THE DEVELOPMENT OF POSTSECONDARY TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN GEORGIA

BY

DAVID PAUL BUNNELL

(Under the Direction of Thomas G. Dyer)

ABSTRACT

Postsecondary technical education in the State of Georgia has a rich history from its beginnings in the early twentieth century to its transformation into a system of technical colleges in the early twenty-first century. The history of Georgia's technical colleges is a case study in the development of vocational training and education over the past one hundred and fifty years. Georgians have established new educational programs and new schools but also used their political power to engender national support from the Federal government. This historical study follows the history of postsecondary technical education in Georgia from the early District Agricultural and Mechanical Schools to the modern Technical Colleges. Conclusions on what can be learned from this history are presented.

INDEX WORDS: HIGHER EDUCATION, VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, GEORGIA HISTORY

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BY

DAVID PAUL BUNNELL

B.A., URBANA UNIVERSITY, 1988

M.A., UNITED THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY, 1991

M.S.L.S., UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY, 1992

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BY

DAVID PAUL BUNNELL

Major Professor: Thomas G. Dyer

Committee: Libby V. Morris
J. Douglas Toma
Desna L. Wallin

Electronic Version Approved:

Maureen Grasso
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
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In Memory of

Ruth Ann Nicodemus Bunnell (1938-2004), Ohio Master Teacher and Beloved Mother.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

On July 6, 2000 in Griffin, Georgia, a ceremony took place that included all the town worthies and the staff and students of a small technical school. Griffin Technical Institute formally changed its name to Griffin Technical College. This name change was the culmination of an evolutionary process for postsecondary technical education in the State of Georgia. Coy Hodges, president of the newly named Griffin Technical College would later say, "There's magic in the name 'college'. It adds prestige and credibility to the school when you have that tacked onto the name."[1] The search for this credibility has been a hallmark of technical education in Georgia. For all the men and women who worked toward this day, it was the final step on a long road.

The development of the Georgia Technical College System is not unique, but it is unusual. Georgia's development of postsecondary technical education and its exclusively vocational nature are uncommon and little studied in historical context. There is no detailed study of the development of Georgia's Technical College System. Compared with other segments of the history of higher education, postsecondary technical and vocational education is not extensively studied.

The term "technical college" first grew up in the first decade of the twentieth century and was used to describe a specialized institution whose primary mission was instruction in agriculture science, and industrial and mechanical arts.[2] It took eighty years for the technical-based postsecondary schools in Georgia to take on the title of technical colleges. During the twentieth century the schools started as district agricultural and mechanical schools became area

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[1] "More Students Rush to Georgia's Technical Colleges," *Atlanta Journal Constitution*, October 8 2000.

[2] A.H. Chamberlain, "The Function and the Future of the Technical College," *Science* 29, no. 749 (1909).

vocational-technical institutes by the 1960s, evolved into technical institutes through the 1980s and 1990s and finally became technical colleges in 2000. Although, the name has changed through the years, the workforce development mission has remained remarkably similar. Postsecondary technical education's ability to adapt to the changes in the political movements, the economics, and educational theory changes has become its greatest strength.

A study of the history of postsecondary technical institutions is important to understanding the forces that shaped the technical colleges and continue to influence their future. The purpose of this dissertation is to describe the history of Georgia's technical colleges while looking at the decisions and historical forces that shaped the current system. A study of the history of the Technical College System of Georgia will help policymakers understand how the present state of public higher education, in Georgia evolved and provide insight into its future direction and growth.

The Technical Colleges System of Georgia (TCSG) consists of thirty-two associate degree granting technical colleges with thirty-one branch campuses and technical programs at four Georgia Board of Regents institutions. The TCSG governs the technical colleges and provides adult education programs and customized business and industry training through its QuickStart programs.

Unlike the Georgia Board of Regents, the TCSG is under the executive control of the Governor. The Governor appoints the members of the State Board of Technical and Adult Education. The State Board oversees all operations of the department and appoints a Commissioner. The structure is similar to other state government executive departments such as the Department of Health and Human Resources.

The technical colleges offer two-year associate degrees, one-year diplomas, six-month certificate programs, continuing education programs, and economic development programs. The associate degrees are terminal technical degrees that are designed to meet the needs of local business and industry. Some examples of these programs are automotive

mechanics, small business management, culinary arts, computer networking, paralegal studies, and a wide variety of allied health programs including licensed practical nursing and radiology. All programs must be able to lead to employment in their area of training and all instructional design includes input from business and industry.

The Technical College System of Georgia was the Department of Technical and Adult Education until early 2008. The mission of the system has not yet been rewritten in its final format, but the original mission statement of Department of Technical and Adult Education, now the TCSG, shows the emphasis of economic development and workforce training:

> The mission of the Department of Technical and Adult Education is to contribute to the economic, educational, and community development of Georgia by providing quality technical education, adult literacy education, continuing education, and customized business and industry workforce training to the citizens of Georgia.[3]

The technical colleges in Georgia play a major supporting role in the state government's efforts at economic development. The student population pursuing career and technical education in Georgia is extremely diverse. Technical colleges in Georgia serve traditional college-age students preparing for a first job, working adults seeking to retrain for a new job or upgrade existing skills, current employees of local businesses and industries, and older adults seeking to develop technical skills for personal reasons.

The technical colleges are the only educational institutions that are under the direct supervision of the executive branch of Georgia's state government. Despite the role of the TCSG Board, the Governor has a great deal of discretion with the technical colleges that is not possible in either the Georgia Board of Regents or the Georgia Department of Education school

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[3] Kenneth H. Breeden, "Foundations and Defining Principles of Georgia's Technical College System," ed. Georgia Department of Technical and Adult Education (State of Georgia, 2002).

systems. This puts the technical colleges within very strict boundaries and effectively limits their development beyond technical and adult education. The strictly vocational mission makes the technical colleges in Georgia distinct among two-year institutions of higher education in the United States.

The two-year college is an American invention and developed in response to the diverse educational needs of growing industrial power. The concept of an institution that would teach at the freshman and sophomore level started in the late nineteenth century and took root in the early twentieth century. The "junior college" first arose in 1851 with a proposal from Henry Tappan then president of the University of Michigan. His argument was that the burden of providing general education should not be on the universities. Tappan looked to the model of the German universities where general education was assumed on entrance to the university. The ideal university would concentrate all its resources on advanced research and education at the professional level. William Mitchell, a University of Georgia trustee, used this same argument in 1859 in his proposal for a junior college in Georgia.[4]

William Rainey Harper of the University of Chicago, Edmund J. James of the University of Illinois, and David Starr Jordon of Stanford University all pushed for an even more direct emulation of the German educational model. The universities would provide higher-order scholarship and upper-level higher education while the lower-division high schools would provide all general and vocational education up to the age of nineteen or twenty. Harper believed that the weaker four-year colleges that had spread so widely throughout the United States in the mid-1800s should become junior colleges that would feed their graduates into the large universities. Harper along with J. Stanley Brown, superintendent of Joliet Township High

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[4] William L. Mitchell, "Programme of an Enlarged Organization of the University of Georgia", 1859 as found in Thomas Diener, *Growth of an American Invention: A Documentary History of the Junior and Community College Movement*, Contributions to the Study of Education, (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1985).

School founded Joliet Junior College as the first public two-year institution of higher education in 1901.

The junior college movement expanded rapidly in the first decades of the twentieth century. There were 20 junior colleges in the United States in 1909; by 1920 there were 170. Many small four-year colleges became junior colleges. Several states pushed forward the junior college as a way to increase the higher education opportunities for an ever-increasing number of high school graduates. California took an early lead in public junior college development. By 1930, California had 20 percent of the public two-year colleges and one-third of the total junior college students. Other states with substantial numbers of public junior colleges were Illinois, Texas, and Missouri.[5]

In Georgia, a few junior colleges were founded over the first half of the twentieth century. Many of these junior colleges were private, church-related two-year colleges founded in predominantly rural areas. By 1950, there were just five public junior colleges under the Georgia Board of Regents. None of the public junior colleges could be called comprehensive community colleges in the post-war model. The pattern of a dual system of technical education for those over sixteen and a postsecondary system of junior colleges, colleges, and universities was firmly set.[6]

Following the Second World War a new model of the comprehensive community college developed. The community college was first described in a report written by President Harry S. Truman's commission charged with looking at the condition of higher education in

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[5] Arthur M. Cohen and Florence B. Brawer, *The American Community College* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2003).

[6] Cameron Fincher, *Historical Development of the University System of Georgia, 1932-1990* (Athens, Ga.: Institute of Higher Education University of Georgia, 1991).

America in 1947. The commission was chaired by George F. Zook and called for many changes in American higher education, including the establishment of public community colleges.[7]

Cohen and Brawer describe the curricular functions of the comprehensive community college as including academic transfer programs, vocational-technical programs, continuing education programs, community service, and remedial education.[8] Georgia's technical colleges cover all curricular functions of a comprehensive community college except academic transfer programs. The reason for this is the unusual history of the development of Georgia's technical colleges from their beginnings as vocational-technical schools.

Two-year colleges are classified by the types of academic programs they offer. [9] The traditional junior college usually offers a collegiate student all of his or her academic program for the fires two years. The course work is designed to transfer to a senior college or university. The traditional technical institute usually offers vocational-technical training and terminal occupationally oriented diplomas with few if any transferable academic programs. The comprehensive community college offers both academic transfer and vocational-technical programs. The term technical college is in many ways just a change in nomenclature as opposed to a great change in actual structure of the institution. It does, however, mark a step in moving from the gray area between secondary and postsecondary institutions and the acceptance of postsecondary technical education as a part of higher education in the United States.

There are generally two models for development of public two-year college systems in the United States. The first is the "California Idea" where the local high school districts

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[7] United States. President's Commission on Higher Education. and George Frederick Zook, *Higher Education for American Democracy, a Report* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1947).

[8] Cohen and Brawer.

[9] Gwyer Schuyler, "A Curriculum-Based Classification System for Community Colleges," *New Directions for Community Colleges*, no. 122 (2003).

developed postgraduate courses that developed into transferable two-year degree programs. These local high school programs then developed into junior college districts. The local junior colleges started offering vocational-technical programs and evolved into community colleges during the 1950s. The second is the "Wisconsin Idea" where the University of Wisconsin offers extension programs throughout the state that provided primarily academic transfer programs. A parallel system of vocational-technical schools was developed from postgraduate high school systems. [10]

Georgia follows most closely the "Wisconsin Idea." The development of Georgia's vocational-technical schools into technical colleges has been slower than that of Wisconsin, but the result has been a similar governance structure with two parallel governing boards. The major difference in the current governance structure between Georgia and Wisconsin is that the Georgia board is under the executive branch of state government and the Wisconsin governing board is independent.

Georgia's technical colleges have developed into postsecondary institutions from the early twentieth century industrial education and agricultural education movements. Education has been recognized as a tool of economic development in Georgia throughout the twentieth century. Several terms have been used to describe non-academic education and training in occupational techniques. Terms used in the early twentieth century included industrial education, vocational education, technical education, and occupational education. This dissertation will focus on the movements in Georgia to develop institutions for the vocational and technical education of students who are at least fourteen years old. The movements in agricultural education, home economics, and commercial education are important but have only tangentially influenced the development of Georgia's technical colleges.

