy to all teachers, even to all mankind, was epitomized in a sentence from his last public address: "Be ashamed to die until you have won some victory for humanity."

Henry Barnard was born in Hartford, Connecticut, on January 24, 1811. He died in Hartford on July 5, 1900. After graduation from Yale in 1830, Barnard studied law. He was admitted to the bar in 1835. As a member of the Connecticut legislature he secured, in 1838, the passage of an act providing for "the better supervision of the common schools" and for the establishment of a State Board of Education.

Barnard was secretary to the State Board of Education from 1838 to the abolition of the Board in 1842. In 1843 he was called to Rhode Island to make a study of that state's schools. As a result, Rhode Island established a State Board of Education, and Barnard served from 1845 to 1849 as the first Commissioner of Schools in Rhode Island. He returned to Connecticut to be "superintendent of common schools" from 1851 to 1855. Simultaneously he was principal of the state normal school at New Britain, Connecticut.

During the next several years Barnard made trips to Europe, and served as editor of the *American Journal of Education*, chancellor of the University of Wisconsin, and president of St. John's College, Annapolis, Maryland.

He was the first U.S. Commissioner of Education from 1867 to 1870, and he then retired to editorial work and writing.

Barnard's work in Connecticut and Rhode Island was similar to that of Mann's in Massachusetts. He fathered legislation regarding, and led in the improvement of, local school administration, schoolhouses, the curriculum, teacher training, and inservice teacher education. In both states he conducted teachers' institutes and organized state associations of teachers.

The *American Journal of Education* was the most significant of Barnard's achievements. Its 31 volumes contained 24,000 pages and 12 million words. Each volume ranges in length from 622 to 941 pages. Professional duties, ill health, and the Civil War interfered at times with the publication of the *Journal*.

The contents of the *Journal* usually were classified under the headings of "Educational Biography," "Benefactors of Education, Literature and Science," "Reformatory Education," and "Educational Movements and Statistics." Included was a translation of Karl von Raumer's *History of Education*. Von Raumer's original work on the life of Pestalozzi, his reproduction of Comenius' *Great Didactic*, and his detailed account of Martin Luther's ideas about education—all included in his history—were thus made available in English to the teaching profession in the United States. Barnard reproduced a number of English works on education and a few items from French educational writings.

The *Journal* included more than "125 portraits of leading educators and benefactors of education." Also, Barnard's articles on schoolhouses were illustrated by "more than 800 woodcuts of structures for educational purposes." Barnard earned, by the variety of his editing, translating, and writing, the title of the "great American scholar" in education. He successfully combined, in his long life, distinction in research, leadership, and service.

John Swett was the founder of the public school system of California. He was born in Pittsfield, New Hampshire, on July 31, 1830, of early Puritan stock. He attended summer and winter district schools and entered the Pittsfield Academy at the age of fourteen. In 1847 he began his teaching career, first at the Buck Street School near Pembroke and later at West Randolph, Massachusetts.

He made the acquaintance of several of Mann's leading educators in the Normal Institute at Reed's Ferry, Massachusetts. These included William Russell, who had edited the first important educational periodical, the *American Journal of Education*, from 1826 to 1830 and later assisted Henry Barnard in launching Barnard's *American Journal of Education* (1855-1881). Another educator at the Normal Institute was Herman Krüsi who as a boy had attended Pestalozzi's institute at Yverdon where his father was a leading teacher. In residence at Reed's Ferry was Dana P. Colburn, a famous author of early arithmetic books. Swett credited Russell with the inspiration to make education his lifetime calling.

Swett sailed around the Horn to California, arriving at San Francisco in January 1853. He first panned for gold, then turned to work on ranches. Later he found a position as an elementary teacher in San Francisco. He soon became an elementary school principal and served thus to 1862. During these years his success as a principal, his addresses to teachers and citizens on educational questions, and his writing of articles stamped him as a leader in California education.

At the early age of 32, Swett ran for State Superintendent of Schools on the Union Party ticket. He was elected and served five years to 1867. As state superintendent, Swett, although the fourth to hold the office, led in the formation of the state's public school system.