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[10] Cohen and Brawer.

In this dissertation, the early foundations of the Technical College System of Georgia are described from the beginning of the vocational education movement of the early twentieth century through the change to technical colleges in the year 2000. The study uses historical analysis of archival data, documentary evidence, and interviews to explore the following questions regarding the growth and transformation of technical education in Georgia: 1) What influences brought about the creation of the first vocational-technical schools in Georgia?; 2) What were the causes for the transformation of the vocational-technical schools into technical institutes and subsequently technical colleges?; 3) How do Georgia's technical colleges fit into the larger higher education environment of Georgia?; 4) What does the story of the development of technical education in Georgia tell us about its future? In answering these four questions, I will rely on the state relative autonomy theory developed by Kevin Daugherty.

Over the past twenty years, higher education researchers have studied the "vocationalization" of two-year colleges in the United States. There has been a marked trend in all sectors of higher education toward career orientation. This has been shown by the increase in business and professional programs along with a decrease in traditional liberal arts programs. The general pattern of most large two-year colleges has been to increase the number of vocational-technical programs, most of which are not transferable to senior level colleges and universities. The vocationalization of two-year colleges has been explained in many different ways. Theories put forward include a wide-range of social forces that influence educational policy. One extreme includes the theories based on class elitism where two-year colleges act as "cooling out" institutions that filter weaker students allowing traditional public colleges and universities to have stricter enrollment policies. On the other extreme are the theories based on functionalism that emphasize a populist push for a democratic and practical postsecondary education.

Community Colleges are an invention of the American higher education system. There is a great deal of literature on the history of the junior and community college movement.

Several good histories that detail the beginnings of the movement at the turn of the twentieth century with the founding of Joliet Junior College by the University of Chicago's William Rainey Harper in 1901. The original mission of the junior college was to provide the first two years of a college education before moving to the senior institution.[11]

In the past few decades, the original mission of the junior college has been changing. Starting with the community college movement after World War II, the most two-year colleges have taken on an increasing role in vocational, industrial, and technical education.[12] This has led to a controversy about the nature of vocationalization among community colleges.

Georgia technical colleges are certainly a large part of the economic development in the state. The question is whether pressure from local citizens was enough to account for the establishment of the technical college system in its current form. The twentieth century was a time of transition in Georgia's economy. Starting as a primarily rural state with small pockets of industry, Georgia developed a strong textile industry, then a manufacturing economy, and is now in the shift toward a primarily service economy. The nature of the economic change has certainly influenced the change in vocational education to technical education. As the economy changed, there was political pressure from the local leaders to find a way to employ their citizens. The testimony to this local political pressure is the rapid acceptance and growth of the area vocational-technical schools throughout the state.

Education and economic development have been issues in Georgia since its founding as a British colony. Georgia and its agriculture-based economy went through a long period of adjustment to the industrial age during the second half of the nineteenth century and into the early twentieth century. Education has been one of the chief tools that economic reformers and

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[11] Ibid.

[12] Steven Brint and Jerome Karabel, *The Diverted Dream: Community Colleges and the Promise of Educational Opportunity in America, 1900-1985* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1989).

political leaders have used to push forward economic change in Georgia.[13] Vocational and agricultural education has been of prime interest to Georgia policymakers, northern industrialists looking to establish industry in the state, and the citizens of Georgia looking for economic opportunity.

Kantor describes the great variety of groups that supported vocational education. Businessmen, corporate apologists, efficiency-oriented educators, labor leaders, and both liberal and conservative reformers have promoted vocational and technical education in America.[14] This pattern is evident in the development of Georgia's technical colleges from the first agricultural and mechanical schools.

Diverse groups of government and public education officials driven by their own individual motives have determined the development of the Georgia technical colleges. However, there is a common theme among the motives of these individuals. These individual motives have centered on the idea of government as an instrument of economic development of Georgia and vocational and technical education as the best ways to attract business and industry to the state.

Each new education and economic reform movement through the late nineteenth and the twentieth century has had its champion in Georgia. The history of Georgia's technical colleges is a case study in the development of vocational training and education over the past one hundred and fifty years. Georgians have established new educational programs and new schools but also used their political power to engender national support from the Federal government. This dissertation is structured around three distinct times in the development of vocational and technical education in Georgia.

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[13] Gavin Wright, *Old South, New South: Revolutions in the Southern Economy since the Civil War* (Baton Rouge, LA: Louisiana State University, 1986).

[14] Harvey A. Kantor, "Work, Education, and Vocational Reform: The Ideological Origins of Vocational Education, 1890-1920," *American Journal of Education* 94, no. 4 (1986).

The second chapter of the dissertation is an historical narrative that will concentrate on the legislative and social environments surroundings the Smith-Hughes Act and the formation of the first vocational-technical schools in Georgia. This chapter covers the period from the late 1800s up through the end of the Second World War in 1945.

The third chapter of the dissertation is a narrative that will examine the period of growth in technology and science education that pushed the vocational-technical schools into the era of the vocational-technical area schools that serve specified regions and were tailor made for the communities in which they were a part. This period extends from the end of the Second World War through the educational challenges of the 1950s to the beginnings of the vocational-technical institutes of the 1960s and into the early 1980s.

The fourth chapter of the dissertation is a narrative that will describe the growth of the vocational-technical institutes as well as the legislation and various commissions and departments that helped mold the institutes into true postsecondary institutions of higher learning. This period extends from 1982 through to the transformation of the institutes into the current technical college system in 2000.

The fifth chapter is a summary of the work and includes conclusions and suggestions for further research. The sixth chapter is a literature review including coverage of the history of the major educational movements that contributed to the current Georgia technical college system.

Table 1: Technical Colleges in Georgia DTAE (Fall 2001)

College Name	Location	Year Founded	FTE Enrollment
Albany Technical College	Albany	1961	2,139
Altamaha Technical College	Jesup	1989	971
Appalachian Technical College	Jasper	1967	610
Athens Technical College	Athens	1965	2,460
Atlanta Technical College	Atlanta	1945	2,753
Augusta Technical College	Augusta	1961	2,848
Central Georgia Technical College	Macon	1962	3,353
Chattahoochee Technical College	Marietta	1961	3,215
Columbus Technical College	Columbus	1961	2,203
Coosa Valley Technical College	Rome	1962	2,136
DeKalb Technical College	Clarkston	1961	2,779
East Central Technical College	Fitzgerald	1970	1,243
Flint River Technical College	Thomaston	1963	728
Georgia Aviation Technical College	Eastman	1996	195
Griffin Technical College	Griffin	1963	2,603
Gwinnett Technical College	Lawrenceville	1984	2,851
Heart of Georgia Technical College	Dublin	1984	844
Lanier Technical College	Oakwood	1964	1,359
Middle Georgia Technical College	Warner Robins	1974	1,779
Moultrie Technical College	Moultrie	1964	1,266
North Georgia Technical College	Clarkesville	1944	1,329
North Metro Technical College	Acworth	1989	1,041
Northwestern Technical College	Rock Spring	1964	1,298
Ogeechee Technical College	Statesboro	1991	1,534
Okefenokee Technical College	Waycross	1965	1,021
Sandersville Technical College	Sandersville	1993	439
Savannah Technical College	Savannah	1929	2,355
South Georgia Technical College	Americus	1948	1,264
Southeastern Technical College	Vidalia	1989	949
Southwest Georgia Technical College	Thomasville	1963	1,086
Swainsboro Technical College	Swainsboro	1963	627
Valdosta Technical College	Valdosta	1963	1,854
West Central Technical College	Waco	1968	1,621
West Georgia Technical College	LaGrange	1966	964
Bainbridge College *	Bainbridge		
Clayton State University *	Morrow		
Coastal Georgia Community College*	Brunswick		
Dalton State College*	Dalton		

*Georgia Board of Regents Institutions with Technical Divisions under DTAE

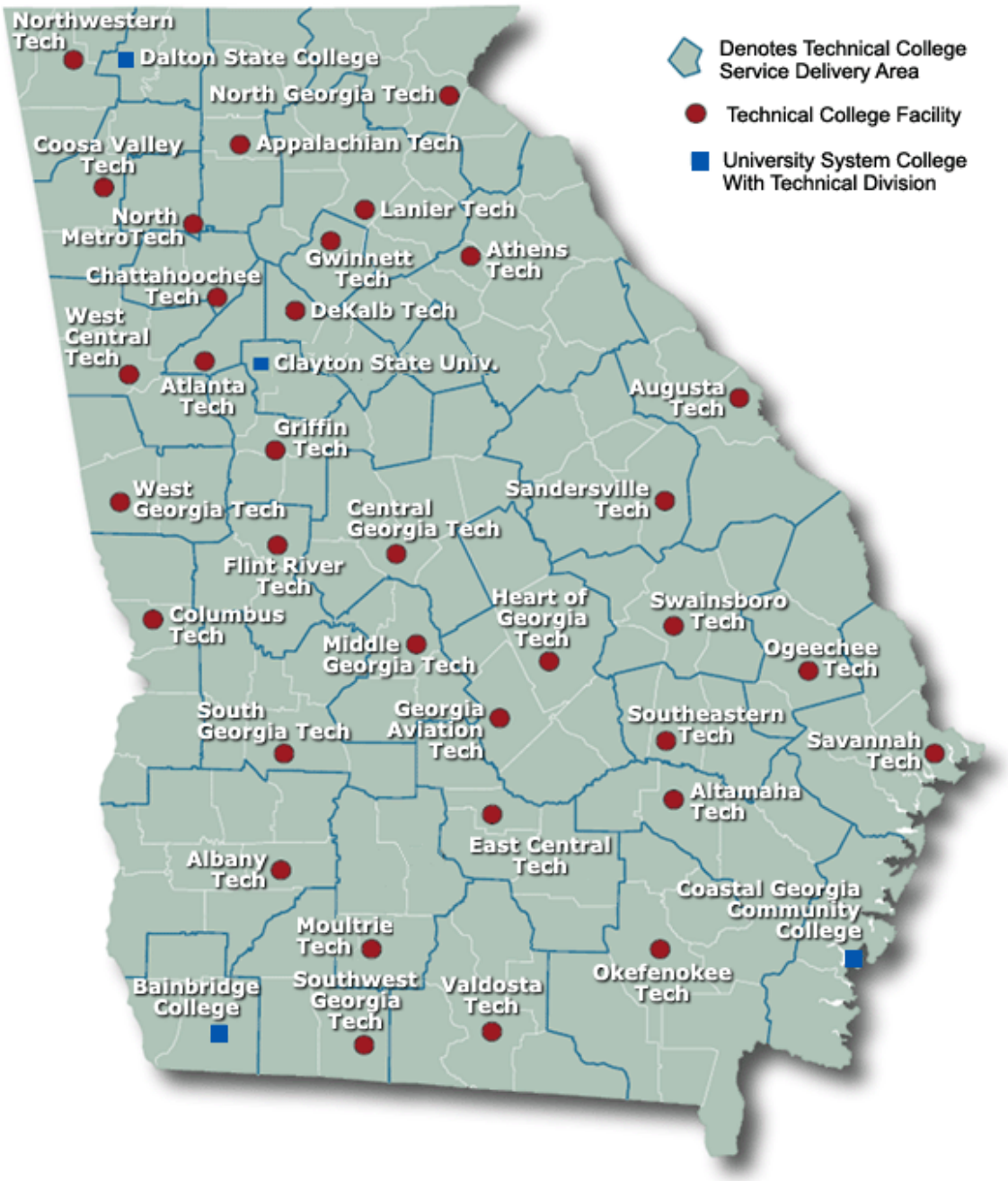

Figure 1: Map of Georgia's Technical College[15]

[15] Used with permission by the Georgia Department of Technical and Adult Education

Table 2: Major Federal Legislation Concerning Vocational-Technical Education

1862	Morrill Act: Establishes the first Agricultural and Mechanical Colleges, first land grant colleges.
1867	Department of Education Act: Establishes agency for collecting data on education in the states.
1887	Hatch Act: Grants to the states for creation of agricultural experiment stations.
1890	Second Morrill Act: Empowers the Office of Education to administer support to the land grant colleges.
1914	Smith-Lever Act: Establishes the land grant college cooperative extension services.
1917	Smith-Hughes Act: First funding for vocational technical schools.
1918	Smith-Sears Act: Soldiers rehabilitation and vocational training for veterans.
1920	Smith-Bankhead Act: First act to provide funds for literacy education.
1929	George-Reed Act: Additional funding for agricultural and home economics education.
1936	George-Deen Act: Provides funds for improving vocational education in public high schools and vocational technical schools.
1944	Servicemen's Readjustment Act (G.I. Bill): Omnibus bill providing for college and vocational technical education for veterans of World War II.
1946	George-Barden Act: Increases funding for vocational technical education and creates a new formula for distribution of funds to the states.
1958	National Defense Education Act: Increasing federal support for all levels of education and provides money specifically for the training of highly skilled technicians.
1961	Area Redevelopment Act: Increases funding for vocational training in areas of high unemployment.
1962	Manpower Development and Training Act: Provides for technical training and retraining of workers displaced by increased automation.
1963	National Education Improvement Act: Title V of the NEIA provides for vocational and technical training and encourages states to establish area schools.
1965	Higher Education Act: Part of the Great Society Program, designed to strengthen postsecondary and higher education.
1966	Adult Education Act: Federal support for a network of adult education providers.
1968	Vocational Education Amendments: Reaffirms federal commitment to vocational education and expands vocational technical education in high schools and postsecondary schools.
1978	Career Education Incentive Act: Established the Office of Career Education to support career education in high schools and postsecondary schools.
1990	Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Education Act: Federal support of state and local initiatives to train and education the workforce, calls for the integration of academic and vocational curricula.

CHAPTER 2
PRE-SECOND WORLD WAR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN GEORGIA

The rapid development of the technical college system in Georgia during the past forty years does not reflect the long history of workforce education in the state. The story of Georgia's technical colleges starts in the late nineteenth century with the progressive movement in education reform and the industrialization of the South. There are many players in the history of the technical colleges. The turn of the twentieth century saw the first junior colleges, the development and spread of scientific agriculture, the first shift of labor from rural areas to urban areas, and the rise of industrial barons and labor unions. Georgia was recovering from the problems of reconstruction, and there were strong forces for economic change in the state.

Postsecondary technical education is the product of a series of educational reform movements through the twentieth century. Training in scientific agriculture through the experiment stations and the manual training schools established in the 1880s and 1890s set the stage for the workforce educational movements of the next century. Agriculture-based economies like Georgia's were particularly interested in agricultural education. Agricultural education and vocational education were virtually synonymous in these states during the late 1890s and early twentieth century. The political progressive movement that swept through the United States at the beginning of the century produced an alliance with pragmatic educators to push forward a new vocational and technical education movement.

Increased industrialization after the First World War called for more training in industrial skills; consequentially, an industrial education movement became preeminent from the 1920s through to the late 1940s. After the Second World War, new industrial and technical priorities emerged. The launch of Sputnik and the threat from Communism combined with the rapid advances in technology to transform the industrial education movement into the technical education movement.

Legislation from both federal and state governments accompanied each educational movement and transformation of vocational and technical education in Georgia. Through the political maneuvering and the efforts of a series of leaders who championed the cause of workforce education in Georgia, money became available for expansion and development of vocational and technical education programs. Many of these educational leaders were important figures on the national stage as well as at the state level. Georgia has been the home of leaders in political and economic reform and promotion of vocational and technical education. Georgia was not only influenced by these educational movements but it also had a large influence on their developmental direction.

The dire economic conditions of the Southern states spawned a new pro-industrial economic movement throughout the South. By the mid-1880s, a growing number of prominent politicians, journalists, and industrialists were pressing for a major reform of the Southern economy that would take advantage of its natural resources and allow the southern states to become industrialized. In Georgia, the boosters of industrialism were developing what Paul M. Gaston calls New South creed of growth through economic development.[16] Proponents of the New South wanted to industrialize the South and develop a strong industrial base and improve rural areas through scientific agricultural practices.[17]

The major leaders of the New South movement were from Georgia. The most vocal and influential of these leaders was Henry W. Grady the publisher of the *Atlanta Constitution*. Grady had built his newspaper into the voice of the "Bourbon Triumvirate." Grady earned respect throughout the nation for his support of development in Atlanta and the South.

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[16] Paul M. Gaston, *The New South Creed: A Study in Southern Myth-Making* (New York: Vintage Books, 1973).

[17] C. Vann Woodward, *Origins of the New South, 1877-1913*, A History of the South, V.9 ([Baton Rouge]: Louisiana State University Press, 1971).

In 1886, the New England Society in New York City invited Grady to speak on the state of the American South.[18] His speech became a watershed in the development of the New South movement. Grady's advocacy of cooperation between the industrial North and agrarian South helped spur investment in Georgia.

Representative William Hatch of Missouri saw an opportunity to use federal funds to develop American agriculture. The Hatch Act of 1887 established the agricultural experiment stations for research in new agricultural methods and, just as importantly, the dissemination of agricultural knowledge to working farmers. This new funding set the precedent for establishing agricultural and mechanical schools in congressional districts.[19]

The year after the Hatch Act in 1888 Georgia established its agricultural experiment station at Griffin in Spalding County some thirty miles south of Atlanta. The experiment station was comprised of several research buildings and several acres of land for experimental crops. Later the Mountain Experiment Station near Blairsville and the Georgia Coastal Plain Experiment Station at Tifton joined the Georgia Experiment Station. The Georgia State College of Agriculture, a part of the University of Georgia, operated the Georgia Experiment Station.[20]

The keys to this new era of economic development where agricultural experimentation in the form of experiment stations, agricultural education through agricultural colleges, teacher education through the normal school system, and technical education through technological schools.[21] The University of Georgia had the College of Agriculture and the

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[18] Joel Chandler Harris, *Joel Chandler Harris' Life of Henry W. Grady Including His Writings and Speeches. A Memorial Volume* (New York: Cassell publishing company, 1890).

[19] John Taylor Wheeler, *Two Hundred Years of Agricultural Education in Georgia* (Danville, IL: Interstate, 1948).

[20] Ibid., 97-101.

[21] Gavin Wright, *Old South, New South: Revolutions in the Southern Economy since the Civil War*, Louisiana pbk. ed. (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1996).

developing agricultural experiment stations. There was still a need to develop a school of technology in the state. Grady's support for economic development played a key role in the establishment of Georgia's first college dedicated to technology.[22]

Henry Grady was pushing for the kind of technology education that he had seen in the North. He felt that Atlanta and Georgia needed a place where young men in Georgia could be trained to manage the state's industrial expansion. Support for Grady's ideas came from Senator Benjamin H. Hill an important figure in Georgia politics since before the Civil War. He argued that an educated workforce was the only way Georgia could control its own destiny.[23]

The University of Georgia had a small program in civil engineering and Chancellor Patrick H. Mell suggested that a new engineering school be established in Athens noting that the university already had chemistry, physics, engineering, and agriculture departments.[24] Meanwhile, it was Nathaniel E. Harris an influential state legislator from Macon, who put forward a bill to establish a school of technology in Georgia. Harris persuaded the legislature to form a committee to investigate the possibilities of a new school.

The committee looked at several models for a new technology school, including Boston Tech (later the Massachusetts Institute of Technology) and Worchester Free Institute. The committee decided in favor of the shop culture model of the Worchester Free Institute. Cost of operation was the reason put forward by the committee. A school based on the shop culture

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[22] Harold Eugene Davis, *Henry Grady's New South: Atlanta, a Brave and Beautiful City* (Tuscaloosa: University of Alabama Press, 1990).

[23] Benjamin Harvey Hill, *Senator Benjamin H. Hill of Georgia: His Life, Speeches and Writings* (Atlanta: T. H. P. Bloodworth, 1893).

[24] Thomas G. Dyer, *The University of Georgia: A Bicentennial History, 1785-1985* (Athens, GA: University of Georgia Press, 1985), 137.

method could produce its own income in the same way as the Washburn Shop at Worchester did.[25]

A bill funding the Georgia School of Technology (later renamed the Georgia Institute of Technology) passed in 1885 and a commission to find a site for the school established. After twenty-three ballots, the commission chose Atlanta as the site of the new school. The ballot tilted in Atlanta's favor because of the one hundred thousand dollars offered by the city to help build the new school. Even though the school initially used a shop culture model for its curriculum, there was a constant struggle between shop and school during the decade.

The Georgia School of Technology was founded at a time when there was considerable debate on the nature and philosophy of technology education. There was a division between those who believed in the hands-on practical "shop culture" and those who believed in a strong theoretical, scientific, and research-oriented "school culture." Monte A. Calvert describes the shop culture supporters as class-conscience with a strong network of family industrialists behind them. The shop culture advocates backed schools like the Worchester Free Institute and the Rose Polytechnic Institute. These schools emphasized practical shop work and developed men who would be machinists and shop foremen. The school culture advocates opened up to young men who were from lower classes and the shop floor. Their curriculum emphasized mathematics and research.[26]

Robert H. Thurston was the main influence in the forming of ideas about the education of engineers in the school culture tradition. In 1884, Thurston wrote that the distinction between the school culture institution such as Stevens Institute of Technology and the shop culture institution such as the Worchester Free Institute was more than just philosophy but

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[25] James E. Brittain and Robert C. McMath, "Engineers and the New South Creed: The Formation and Early Development of Georgia Tech," *Technology and Culture* 18, no. 2 (1977).

[26] Ibid.

rather a division of labor. Thurston saw the shop culture schools producing the hands-on trained laborers that would work under the research-oriented engineers produced by the school culture colleges.[27]

By 1908, the school culture model of research engineering education had won out at the Georgia Institute of Technology. It was left to the lower level schools and the apprentice systems to train students in practical technology and vocational trades. Through the 1890s, the lack of a viable high school system in Georgia forced Georgia Tech to start a "sub-apprentice" system. The students in this new system learned basic skills needed for a more rigorous engineering curriculum.