By the time Swett became state superintendent, elementary schools were scattered across the state. Some counties had no schools, others had several. A few high schools existed—for example, in San Francisco and Sacramento. Adult education classes were organized in San Francisco in 1857 and the first state normal school opened in 1862. Despite these beginnings, the provisions were inadequate.

Swett's reforms included improved state and county financial support for schools, provisions for local school boards, and organization of a state board of examination to issue diplomas and certificates for teachers. He conducted the first state teachers' convention in San Francisco, May 4-6, 1863; led in a fight to make the public schools entirely tuition free—which was achieved in 1867; created a State Board of Education; established a system of school libraries; instituted a

state school journal for free distribution to schools and district clerks; and extended the minimum school year to five months.

There were, of course, many other leaders who were distinguished in the establishment of state school systems, such as Calvin Stowe in Ohio, Caleb Mills in Indiana, John D. Pierce in Michigan, and Calvin H. Wiley in North Carolina. With each of these, the pattern of events was much the same as with Mann and Barnard.

Education in all its aspects was either in disrepair or non-existent. Campaigns were waged against conservative, intolerant, or aristocratic classes to open up state departments of education, improve local control of schools, lengthen the school year, provide good schoolhouses and school sites, work out fair and adequate systems of financial support, and improve the teaching profession by means of normal schools, institutes, teachers' journals, and supervisory service. Parallel with these advances, high schools grew in number, state universities were founded, and private colleges and universities multiplied.

Teacher Education: the First Normal Schools

Teacher training classes had been established in France as early as 1672. The idea of teacher training spread to Prussia, Denmark, Germany, Switzerland, and England, and was picked up in America by the educational reformers of the day. The first private normal school in America was established by the Reverend Samuel R. Hall in Concord, Vermont, in 1823. Hall published in 1829 the first professional book on teaching in the United States—*Lectures on Schoolkeeping*.

Horace Mann saw clearly the necessity for sound programs of teacher training. He joined other leaders in promoting legislation for normal schools. James G. Carter had campaigned for normal schools and better education programs early in his teaching career. As a result of his efforts, one law was passed in 1826 requiring each town in Massachusetts to appoint a school committee, and another, in 1834, created a state school fund. Carter's deepest interest, however, lay in teacher training. Because of his writings, speeches, and personal influence, he is frequently called "The Father of the Normal School."

The Reverend Charles Brooks of

Massachusetts worked in the same cause by speaking and writing in favor of normal schools. Early in Mann's term of office, Timothy Dwight, a Boston merchant, contributed \$10,000 for the construction of a normal school. With the personal support of Carter and Brooks and the donation from Dwight, Mann prevailed upon the Massachusetts State Board to establish normal schools. This was done in 1839 when the first public normal school came into operation in the town hall of Lexington.

In December 1844, David P. Page became principal of the new experimental normal school established by the New York legislature at Albany. There, Page served three short years before his early death at the age of thirty-seven. Page's contributions to education and his work as principal of the Albany State Normal School were highly successful and widely influential.

What had begun as an experiment became a permanent institution which served as a model for the state system of normal schools in New York and for normal schools in other states. Much of the success of the Albany school was due to Page's campaign of lecturing across the state. From remote areas came students who later returned to their home communities or to the new states in the west to teach or to administer schools.

Page's second long-time contribution to education was his famous textbook on education, *Theory and Practice of Teaching*, which first appeared in 1847. There were several editions, the last in 1885. The book was used throughout the United States, in normal schools, teachers' institutes, and personal libraries. Its popularity can be attributed to its simple and graphic style and to the direct bearing of its contents on the practical daily experiences of teachers.

Although teacher training schools became popular they operated on the basis of a narrow curriculum and with minimum standards for the selection of teachers. But despite their limitations the normal schools tended to provide better teachers than had previously been provided.

"The post-Civil War period saw the emergence of specialized teachers colleges—Oswego (N.Y.) Normal School, Illinois State Normal University, Michigan State Normal College at Ypsilanti, and also the New York College for the Training of Teachers. The same period saw many state universi-

ties add 'normal departments.' This period also saw the formal study of education enter the college and university curriculum. In 1873 the University of Iowa established a chair of pedagogy. The University of Michigan followed Iowa's precedent in 1879, creating a chair in the Art and Science of Teaching. By the end of the century most major colleges and Universities had established departments or schools of education or were offering some courses in education." (Cohen)

Enthusiasm for teacher education was to have a profound impact upon the vocational education movement and upon the first federal act for vocational education. Teacher education was then, and is now at the Bicentennial period, the safeguard for quality in vocational education.

The First Morrill Act July 2, 1862

Interest in agricultural and industrial education increased up to the middle of the nineteenth century. More schools were founded, information about them was disseminated widely, and new men entered the fight to champion such education. Among the newcomers was Jonathan Baldwin Turner. Turner believed that society consisted of two classes, the professional and the industrial. His plan for education involved the establishment of an industrial university in each state. Beyond that, he proposed that federal aid be obtained from the sale of public lands. The plan attracted widespread attention and the farmers of Illinois supported the idea with enthusiasm.

On February 8, 1853, the State Legislature of Illinois passed a resolution asking for federal support. The governor approved the resolution, sent copies to each state, and instructed the senators and representatives of Illinois to support such a measure in the Congress. The memorial to the Congress was read in the House of Representatives and the Senate on March 20, 1854. However, no action was taken by the Congress on these resolutions.

During the next three and a half years the friends of the proposal for federal aid for agriculture continued their work. Finally, on December 17, 1857, a bill was introduced in the U.S. House of Representatives by Justin S. Morrill of Vermont. The bill passed on February 7, 1859. However, it was not supported by President Buchanan, and since there was little possibility that it could be passed over the Presi-

dent's veto, no further action was taken.

With the change of administration, Morrill re-introduced the bill in the House of Representatives on December 16, 1861. After long delays and stormy debates in both the House and Senate, the bill finally passed. William Parker, quoting from Morrill's private papers says, "There was no apprehension of a Presidential veto, and in due time the bill received the formal approval of President Lincoln." The bill was signed by the President on July 2, 1862.

The act donating public lands to establish colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanical arts called for land grants to states based on their representation in Congress—30,000 acres for each senator and representative. It was required that the land be sold and the money invested in safe stocks to constitute a perpetual fund. The interest derived from the investment was to serve as an endowment for the support and maintenance of a college to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes.

States that did not have the quantity of land to which they were entitled under the act were issued land script on the unappropriated lands of the United States. Script could not be issued to one state on the unappropriated lands in another state, and not more than one million acres of land could be assigned in any state. If for any reason any portion of the fund was lost or diminished, the state was required to replace the amount lost and to maintain the original capital intact.

The states were required to provide at least one college within five years; otherwise the grant would be revoked. No state was entitled to the benefits of the act unless the provisions of the act were accepted by the state legislature within two years from the date of approval by the President. An annual descriptive and statistical report was required showing the progress of each college. One copy of the report was required to be sent to each of the other colleges and to the Secretary of the Interior.

The Civil War, then in its second year, influenced one of the provisions of the act. No state was entitled to the benefits of the act while in rebellion against the government of the United States. Within a few years after the close of the Civil War the southern states complied with the provisions of the Act.