There was a need to incorporate shop skills and vocational education as part of the secondary educational system in Georgia. This was a mark of the growing split between the training of students in the technical skills used by labor and the advanced engineering and management skill used in the laboratory, design rooms, and offices. This split led state school commissioner Gustavus R. Glenn to call for new programs of vocational education in the Georgia's public schools.

In 1897, Commissioner Glenn asked the General Assembly to provide for industrial education. In the Annual Report of 1889 from the state school board, Commissioner Glenn expanded on his ideas for vocational and industrial training.[28] He declared that he saw the defect in the educational system as instilling a desire in boys and girls to escape from manual labor. Glenn not only wished to keep children interested in manual labor he wanted to make sure that

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[27] Robert H. Thurston, "Instruction in Mechanical Engineering," *Scientific American Supplement* 17 (1884).

[28] Charles Edgeworth Jones, *Education in Georgia*, Contributions to American Education History, No. 5. (Washington: Govt. Print. Off., 1889).

the labor was trained within the state. He thought it was in Georgia's best interest to not have to import farm and industrial labor from other parts of the country. [29]

In 1903, the Georgia Legislature passed an act that mandated the teaching of agriculture and manual arts in the common public schools. Hoke Smith, then a prominent lawyer in Atlanta, enthusiastically supported education in agriculture, manual arts, and industrial arts. Smith offered Ira W. Williams, a graduate of the Agriculture Colleges of the University of Georgia, the use of his farm in order to set up a vocational education program for Temple High School in Carroll County. Smith's interest in educational reform in Atlanta started early in his political career. Grantham describes Smith's work at vocational education reform in the Atlanta schools as his "…most cherished reform." [30] Smith felt that education in the South did not have the practical side that it needed to help children adapt to meet the new conditions of the Southern economy. The politics of vocational education in Georgia had changed at the beginning of the twentieth century. The developing tiered vocational education system would have an impact on public perception particularly the perception of the new industrial workers and the labor unions. In order to get funding for vocational education the arguments had to appeal to the agrarian populists, the union workers, and the politicians.

Despite increased industrialization, Georgia remained primarily an agricultural state in the first decades of the twentieth century. New scientific agricultural methods were spreading across the northern states and reformers in Georgia worried that they would be left behind. Georgia's agriculture was still primarily dependent on cotton. Although cotton was enjoying resurgence in the worldwide market in the first two decades of the twentieth century, there was

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[29] Dorothy Orr, *A History of Education in Georgia* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1950).

[30] Dewey W. Grantham Jr., "Hoke Smith: Progressive Governor of Georgia, 1907-1909," *The Journal of Southern History* 15, no. 4 (1949): 118-119.

uneasiness in relying solely on one crop. Political leaders throughout the state saw training in new agricultural methods the surest way to grow Georgia's economy.[31]

Joseph M. Terrell, Georgia's "education governor" first took office in 1902. Terrell was part of the progressive political movement that was sweeping the entire nation at the time and was a firm believer in education. He considered himself an "uncompromising friend of common school education." His political career as a state senator and attorney general showed as strong a progressive spirit as could be found in the South.[32] While in the state senate, Terrell promoted the use of property taxes to help fund local public schools and sponsored failed legislation expanding the common-school year to six months. One of his most important achievements as a state senator was the establishment of the Georgia Industrial College for Colored Youth in Savannah (later Savannah State University).[33]

Governor Terrell recommended to the General Assembly that each of the state's congressional districts build an agricultural and mechanical arts trade school. This new initiative was a result of the agricultural education movement dovetailing with the high school movement. Governor Terrell said, "Georgia is pre-eminently an agricultural state, and while we are fostering other interests, we should be especially active to encourage that business in which the whole state is most vitally concerned." He believed that if Georgia lagged behind that the whole state would suffer and that if Georgia could take the lead in agricultural education then "all the people will be directly benefited." [34] By promoting the District Agricultural and Mechanical Schools he

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[31] See Wright, *Old South, New South: Revolutions in the Southern Economy since the Civil War*.

[32] Alton DuMar Jones, "The Administration of Governor Joseph M. Terrell Viewed in the Light of the Progressive Movement," *Georgia Historical Quarterly* 48 (1964).

[33] See Warren A. Candler, *Georgia's Educational Work: What It Has Been, What It Should Be. "Hammond's History" Corrected, Etc* (Atlanta, GA: Foote & Davies, 1893).

[34] Quoted from Oscar H. Joiner and others, *A History of Public Education in Georgia, 1734-1976* (Columbia, SC: R. L. Bryan Company, 1979), 163.

provided a way for the more progressive political and educational leaders to establish a high school system while supporting rural Georgians and the agricultural economy.

Getting through the barriers to publically-funded education in Georgia would be a difficult task. There was still a legacy of distrust that was carried over from the days of reconstruction. Terrell had to work around the last revisions to the Georgia State Constitution on public education funding made in 1870. The Georgia State Constitution still prohibited the funding of public schools beyond the elementary level. The populists felt that state funding of local public schools was an attempt by Northern industrial interests to expand state government into local affairs and force change in the social order of the state.

To get around the populists and the constitutional restrictions, Governor Terrell proposed that the new District Agricultural and Mechanical Schools become part of the University of Georgia. The University of Georgia's School of Agriculture seemed a logical agent to run the new schools and could provide a corps of teachers trained in the newest scientific agricultural methods.[35] In addition, Governor Terrell included women in the District Agricultural and Mechanical Schools. Home economics education had become a popular cause in Georgia during this period. Women's groups throughout the state wrote memorials in support of more home economic educational opportunities for women, especially rural girls.[36]

Governor Terrell's efforts in promoting public education are a good example of the State Relative Autonomy Theory at work. Despite political maneuvering and the fact that Governor Terrell had garnered support from a wide variety of Georgia's business leaders, the District Agricultural and Mechanical Schools met with a great deal of resistance from rural populists in the state legislature. There was no real call from Georgia citizens for more public

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[35] John Taylor Wheeler, *Agricultural Education of Less Than College Grade in Georgia (1733-1939)* (Athens, GA: 1940).

[36] See Rebecca S. Montgomery, *The Politics of Education in the New South: Women and Reform in Georgia, 1890-1930* (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 2006).

education in the early 1900s. In fact, in the politically powerful rural areas of Georgia the rural populist movement was hostile to public funding of education. It would take four more years for any District Agricultural and Mechanical School legislation to pass. Finally, in 1905, a bill sponsored by Terrell and introduced by State Senator H. H. Perry of Hall County gained enough support to pass through the legislature. Governor Terrell signed the Perry Act establishing the District Agricultural and Mechanical schools in 1906.[37]

At the time the legislation passed, there were twelve congressional districts in Georgia. The state government provided each District Agricultural and Mechanical School with the funds for establishing a training facility with classrooms, workshops, and basic dormitory and dining facilities for those students who lived too far away to commute to classes. The twelve schools were centrally located within each congressional district. The District Agricultural and Mechanical Schools became commonly known as District A & M Schools and even before they were built, there was a controversy over the curriculum. In a foreshadowing of the curriculum debates to come, there was a disagreement between the supporters of manual labor and general education preparation.

The author of the original legislation, H. H. Perry, wanted the District A & M Schools to emphasize manual labor and mechanical skills education. Professor J. S. Stewart of the State College of Agriculture pushed to have a curriculum that provided general education and preparation for college. Governor Terrell and the University of Georgia's Chancellor Barrow both backed Stewart. The District A & M Schools would provide secondary level work in general education along with agricultural science and mechanics for men and home economics for women.[38]

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[37] Orr, 265-266.

[38] Ibid.

Twelve District A & M Schools were actually constructed and operated over a twenty-five year period. The District A & M Schools changed their mission over the years as a new amendment to the Georgia Constitution in 1912 allowed for the state funding of local public schools. A new wave of local public high schools could now provide local vocational education as well as general education preparation for college entrance. The District A & M Schools specialized in vocational training that required more equipment and physical plant resources than could be provided at the local high school level. The original 1906 act provided that every student graduating from the agricultural classes would qualify for admittance to the University of Georgia's School of Agriculture. This provided a bridge for rural students who wanted to continue on to higher education in agricultural sciences.

The recommended curriculum for the District A & M Schools was more diverse than would be expected for a school intended to train students for manual labor and employment rather than educating for higher education. For example, the recommended curriculum for the District A & M Schools during the school year 1915-16 consisted of four years of classes in each of the following subjects: English, mathematics, history, science, agriculture, farm mechanics, and domestic arts and sciences. Boys were typically enrolled in the agriculture and farm mechanics classes while the girls were enrolled in the domestic arts and sciences classes. For boys the farm mechanics laboratory had instruction in free-hand drawing, woodworking, forge work, mechanical drawing, and elementary surveying. Girls were trained in the skills of home economics including cooking, sewing, child care, and hygiene. The District A & M Schools provide dormitories and cafeterias for the students who would typically stay during the winter and early spring months between planting seasons.[39]

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[39] C. H. Lane and Dick J. Crosby, *The District Agricultural Schools of Georgia* (Washington: G.P.O., 1916).

Federal funding for vocational education would prove to have a bigger impact on the original District A & M Schools than the improvement in state funding of public education. The national movement in vocational education was rising at the same time that Georgia was developing the District A & M Schools. This new push for federal funding would provide Georgia with increased assets that the District A & M Schools could use to provide expanded services.

The first decades of the twentieth century were not only important for vocational and technical education in Georgia. A national movement in vocational and technical education was taking shape during this same time. It is important to look at the rise of this national vocational and technical education movement and its relationship with political leaders from Georgia. The national movement would come to dominate the evolution of vocational and technical education in Georgia for the next one hundred years. The availability of federal funds would prove to be a major factor in the development of the vocational education opportunities in Georgia.

The earliest and most vocal of the proponents of vocational education were the industrialists and businessmen of the late nineteenth century. The National Association of Manufacturers formed in 1895 consisting of industrialists from across the nation. An industrial education committee for the National Association of Manufacturers addressed the concern of international competition, especially from Germany. The members of the association were alarmed by Germany's rapid rise in industrial power and very impressed with its system of technical and vocational schools. The new industrial division of labor between the engineer and the skilled mechanic had eroded the traditional apprenticeship system while the nature of the factory made on-the-job training difficult and impractical. The National Association of Manufacturers concluded that the demand for skilled workers could only be met by a system of vocational schools.[40]

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[40] Kantor.

The free school movement was strong in New England and the increase in industry made free vocational education at the state level seem to be the next logical step for reformers and industrialists alike. In Massachusetts, Governor William L. Douglas appointed a commission to study the need for different levels of skill in industry and the need for educational support for workers. The first Douglas Commission in Massachusetts reported that there was widespread interest in special training for vocations. The Douglas Commission also reported that there was a lack of skilled workmen in industry, that public schools were too exclusively literary, that trade unions were suspicious of a purely technical school without basic literacy and mathematics, and that the expense of the new schools should be borne wholly or partially by the state.[41]

The Douglas Commission concluded that an administrative commission should be appointed to draft a plan for vocational education in the state. Governor Douglas signed legislation establishing the vocational schools in Massachusetts. It took until 1909 to work out the administrative details and the State Board appointed Dr. David Snedden to become the State Commissioner of Education. Charles A. Prosser, a Snedden protégé, became the State Director of Vocational Education. Prosser and Snedden were key figures in the development of the philosophical backbone of the vocational education movement in America.

Snedden wrote an influential essay on vocational education for the Riverside Educational Monograph Series in 1910, the essay was republished in 1912. In the essay entitled "The Problem of Vocational Education" Snedden makes the case that the increasing complexity in industrial technology and commercial enterprise calls for schools to take over vocational education from the traditional home, farm, and apprentice-based systems of training.[42] Prosser

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[41] Charles A. Prosser and Thomas H. Quigley, *Vocational Education in a Democracy* (Chicago: American Technical Society, 1949), 32-34.

[42] David Samuel Snedden, *The Problem of Vocational Education* (Boston, New York [etc.]: Houghton Mifflin company, 1910).

developed Snedden's ideas on vocational education into a set of theorems. Prosser's Sixteen Theorems on Vocational Education are still cited today and are still influential in the making of vocational and technical education policy.

1. Vocational education will be efficient in proportion as the environment in which the learner is trained is a replica of the environment in which he must subsequently work.
2. Effective vocational training can be given only where the training jobs are carried on in the same way, with the same operations, the same tools, and the same machines as in the occupation itself.
3. Vocational education will be effective in proportion as it trains the individual directly and specifically in the thinking, habits and the manipulative habits required in the occupation itself.
4. Vocational education will be effective in proportion as it enables each individual to capitalize his interests, aptitudes, and intrinsic intelligence to the highest degree.
5. Effective vocational education for any profession, trade, occupation, or job can be given only to the selected group of individuals who need it, want it, and are able to profit by it.
6. Vocational training will be effective in proportion as the specific training experiences for forming right habits of doing and thinking are repeated to the point that these habits become fixed to the degree necessary for gainful employment.
7. Vocational education will be effective in proportion as the instructor has had successful experiences in the application of skills and knowledge to the operations and processes he undertakes to teach.

8. For every occupation there is a minimum of productive ability which an individual must possess in order to secure or retain employment in that occupation.
9. Vocational education must recognize conditions as they are and must train individuals to meet the demands of the "market" even though it may be true that more efficient ways for conducting the occupation may be known and better working conditions are highly desirable
10. The effective establishment of process habits in any learner will be secured in proportion as the training is given on actual jobs and not on exercises or pseudo jobs.
11. The only reliable source of content for specific training in an occupation is in the experiences of masters of that occupation.
12. For every occupation there is a body of content which is peculiar to that occupation and which practically has no functioning value in any other occupation.
13. Vocational education will render efficient social services in proportion as it meets the specific training needs of any group at the time that they need it and in such a way that they can most effectively profit by the instruction.
14. Vocational education will be socially efficient in proportion as in its methods of instruction and its personal relations with learners it takes into consideration the particular characteristics of any particular group that it serves.
15. The administration of vocational education will be efficient in proportion as it is elastic and fluid rather than rigid and standardized
16. While every reasonable effort should be made to reduce per capita cost, there is a minimum level below which effective vocational education cannot be

> given, and if the course does not permit this minimum of per capita cost, vocational education should not be attempted. [43]

While the immediate impact on Georgia's development of vocational and technical education was slight, the philosophy developed by Prosser and Snedden in the first part of the century would be embodied in the development of Georgia's area vocational technical schools in the 1950s and 1960s. The organization of supporters of vocational and technical training in publicly funded schools would have a direct influence on Georgia political leaders.

In 1906, Dr. James P. Haney, Director of Manual Training for the New York Public Schools, and Professor Charles R. Richards of Teachers College, Columbia University met at the Engineers Club in New York City with thirteen other supporters of industrial education to form the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education (NSPIE). The NSPIE was formed to "bring to public attention the importance of industrial education as a factor in the industrial development of the United States; to provide opportunities for the study and discussion of the various phases of the problem; to make available the results of experience in the field of industrial education both in the country and abroad; and to promote the establishment of institutions for industrial training."[44]

A bill for federal funding for vocational education was introduced by Representative Charles R. Davis of Minnesota in 1908. The bill lacked support from the NSPIE because the members felt that not enough research had gone into the issues of industrial and vocational education. The NSPIE leadership felt that the time was not yet right and the initial attempt by Davis failed for lack of support. However, the foundation for a future bill for federal funding was laid in 1908 at a NSPIE Conference held in Atlanta.

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[43] Charles A. Prosser and Charles R. Allen, *Vocational Education in a Democracy* (New York & London: The Century co., 1925).

[44] "Proceedings of the Organizational Meetings," (New York: National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, 1906).

Hoke Smith was the Governor of Georgia during the 1908 NSPIE Conference in Atlanta. Smith had already developed a reputation as the education governor in Georgia. He was asked to serve as the toastmaster of the opening banquet and his remarks set up a long relationship between Hoke Smith and the members of the NSPIE:

> It is a great problem you have undertaken. I do not know that there is a greater problem, or so great a problem in our country. It reaches our position in national commerce. It will solve the question as to whether our manufactories and our industrial growth are to maintain that place in the world's commerce to which our best resources entitle us...
>
> …No system of education or manufacture is logical which undertakes to carry a youth as far as he has to go through school and college and drops him without having done anything to teach him how to do that which will most probably aid him to make his daily livelihood.[45]

The NSPIE issued a report calling for a general system of industrial education in the United States and sent a resolution to President William Howard Taft. The resolution asked President Taft to urge Congress to provide an appropriation in the budget of the Commissioner of Education for a national study on industrial education. It would take four more years to form the Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education.[46]

The major players in the creation and passage of a bill for Federal support for vocational education came into place between 1908 and 1914. Carroll S. Page of Vermont was elected to the Senate in 1908. Dudley M. Hughes of Georgia was first elected to the House of

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[45] "Proceedings of the Second Annual Meeting," (Atlanta: National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, 1908).

[46] Melvin L. Barlow, *History of Industrial Education in the United States* (Peoria, IL: C. A. Bennett, 1967), 55-57.

Representatives in 1909.[47] Hoke Smith resigned as Governor of Georgia to take up the term of Senator Alexander S. Clay who had died suddenly while in office. Smith was reelected to the Senate in 1914. In 1912, Charles A. Prosser became Secretary of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education. Each of these men would play a pivotal role in introducing federal support for vocational education.

Through the last decades of the nineteenth century, industry and immigration increased the need for vocational education and the pressure from industry for federal funding. The NSPIE's efforts at lobbying Congress resulted in the 1914 Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education. The Commission was charged with the task of considering federal funding to public schools for vocational education and making recommendations to Congress.

Former Georgia Governor and U. S. Senator Hoke Smith took an interest in agricultural and vocational education throughout his political career. While Secretary of the Interior under President Grover Cleveland in the 1890s, Hoke Smith promoted vocational education on the Indian reservations under his authority. He wrote to the Senate Appropriations Committee chairman in 1894 that he could "not help believing that by far the greater number of Indian children are to work out their future in connection with the resources upon the reservations of their respective tribes, and that education, for the most part, is wisest which trains them in this direction."[48]

As was already noted, Hoke Smith was a strong supporter of the agricultural and mechanical schools in Georgia during his tenure as governor. His interest in education and particularly vocational education extended back to his time as lawyer in Atlanta where he helped fund an agricultural extension center in Bartow County. He personally funded traveling

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[47] Billy Walker Jones, *Vocational Legacy: Biography of Dudley Mays Hughes* (Macon, GA: [s.n.], 1976).

[48] Dewey W. Grantham Jr., *Hoke Smith and the Politics of the New South* (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1967), 78.

libraries to the sixteen needy counties across Georgia. In 1901, Smith joined the important Peabody Education Fund that sponsored research projects in education across the South. He not only spoke before the NSPIE at their convention in 1908, he also spoke almost every year at the annual Southern Education Conference. His speeches always highlighted the needs of agricultural and vocational education for the South and the importance of economic diversification in Georgia and the South.[49]

Hoke Smith took his seat as a U.S. Senator in December 1911. The next year was a strong political year for the South. Southern progressives, including Senator Smith, backed the candidacy of Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey, a native southerner and leader of the progressive movement. The election of Woodrow Wilson to the presidency brought in a rise in Southern political power that had not been seen since before the Civil War.

Even after the Perry Act, Governor Terrell struggled to get appropriations for the District Agricultural and Mechanical schools from the Georgia Assembly. He worked with the Georgia delegation to Congress to introduce a bill that would fund agricultural and mechanical schools for every congressional district in the nation. Representative Leonidas Livingston and Senator Alexander Clay sponsored the bill in January 1907. The bill did not pass, but it did gain enough support in Congress to support later legislation such as the Smith-Lever and Smith-Hughes Acts.[50]

Senator Smith, working with a bill first introduced by Congressman Asbury Lever of South Carolina pushed to get the research of the Morrill Land Grant institutions to the local farms. The Smith-Lever Act of 1914 established the agricultural extension service that would train farmers and rural farm labor in the new methods of farming and in the skills of farm work.

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[49] Grantham Jr., "Hoke Smith: Progressive Governor of Georgia, 1907-1909," 120-125.

[50] Wheeler, *Two Hundred Years of Agricultural Education in Georgia*, 71.

The Smith-Lever Act was an important first step in getting federal funding for a national system of vocational and industrial education. The principle of the federal government providing a 50-50 match to state and local funds began with this act. Each state accepting federal funds was required to finance half the cost of the extension programs and the federal government the other half. Although Hoke Smith did not initiate the Smith-Leaver Act, his political maneuverings got the legislation passed into law. He considered it his most important legislative achievement.[51]

The movement for a national vocational and industrial education system bolstered the support of various state governments for new vocational schools. Rupert R. Simpkins of the University of Chicago described the growth of the vocational education movement in an article written in 1912:

> The great development of the industries in modern times, bringing with it vast changes in economic and social conditions, has led to ever-increasing interest in industrial training. Not only among those engaged in educational pursuits has this new interest been growing in importance, but among the people as a whole there seems to be a growing demand that the common schools shall recognize and provide for this new economic and social need.
>
> This demand has crystallized in many instances in legislation. Commissions have been provided to investigate the whole problem. Communities have been empowered or required to provide industrial education. State aid has been given with or without conditions.[52]

The NSPIE and the Commission on Vocational Education worked to get interest in direct support for vocational education in the public schools. They relied on Hoke Smith's new influence in the Senate to promote their cause. Senator Smith and fellow Georgian Congressman

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[51] Grantham Jr., *Hoke Smith and the Politics of the New South*, 257-264.

[52] Rupert R. Simpkins, "Legislation for the Last Three Years on Vocational Education," *The School Review* 20, no. 6 (1912).

Dudley Hughes were appointed to the commission. Senator Smith was named the chair of the commission.