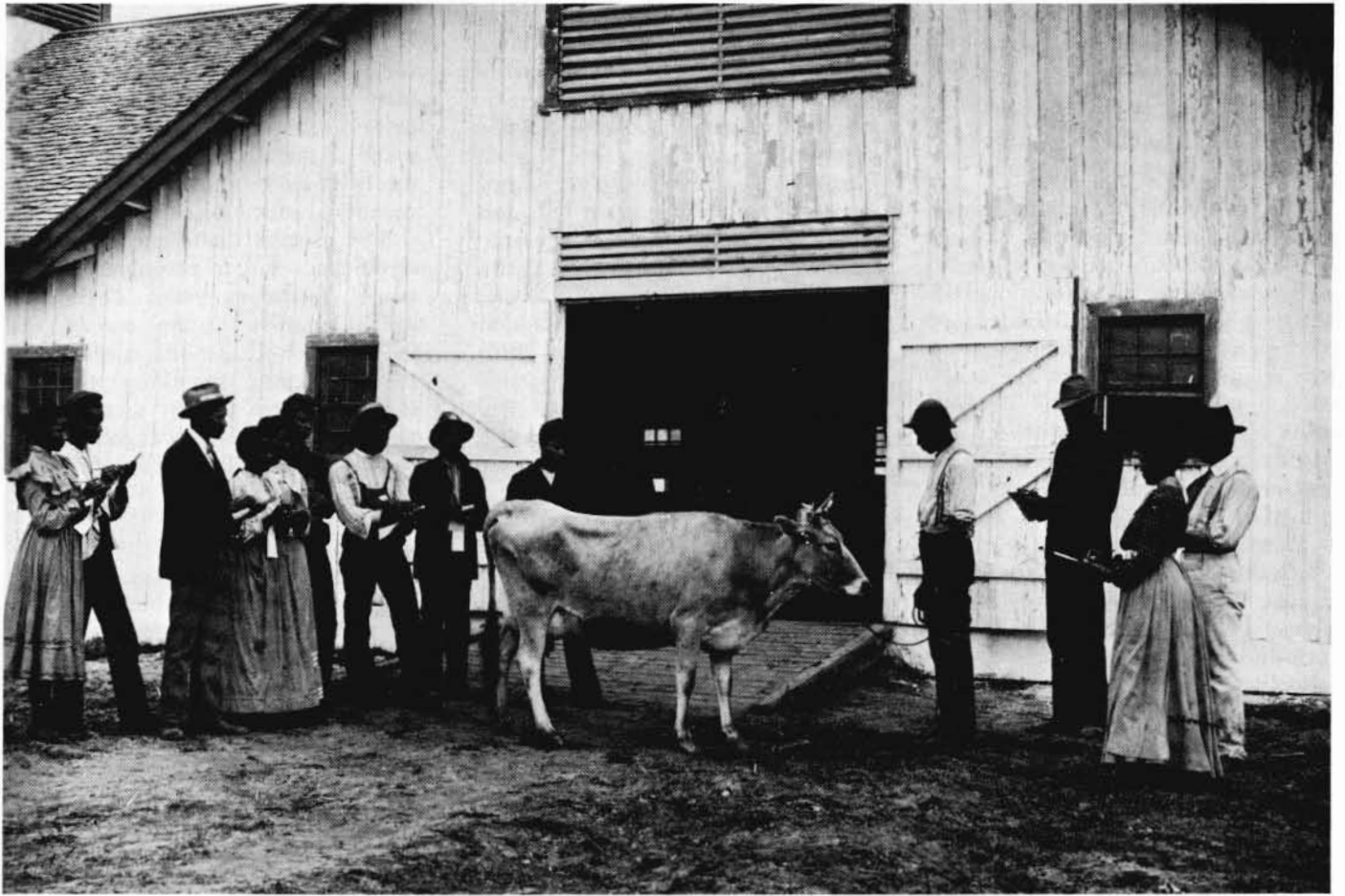
Hampton Institute: Beginning of the Trade School Movement

"Immediately after the Civil War, when the movement for the education of Negro youth began, a great quarrel started as to whether Negroes should be given 'classical education' or 'industrial education.' Although this difference of opinion was not expressed widely until after the slaves were free, it had been expounded before the war by several persons who were interested in Negro education. The free Negroes of the South had hoped that the Southern whites would let them have industrial schools, and Frederick Douglass in 1853 advocated industrial schools for Negroes when Harriet Beecher Stowe offered some money for either a Negro industrial school or a classical school. Stowe wanted the industrial school to be a series of workshops where Negroes could learn some of the handicrafts, that is, learn to work in iron, wood and leather, and also be given a common English education." (Clyde W. Hall, *Savannah College Bulletin*)

A partial resolution of the discussion occurred when, in 1868, General Samuel Chapman Armstrong organized the Hampton Institute. Armstrong had headed a Negro regiment during the war, and in 1866 had been appointed superintendent of education for the Negroes of Virginia under the Freedmen's Bureau. His training and experience had equipped him well to understand the needs of the Negro race.