The same year as the Smith-Lever Act, Congress authorized the president to appoint a commission on national aid to vocational education. The Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education produced a report in 1916 calling for the "...training of a secondary grade to persons more than 14 years of age for...employment in the trades and industries, in agriculture, in commerce and commercial pursuits, and in callings based upon...home economics." [53]

President Wilson signed the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act in 1917. The Smith-Hughes Act provided funding for vocational programs that were at a level less than baccalaureate. This was the first legislation to develop a state-agency relationship for the funding and development of a significant segment of public education. The Smith-Hughes Act included important provisions that would shape the development of vocational and technical education in Georgia.

Smith-Hughes created a Federal Board for Vocational Education that would have representatives from industry, education, and labor. The federal aid to the states was set with defined limits giving the new Federal Board for Vocational Education with a level of control over state programs. Funds were designated to the states as long as the vocational programs were in the areas of agriculture, trades and industry, and home economics. In addition, the annual appropriations had to include the following: salaries of teachers, supervisors, and directors of vocational education areas; teacher preparation in the areas of agriculture, home economics, and trade and industrial subjects; and support for the activities of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. The states were also required to bear half the cost of salaries to teachers and administrators of vocational education.

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[53] Barlow, 62.

Each state was mandated to create a state board to govern vocational education in cooperation with the Federal Board for Vocational Education. The state boards were required to develop the state plans describing the kind of vocational education the state was to provide. Finally, each state board was required to submit an annual report on the state vocational education system to the Federal Board of Vocational Education.[54]

The establishment of a Federal Board for Vocational Education was one of the most controversial aspects of the new bill. The NSPIE, the American Home Economics Association, the National Association of Manufacturers, and the American Federation of Labor endorsed a federal board that would be representative of all interests including educators, industrialists, and labor. The Federal Board for Vocational Education would be unique in that it would be independent and report almost exclusively to Congress.[55]

The Federal Board for Vocational Education consisted of seven members including four ex-officio members; the Secretaries of Labor, Commerce, and Agriculture; and three additional members appointed by the President. For the first time, the federal government took on the responsibility for the vocational education of a large group of workers and youth. This new type of federal oversight would prove to be a point of contention in Georgia between the supporters of publically funded vocational and technical education and those who believed that such federal oversight was a violation of State's Rights.

The first task of the Federal Board for Vocational Education in 1917 was to establish the policies that each state would have to follow in order to receive federal funds. While each state was required to establish a board, there was no uniform format for the state boards and there was wide variety of types of boards formed. Some states established a board that was a part of the state's board of education while other states created a separate vocational education board.

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[54] "Smith-Hughes Act," (1917).

[55] Hoke Smith, *Vocational Education* (Washington: Govt. Print. Off., 1916).

Although there may not have been a uniform format for the state boards, the Federal Board for Vocational Education needed to establish some criteria for the state plans that were to be submitted.

The Federal Board for Vocational Education, in its first administrative bulletin, established ten items in the form of questions and answers that should be included in the state plans. The minimum age for full-time day students was to be set at fourteen. This minimum was set so that the vocational student was both physically and mentally capable to do the work. Students enrolled in classes in cooperation with industry or a commercial business were to have the same full-time day student status as those in the full-time classroom because the shop work and the class work were coordinated and were under the general supervision of a school instructor. The day school was supposed to follow a nine-month school year and an hour in school was to be interpreted as a clock hour of sixty minutes rather than the variable school period.

Following Prosser's Sixteen Theorems, the work of the school shop was assumed to meet the requirements of "useful or productive basis" when the work compared favorably in economic value with products completed in a shop or factory. It was stipulated that the school shop should resemble a regular shop in as many aspects as possible. Industrial training was to be interpreted as the work inherent in the occupation and must enlarge the trade knowledge of the student. As an example, mathematics education would emphasize the mathematics of the shop floor or trade. Similarly, those in the printing trade would be given English grammar training in order to proofread their typesetting. It was also the policy of the Federal Board for Vocational Education that all such classes should be taught by a teacher who had satisfactory experience in the trade.

The Federal Board for Vocational Education also set out rules for evening industrial education programs. Evening vocational schools funded through Smith-Hughes were not allowed to enroll persons under the age of sixteen. The instruction in the evening vocational and

industrial schools had to be confined to subjects which supplemented the daily employment of the worker. Money from the Smith-Hughes Act was also provided to pay part of the salaries of instructors of the evening schools as well as the full-time day schools providing instruction for working boys and girls. The goal of all state plans was to increase the knowledge of the worker in his occupation and support courses which gave eligibility for promotion and which improved the worker's knowledge of subjects that he did not complete in school, particularly subjects that tended to increase civic as well as trade knowledge.[56]

The Federal Board guidelines followed many of the principles set out by Prosser's Sixteen Theorems on vocational education. This is especially true in the need for vocational education to emphasize the "marketability" of the skills being taught. It also established the principle that vocational, as well as, later technical education was to be primarily an adult education endeavor filling the space between the first two years of high school and the collegiate level. The policies and guidelines of the Federal Board for Vocational Education codified the ideas of Charles Prosser and David Snedden and set the standards of the vocational curriculum that would continue in Georgia to the present time.

Hoke Smith took a keen interest in the vocational rehabilitation of wounded veterans and helped charge the Federal Board for Vocational Education with administering vocational rehabilitation. The Smith-Sears Veterans Rehabilitation Act of 1918 was designed primarily to help veterans of World War I to be retrained for work in industry and the trades. The Smith-Sears Act was important because this was the first time that an organized effort was made to support vocational rehabilitation. The Smith-Sears Act was designed for disabled veterans of World War I. The Smith-Fess Act of 1920 expanded vocational rehabilitation to civilians for the first time and set a precedent that continues through the twentieth century and into the present

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[56] Barlow., 118.W. Stull Holt, *The Federal Trade Commission: Its History, Activities and Organization* (New York, London: D. Appleton and Company, 1922), 118.

day.[57] Georgia collaborated with the federal government in vocational rehabilitation after the passage of the Smith-Fess Act in 1920.[58]

The Smith-Hughes Act and the related vocational education acts during the first three decades of the twentieth century set the tone for the development of vocational education institutions in Georgia. The Smith-Hughes Act had made provisions for cooperative arrangements between the federal government and the states. This was particularly true in the fields of agriculture, home economics, and the industrial training. The cooperative arrangements followed four fundamental principles: 1) the role of the federal government was to stimulate the states to provide vocational educational services; 2) federal funds were necessary in order to equalize the economic burden of provided vocational education among the states; 3) the federal government participates in vocational education because it is of national interest; and 4) the only way of properly maintaining standards of educational efficiency is by creating a relationship between the central and the local governments.[59]

The building of vocational education in Georgia has tended to follow the lead of federal government funding. From the time of the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917, accepting federal funds for education would mean accepting federal regulation through agency policies and federal legislation. The Morrill Act had established the precedent of the federal government dealing with one or two institutions in each state because it provided money for vocational education at the collegiate level. The Smith-Hughes Act authorized distribution of money to the secondary

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[57] Arthur F. McClure, James Riley Chrisman, and Perry Mock, *Education for Work: The Historical Evolution of Vocational and Distributive Education in America* (Rutherford, N.J.: Fairleigh Dickinson University Press, 1985), 74-75.

[58] Joiner and others. See also Hoke Smith, *Vocational Training of Disabled Soldiers: Speech by Hon. Hoke Smith, of Georgia, in the Senate of the United States, June 2, 1920* (Washington: G.P.O.), microform.

[59] "Statement of Policies, Bulletin No. 1," ed. Federal Board for Vocational Education (Government Printing Office, 1917), 6., 6.

school level and therefore set the precedent of a working state board that would carry out federal policies.

Georgia chose to establish a separate State Board of Vocational Education (SBVE) in 1918. Although the state government responded almost immediately to the new federal funding, local school districts were slow to respond during the first years of the SBVE. The District A&M Schools became the focus for vocational education in Georgia until after First World War and took the largest share of the Smith-Hughes Act funds.

One of the early problems with vocational education in Georgia was the lack of trained vocational education teachers. There were many skilled workers that could pass on their skills, but very few were willing or able to take on the educators role. It was not until the late 1910s and early 1920s that vocational education spread across the state and programs were established for training of white and African-American vocational education teachers.[60] Training of vocational education teachers was segregated. The University of Georgia and its College of Agriculture took the leadership role for training white vocational teachers during the first half of the century. African-American vocational education teachers were trained at agricultural colleges in Fort Valley and Savannah. The majority of leaders, of both races, that would develop the vocational-technical education in the later decades of the twentieth century were trained during this time.

Of the original twelve District Agricultural and Mechanical Schools, the Tenth District A&M School at Sparta (Granite Hill) and the Fifth District A&M School at Monroe closed. The Seventh District A & M School at Powder Springs and Eighth District A & M School at Madison operated as high schools under the direction of local school boards. The Ninth District A&M School at Clarkesville closed but later reopened as North Georgia Technical

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[60] Orr.

and Vocational School in 1943 under the State Board of Education. Seven District Agricultural and Mechanical Schools were allowed to provide collegiate level work.

Governor Richard B. Russell, Jr., acting on recommendations of the Georgia Commission to Coordinate and Simplify the Operations of Governmental Departments, proposed a plan creating the University System State Board of Regents. The new Board of Regents would oversee all state supported colleges as well as the District Agricultural and Mechanical Schools starting on January 1, 1932.[61] The seven District A & M Schools that offered collegiate level instruction eventually became higher education institutions under the new University System of Georgia as either two-year or four-year colleges.

Table 3: Status of the District Agricultural and Mechanical Schools (1945)[62]

Name 1907	Location	*Status 1945*
1st Distinct A & M	Statesboro	*South Georgia Teachers College (4 year)*
2nd District A & M	Tifton	*Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College (2 year)*
3rd District A & M	Americus	*Southwestern Georgia Teachers College (2 years)*
4th District A & M	Carrolton	*West Georgia Teachers College (2 year)*
5th District A & M	Monroe	*Walton County High School*
6th District A & M	Barnesville	*Gordon Military Academy*
7th District A & M	Powder Springs	*County High School*
8th District A & M	Madison	*County High School*
9th District A & M	Clarkesville	*North Georgia State Trade School*
10th District A & M	Sparta	*Not in operation*
11th District A & M	Douglas	*South Georgia College (2 year)*
12th District A & M	Cochran	*Middle Georgia College (2 year)*

A principal of the Fourth District A&M School in Carrollton, Irvin S. Ingram, described what he believed was the impact of the District Agricultural and Mechanical school system on Georgia education:

> It seems obvious, then, that the district agricultural and mechanical

[61] Fincher.

[62] Wheeler, *Two Hundred Years of Agricultural Education in Georgia*, 69.

> schools were but a passing phase of an enduring attempt to meet a profound and basic problem in the social and economic life of a state made up largely of rural people; that during the period of their activity, they succeeded in developing among them a consciousness of their need for a more direct and immediate approach to their problems; and too, a feeling of want or need for hose additional learnings which are traditionally regarded as cultural. That they contributed in no small degree to a more rapid development of the secondary schools seems obvious. It is not too much to contend further that they were undoubtedly instrumental in lending to secondary education a distinctly practical or vocational emphasis which found its way eventually into the curricula of the high schools as they arose all over the State.[63]

The importance of the District Agricultural and Mechanical Schools in Georgia cannot be overstated. The District A&M Schools were at least in part the forerunner of the junior college system and the regional university system. They were also the forerunners of the area vocational-technical schools and the technical college system. The District A&M School funded in large part by the Smith-Hughes Act, established three important precedents: 1) federal funding to the state allowed state officials and educational leaders to provide public education opportunities that would otherwise not gather political support in Georgia; 2) the concept of a state system of vocational schools separate from the local school districts and under the direction of a state bureaucracy; and 3) a curriculum that was designed for older students (starting at age, fourteen but later designed for students sixteen years and older) and provided a terminal education for employment in trade and industry.

One of the central areas of controversy concerning postsecondary and adult technical education has concerned economic class and race. As was seen in the various theories of educational change, there is a tension between those who believe that technical education is a way to improve the quality of life of the working class and the disenfranchised, and those who believe that such narrow education raises barriers to the middle and upper class of society. In

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[63] As quoted from Orr, 164-165.

Georgia there has been a suspicion among the white rural population that publically supported education of any kind is a way for northern industrialists to get cheap labor and change southern culture. Yet, at the same time, national labor organizations came to embrace public technical training as a way to improve labor standards and give workers a foothold into higher paying positions.

From the late nineteenth century through the early twentieth century, there was a mutual distrust between labor and management concerning technical training. Labor unions, in particular, were wary of vocational and industrial education efforts.[64] The trade schools at the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century were mostly private and backed by religious reformers and industrialists. It was not that labor was against education in an anti-intellectual way. It was that vocational and industrial education efforts were looked upon as tools of management that would produce a flood of non-union workers who would undercut the pay of union workers. Paul H. Douglas, a professor of Labor Administration at the University of Chicago, described labor's early attitude toward vocational and industrial training in 1921 as "decidedly suspicious of industrial education." Labor saw industrial education as a method that employers used to train "swarms of boys, inculcate them with anti-union doctrines, and then bring them into the factories to undermine wages and deprive union men of employment."[65]

The unionists were not suspicious without reason. There were several trade schools established in the 1880s and 1890s that spread anti-union rhetoric in their training programs. The New York Trade School, established in 1881, provided strikebreaking labor to local

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[64] American Federation of Labor, *Industrial Education: Consisting of an Investigation and Report by a Competent Special Committee, Reports of Officers and Committees, Action of A. F. Of L. Convention, the Attitude of Organized Labor and Others toward the Problem*, 1st ed. (Washington, D.C.: The Federation, 1910).

[65] Paul H. Douglas, *American Apprenticeship and Industrial Education*, Studies in History, Economics and Public Law, (New York: Columbia University, 1921).

industries soon after it began its work. J. Pierpont Morgan was a patron of the New York Trade School and gave it a large endowment.[66] With backers like Morgan and other industrialists of the late nineteenth century it is no wonder that the union men would have doubts about the purpose behind vocational education.

The city of Columbus, Georgia established the Columbus Industrial School in 1906. This secondary industrial school offered vocational courses for boys and girls with separate facilities for blacks.[67] The needs of the local cotton industry determined the structure of the school programs. Mechanical arts and machine works dominated the training curriculum.

The Columbus Industrial School met a perceived demand from the community for more relevant education. Superintendent of Schools Carleton B. Gibson described the role of local educators in the development of the school:

> The Secondary Industrial School of Columbus, Georgia, was established in response to the demand of the people for a more practical and useful education. The demand may not be expressed in definite terms by the lawmakers or by the press. It is usually indicated by express dissatisfaction with existing types of educational work, and suggestions that something more practical and useful to young people and to society be given in schools. It only remains for some thoughtful educator to interpret the complaints and demands of the people and formulate plans which will more directly meet their wishes.[68]

Students were required to be at least fourteen years old to have gone through the primary school up to the sixth grade and be of sound body. Each student was required to pick an industry or occupation upon matriculation to the school. The curriculum and programs were

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[66] Ibid.

[67] Roland B. Daniel, *Industrial Education in Columbus, Ga*, Bulletin (United States. Bureau of Education); No. 25 (1913), Whole No. 535 (Washington D.C.: G.P.O., 1913).

[68] Carleton B. Gibson, "The Secondary Industrial School of Columbus, Georgia," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 33, no. 1 (1909).

offered by the Columbus Industrial NSPIE and by the leaders of local business and industry. Under the supervision of the city superintendent and the management of the board of trustees, an advisory board of five experts representing the leading industries and commercial interests of the city also supervised the school.[69]

There was academic coursework in English, mathematics, history, and science. However, the majority of the coursework was in the chosen trade or occupation. The education was practical and designed to lead directly into employment as a factory worker, mill hand, or bookkeeper. After completing both the academic and industrial training, the candidates for graduation were required to spend at least two months in a factory, shop, or business establishment, without compensation for their work. Efficiency reports come weekly from the foremen supervising the workers.[70]

Working without compensation made labor union leaders suspicious of the motives behind the vocational and industrial schools. It was bad enough that managers and businessmen were directing the curriculum, now the newly trained workers were working without compensation. The labor unions and their leaders were already ambivalent about the vocational education movement in general. Columbus Industrial School gave some reason to be doubtful about the purposes of the industrial training students received.

The industrialists viewed the growing influence of unions as a threat which would slow down the training of new workers and place barriers to development. Industrialists in the late nineteenth century were convinced that labor unions were endangering the ability of the nation to produce new skilled workers, and they saw vocational schools as a means of weakening the hold of labor on the workforce. In a 1905 National Association of Manufacturers Committee on Industrial Education meeting, the chairman, Anthony Ittner, said that vocational schools

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[69] Ibid.

[70] Ibid.

would "undo the monstrous crime which labor has committed against its own people," and they would produce "skilled artizans [sic], educated mechanics, and hustling, adaptable, willing workmen, capable of filling any position."[71]

While the unions were distrustful of the privately owned and operated trade schools, they were interested in the idea of industrial training programs. The American Federation of Labor set up an education committee in 1903. The Chicago Carpenters Union and the New York Telegraphical Workers started schools to train their members. However, it was clear that the unions did not have enough money and could not adequately fund their own trade schools.[72]

It was important to gain the support of labor unions in order to promote the national vocational education agenda. The American Federation of Labor supported federal funding as long as it had strong representation in the power structures that controlled the distribution of funds. From 1914 and to its signing in 1917 the labor unions supported the Smith-Hughes Act because of its provisions for an independent federal board. The American Federation of Labor also worked to get equal representation on the individual state boards.[73]

African-Americans in Georgia faced segregation and the struggle to develop an educational system that could give them opportunities for advancement. Despite the racial prejudices and fear of economic competition, new schools were formed and by the 1880s, every newly formed state constitution in the South required some kind of universal education for whites and blacks though they were placed in segregated systems.[74]

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[71] National Association of Manufacturers, Conference Minutes 1905, 143-149.

[72] Douglas.

[73] Layton S. Hawkins, Prosser, Charles A., and Wright, John C., *Development of Vocational Education* (American Technical Society, 1951), 414-419.

[74] Ronald K. Goodenow and Arthur O. White, *Education and the Rise of the New South* (Boston, Mass.: G.K. Hall, 1981).

Regina Werum has also suggested that the Smith-Hughes Act was not an altruistic progressive act of legislation nor did outside industrial forces drive it. She suggests that the Smith-Hughes Act was pushed forward by agricultural interests in the South who also wanted to track African-Americans away from traditional colleges. Vocational education in the South meant that they could control the skilled labor pool and control access to schooling[75] Werum shows, in a later article, that the funding of African-American vocational education was small in comparison to the money allocated to the white-only vocational programs in the states of Georgia, North Carolina, and Mississippi.[76]

The racial inequities in the distribution of federal funds is not surprising given that Hoke Smith promoted and then signed into law a series of acts that disenfranchised African-Americans in 1908. Sectional divisions and concern for maintaining white supremacy were a major factor in federal funding distributed by the states. The "Negro Question" came up during the deliberations of the Smith-Leaver Act. The Smith-Lever Act left it up to each state which agricultural college in that state would receive funds. It was clear to legislators from the North that the South would not fund Negro agricultural colleges. Senator Smith took up the fight to defeat any amendments to provide for equitable funding under the Smith-Leaver Act. He argued that the Negro colleges were not prepared to send out trained demonstrators or extension agents and African-American farmers had little interest in agricultural education in any case.[77]

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[75]Regina Werum, "Sectionalism and Race Politics: Federal Vocational Policies and Programs in the Pre-Desegregation South," *Social Science History* 21, no. 3 (1997).

[76] Regina Werum, "Elite Control in State and Nation: Racial Inequalities in Vocational Funding in North Carolina, Georgia, and Mississippi, 1918-1936," *Social Forces* 78, no. 1 (1999).

[77] Grantham Jr., *Hoke Smith and the Politics of the New South*, 262-263.

Many progressive leaders believed that segregation and proscription of African-Americans would stabilize race relations.[78] William A. Link has described the moral paradox of the southern progressives as a mixture of paternalism and the desire to reform.[79] It would not be until the 1960s that a measure of racial equity in vocational education was established.

The years between the establishment of the Georgia Vocational Board of Education and World War II were difficult for the economy in Georgia and resulted in a slow decline in vocational education in the state. Vocational education in Georgia made progress at the local level, but there was not much innovation or expansion through the 1920s and 1930s. Lota P. Walker, the assistant supervisor for trades and industries for the SBVE, wrote about the state of the Smith-Hughes Act and vocational education in Georgia in 1923:

> In the beginning, the work in grades and industrial education in Georgia started off a little slowly, due to the fact that the occupation in Georgia was so largely regarded as agriculture. However, we are coming to realize more and more that industrial development and agricultural development must go hand in hand in order for either to attain the greatest success possible.[80]

Two major factors heavily influenced the future direction of vocational education in Georgia. The agriculturally based economy in Georgia took a severe blow with the spread of the boll weevil in the cotton fields across the South. This caused leaders throughout Georgia to call for diversification in crop production and finally forced the entire region to wean itself off a cotton economy. The second factor in that changed Georgia's economy was the advent of the Great Depression in 1929.

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[78] Michael Dennis, "The Skillful Use of Higher Education to Protect White Supremacy," *The Journal of Blacks in Higher Education* 32 (2001).

[79] William A. Link, *The Paradox of Southern Progressivism, 1880-1930*, The Fred W. Morrison Series in Southern Studies (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1992).

[80] "Smith-Hughes Act is Featured by Miss Walker", Atlanta Constitution June 12, 1923.