General Armstrong was born in the Hawaiian Islands, of missionary parents, and educated there and at Williams College in Williamstown, Massachusetts. For some years he was connected with the department of public instruction of Hawaii, where he obtained that knowledge of the education of backward peoples which proved of much use to him in his work for the Negroes of the South. It was his realization of the needs of the Negro people for industrial training that caused his interest in the founding of Hampton Institute.

Armstrong was convinced that if a free Negro race was to adjust to society, education would become a vital factor in that adjustment. He succeeded in interesting the American Missionary Society in the school, and the Society purchased a large estate on the Hampton River in Virginia. Providing skilled Negro labor was a necessary



step in the reconstruction period following the Civil War. Furthermore, trade training was combined with the elements of a liberal education in order that the Negro might improve his character and social status.

"Manual labor then was a vital part of this new institution. From the beginning of Hampton, Armstrong viewed labor in the school as a triple force:

"(1) In its moral aspect; strengthening the will and thus inculcating a sense of self-reliance and independence, relieving labor from the odium which slavery had cast upon it in the minds of the Negroes, keeping strongly sensual temperaments out of mischief, and giving habits of regularity . . .

"(2) As a means whereby the pupils might earn the education that should fit them to be teachers and leaders and earn it so far as possible by their own work.

"(3) As a means whereby the student might learn while in the school how to support himself after graduation by the work of his hands as well as by his brains, thus affording an example of industry to his people.

"Blacksmithing, bricklaying and plastering, carpentry, harnessmaking, machine work, painting, shoemaking,

steamfitting and plumbing, tailoring, tinsmithing, upholstering, and wheel-righting were the vocational industrial courses offered at Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute. Every trade was taught in systematic steps from beginning to end in a school course of three years. Business principles and drawing were taught in connection with each trade. Students devoted eight hours a day to the study of a trade. At least four thousand hours of actual tool practice was required for every trade. A certificate was awarded after the completion of a trade course, and after the first two years of the academic course. A diploma was awarded if a student finished a trade course and the four-year academic course." (Hall)

One of the famous graduates of Hampton was Booker T. Washington. Washington, who was born a slave, at the age of 14 walked 500 miles to Hampton and asked for admission. "His entrance examination was to clean out a dirty room. So well did he do the job that he not only was admitted, but paid all his expenses there for three years by janitor work." (Cubberley)

After further education Washington taught at Hampton and in 1881 became the principal at Tuskegee Insti-

When Tuskegee Institute opened in 1881 it not only vastly expanded the educational horizon for blacks, but also furthered the development of vocational education at the University level. Tuskegee's program stressed basic vocational skills, including, as shown here, judging a cow. (Library of Congress photo)

tute in Alabama, and entered upon a distinguished educational career until his death in 1915.

The Kalamazoo Case: Public High Schools Legalized

The vocational education movement was destined to initiate its work in the high school—at least at the beginning of federal aid to vocational education. This was almost predestined by the nature of the educational structure in the United States. The major portion of the educational development had been directed toward the first six or eight grades of school.

It was a magnificent educational goal to have all youth of school age, up to about age 14, in school. The rate at which this goal was being achieved was equally astounding. But the educational leaders pushed forward to introduce the concept of the high schools to the American people. The first high schools were developed in the 1820's but by 1870 only about 500 such schools had been established in the United States. The stumbling block in the way of secondary school development was in part a legal one and it involved public taxation.

"In the post-Civil War period a movement arose for the establishment of a system of free, public secondary schools, supported by public taxation, publicly controlled, open to all. Which is not to say that the high school did not encounter opposition. Not only the desirability and the practicality of maintaining free, tax-supported public high schools but their legality were controversial issues for a full quarter-century following the Civil War. The most important form of opposition was litigation. In New England in 1819 and again in 1846, the Supreme Court of Massachusetts ruled in favor of secondary education at public expense. But it was a series of judicial decisions in the mid-West in the 1870's, in the state courts of Illinois, Wisconsin, Kansas, Missouri, and especially Michigan, which finally laid a sound legal basis for the public high school.

"The most famous and influential of these court decisions was the Kalamazoo decision, decided by the Michigan Supreme Court in 1874. The case involved the attempt in 1872 of certain citizens of Kalamazoo's School District No. 1 to prevent the school board from collecting taxes for support of high schools. By 1872, practically every city in the state had a public high school,

but not without some opposition. When Kalamazoo brought suit, it was very obviously a move to question the right of school authorities in general to support free high schools and to offer appropriate secondary studies in them. The complainants had no argument with the right of the state to support and maintain public elementary school. Rather, they were arguing that secondary instruction, as it was then conceived, embraced largely the classics and foreign languages. These, they held, were by and large an accomplishment of the few rather than the many, and they should, therefore, be paid for privately.

"The decision, written by Justice Thomas M. Cooley and concurred in by his three colleagues, came out squarely against the complainants. Reviewing the educational history of the Northwest Territory and of the state of Michigan, Cooley asserted that from the very beginning of statehood, Michigan had intended to furnish not only the rudiments of education, but also equal opportunity for all to proceed on to higher studies. Having specifically provided for free elementary schools, and a state university, Cooley concluded, the state would be highly inconsistent if it forced parents to secure private secondary instruction; the legal right of the school board to levy taxes for public high schools was clearly affirmed.

"The pre-Civil War public high school was largely a terminal institution. In the wake of the Kalamazoo decision not only the useful and practical studies, but college-preparatory studies as well became the just province of the public high school. With the legal basis thus clarified by the Kalamazoo case, local school boards began to establish high schools as the demand arose. State legislatures were also encouraged to pass laws permitting local boards to establish high schools, to offer aid to those districts which did so, and, finally, actually to compel high schools to be established in certain larger and more populous districts." (Cohen)

In a large sense the Kalamazoo decision helped to establish the location of vocational education in public education, but it would be 45 years into the future before vocational education would join the other subject matter areas of the high school.

The Second Fifty Years

There were no definite coordinated

movements during the second 50 years of our national history that related to vocational education. But there were many evidences of independent action by persons and groups who could see some of the needs which would one day be solved by a national program of vocational education.

The manual labor movement was significant, and it played to a "full house" for many years. There was something about the lyceums and the mechanics' institutes that appealed to people and that "something" was to be found nowhere else in society. The manual labor schools caught on as a means of paying for an education and declared that labor was dignified and honorable.

It took the inspiration of educational leaders to move the public to action. Mann, Barnard, and Swett were representative of the many who had clear visions of the future. These leaders carried with them concerns about quality of teaching, and the relationship between quality of education and teaching stood out clearly.

The Morrill Act, the Hampton Institute, and the Kalamazoo Case—each significant in our history of vocational education—represented achievements in their own right and stand out clearly as guideposts for the emergence of the age of vocational education.

FHA/HERO Chapters Recall Nation's Heritage

Folk festivals and "Heritage Days" have been chosen by some FHA/HERO chapters as a means to celebrate the Spirit of '76 and the nation's cultural heritage.

Fifteen FHA/HERO chapters around Roscoe, South Dakota, combined to produce a day-long festival of folk music, crafts, and dancing. The festival was dedicated to a former member who became paralyzed from the waist down as a result of an auto accident.

In Leesburg, Georgia, the Lee County Upper Elementary FHA/HERO chapter held a "Heritage Day" that focused on old-fashioned homemaking tools, including a 135-year old sewing machine, cornhusk mop, spinning wheel, and obsolete kitchen utensils.