The agricultural crisis brought on by the boll weevil required a renewed emphasis on agricultural education and the agricultural experiment station system. Cotton production in Georgia from 1918 to 1924 declined by an average of twenty-nine percent. The devastation in the cotton fields increased the migration of African-American tenant farmers from the rural areas of Georgia to the urban areas of Georgia and to the industrial northern cities. Landless migrants needed vocational training in the urban areas and those who stayed in the rural areas needed agricultural education training them how to diversify their crops.[81]

The Great Depression required a renewed emphasis on industrial and vocational training in order to help thousands of newly out of work laborers find jobs in the manufacturing industry. Vocational education became an essential economic development tool for Georgia and an incentive for industry to move from the northern states to the southern states. Senators and Representatives from Georgia would use the power they had gained through seniority rules and committee appointments to help get federal funding for both agricultural and vocational education throughout the years between the First World War and the Second World War.

The Great Depression took a toll on state funding for all forms of education including vocational education. However, there was an increase in enrollment in all public schools in Georgia demonstrating the demand for education to improve the prospects of Georgia workers. A report on the state of education in 1933 by the editors of the Peabody Journal of Education and the various state commissioners discussed this issue:

> In 1926, there were 513,017 pupils in average daily attendance in the public schools of Georgia. This number increased gradually until the school year of 1931-32, when it made a very distinct rise to the average attendance during that year of 577,353. Individuals may differ as to the cause and effect relation between the depression and the unusual increase in the average daily attendance

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[81] Wright, *Old South, New South: Revolutions in the Southern Economy since the Civil War*. See also Wheeler, *Two Hundred Years of Agricultural Education in Georgia*.

> for the school year 1931-32, but the fact remains that it was in this, the worst year of depression, that the greatest increase came. This increase, of course, necessitated in some school systems and for the State as a whole an increase in the number of teachers as shown in the reports to this Department.[82]

Senator Walter F. George of Preston, Georgia took his seat in 1922. In the Senate Senator George would champion the cause of federal support of agricultural education. In 1929, Senator George co-sponsored the George-Reed Act that added additional funds for agricultural education and home economics. The George-Reed Act specifically targeted the beleaguered agricultural system in the South. This legislation was unpopular with proponents of trade and industrial education because of its total lack of support for anything but rural education programs.

The American Vocational Association (AVA), formed in 1926, was a powerful voice in vocational education policy across the nation. The AVA realized that the George-Reed Act was biased toward the South but chose to back any vocational education legislation rather than lose the support of the southern states. A representative of the AVA admitted that the organization was not "anxious to sponsor any legislation whatever at this time; and the only reason we are doing it is because we have been forced to do it by the agricultural education situation in the large agricultural sections of this country." [83]

In 1934, the George-Ellzey Act increased the supplemental funds for agriculture and home economics and reinstated support for industrial education that had expired under the earlier George-Reed Act. Sectional interests contested this refunding act. There were many in

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[82] "The Status of Public Education in the South," *Peabody Journal of Education* 10, no. 4 (1933).

[83] U.S. Congress, Senate, Committee on Agriculture and Forestry 1928, 10-11

Congress that objected to the unequal distribution of funds in southern states like Georgia. Regional interests during the Great Depression often trumped national interests.[84]

The next major move forward at the federal level came in 1936 with a bill sponsored by Senator George and Congressman Braswell Deen of Alma, Georgia. The George-Deen Act of 1936 provided fourteen million dollars in perpetual appropriations for vocational education in the states[85]. The George-Deen Act provided for funds for home economics based on the state's rural population percentage versus the nation's rural population. One of the most significant portions of the George-Deen Act was the provision of vocational education funds to distributive education.

Distributive education was the new term for vocational training in business management, marketing, and other skills related to the retail and commercial businesses. Educators and business leaders promoting distributive education were not only interested in producing low and middle level management and supervisors. They were also interested in building small businesses through strong entrepreneurship programs. The George-Deen Act was the first to provide federal funds for the support of specific training that would influence small business.[86]

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[84] Werum, "Sectionalism and Race Politics: Federal Vocational Policies and Programs in the Pre-Desegregation South."

[85] M. D. Mobley, "A Review of Federal Vocational-Education Legislation 1862-1963," *Theory into Practice* 3, no. 5 (1964).

[86] McClure, Chrisman, and Mock.

CHAPTER 3
POST-WAR DEVELOPMENT OF VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN GEORGIA

During the decade of the 1930s, the original ideas and model plan of vocational education in both Georgia and the nation slowly disintegrated. Old vocational education schools took on new duties or faded away. The early 1930s saw federal pullbacks in funding to vocational education due to the economic crisis of the Great Depression. In 1932, the House of Representatives organized the Economy Committee. Its purpose was to radically curtail federal spending. The Economy Committee produced a report that included calling for a yearly ten percent reduction in federal aid to programs under the Smith-Hughes Act. This plan would end all federal vocational education aid by the end of fiscal year 1942. In addition, funding for the Federal Board of Vocational Education would also end.

The measure was opposed by a variety of groups including the American Vocational Association, the American Federation of Labor, and vocational educators from around the nation. The reorganization was postponed in 1933 primarily to allow incoming President Franklin Roosevelt a chance to reorganize the executive branch. The bill to cut vocational education funding passed with amendments allowing the president to decide on the administration of vocational education programs. In June 1933, President Roosevelt transferred the operations of the Federal Board of Vocational Education to the Department of the Interior and then finally to the Department of Education in October 1933. The Federal Board of Vocational Education still met but had little authority or standing. President Truman finally abolished the Federal Board of Vocational Education by an executive order in 1946.

The original purpose of the Federal Board of Vocational Education was to provide serviceable education and training which would assist people to get a job to prevent the work from becoming academic in character. The Board was also put in place to insure that federal funds would be used as the Smith-Hughes Act intended and give recognition to the economic benefits of vocational education to the national economy.

An independent Federal Board of Vocational Education was also important because it provided one of the few venues where labor and industry had equal representation. Many saw the board as flawed because it caused a separation between general education and vocational education. However, the policies and decisions made by the Federal Board for Vocational Education during its sixteen year career had lasting effects on the nature of vocational, industrial, agricultural, and technical education and set the stage for the next era in vocational-training in post-Second World War America.[87]

During the 1920s, there was a public demand in Georgia to reorganize a complex state government. Through the decade, there were numerous calls to reorganize Georgia's colleges and universities under a single administrative unit. Governor Thomas W. Hardwick commissioned a study of the state government that included a mandate to reorganize the higher education system in Georgia. In 1929, Governor L.G. Hardman appointed the Georgia Commission to Simplify and Coordinate the Operations of Governmental Departments. The Commission recommended the elimination of dozens of departments and boards in state government and recommended new administrative entities including a new University System of Georgia. The initial reorganization legislation was rejected. Reorganization in state government was postponed until the next governor took office.

Governor Richard B. Russell, Jr. came into office in 1931 with the pledge to reorganize state government. The Reorganization Act of 1931 eliminated fifty-three state boards, commissions, and bureaus. The duties of twenty-seven boards of trustees of the public colleges and universities in Georgia were consolidate under a new Board of Regents.[88]

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[87] Barlow, 127-132. See also Melvin L. Barlow, "Development of the Concept of Industrial Education as a Public School Responsibility in California," *History of Education Journal* 5, no. 1 (1953).

[88] Fincher.

The District Agricultural and Mechanical schools supported by the dwindling Smith-Hughes Act had already started to move away from their original purpose. Several had become collegiate institutions over the years morphing into normal schools, junior colleges, and even four-year colleges. It was a natural move to subsume these institutions under the new Board of Regents. However, this created a new gap between high school and college for those students who needed vocational training and who did not intend to go on to collegiate work. Vocational education at the high school level was weak and difficult to fund in Georgia. State politicians and educational leaders saw a need to create new area vocational-technical educational opportunities to train students at the secondary and pre-collegiate level.

Prior to the Second World War, the economy of Georgia was still primarily based in agriculture and agricultural work. The defense industry changed the landscape of the Georgia economy. Not only was there a call for young men and women to enter into service through the draft, there was now a call to build new industrial facilities and train workers to produce the material needed for war. The American Vocational Association meeting in December 1941 at their annual convention emphasized the new crisis in vocational education.

In 1942, Federal Security Administrator and Director of Defense and Welfare Service, Paul V. McNutt, put forward six points on the place of vocational education in the war effort:

1) Speed up training to all-out proportions, so that war production demand for a 24-hour day, 7-days a week might receive maximum aid from vocational schools of the nation; retraining of workers displaced in non-defense industries for jobs in war production.
2) Immediate exploration and every possible expansion in the V-Training (Victory Training) of qualify women workers for jobs in war industries, especially in sections where there is increasing difficulty in obtaining qualified men for training.
3) That agricultural production must be increased in the 'Food for Freedom" campaign with the assistance of every facility available through the agricultural education programs of instruction in repair and

maintenance of farm machinery should be made available both to rural youth and adults.

4) Full realization of the fact that the home must play a vital part in the conservation and utilization of material and human resources necessary for military, industrial and civilian defense.
5) Immediate exploration looking to desirable expansion of vocational education in the establishment and assistance in maintenance through federal aid of vocational and trade schools serving larges areas.
6) Determination of the place that vocational education will occupying the period immediately following the war, and what should be done now to prepare for the efficient performance of that duty.[89]

The lasting impact of World War II on the national vocational education movement can be seen in these six points. Agricultural education is deemphasized in favor of training in the technology of agricultural production as opposed to farming techniques and the science of crop biology. The inclusion of women as part of the industrial work force began the decline of home economics as the only venue for vocational education for girls. Finally, McNutt expands on the original congressional district agricultural and mechanical schools to call for large area vocational-technical schools.

Schulman points out that it was a combination of the necessities of war production and the New Deal desire to bring industrialization to the South that brought great increases in federal aid to all sectors of the Southern economy. This included favorable legislation for secondary education and vocational education based on need rather than population.[90]

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[89] Paul V. McNutt, "Training Our Industrial Army," *AVA Journal and News Bulletin* 17, no. 1 (1943).

[90] Bruce J. Schulman, *From Cotton Belt to Sunbelt: Federal Policy, Economic Development, and the Transformation of the South, 1938-1980* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991), 111-115.

Vocational education funding took on a war footing along with the rest of the American economy. A series of legislative acts was included as part of emergency war measures that redesigned the national vocational education framework and converted vocational programs to national defense purposes. The aim was to train workers for vital defense industries including manufacturing tanks, airplanes, and ships. More than twenty thousand workers were employed at the Bell Aircraft B-29 assembly plant near Marietta, large munitions manufacturing plants were established in Macon and Milledgeville, and Savannah and Brunswick docks were building ships at a record pace.[91]

In Georgia, training programs in mechanics and engineering were established in Americus, Athens, and Savannah. The State Department of Education started the Vocational Training Program for War Production Workers.[92] The University of Georgia benefited from a building boom to house military forces preparing for the front.[93] In Americus, the Army Air Force training base would eventually become South Georgia Trade and Vocational School. McNutt's sixth point about the post-War status of vocational education would prove to be the end of a period of decline for vocational education in Georgia. A new era of technology-oriented vocational-technical education would start after the war.

M. D. Mobley became the director of the Georgia Department of Education's Office of Vocational Education in 1936. Mobley would become one of the nation's most influential educators during a critical time in the history of agricultural and vocational education. He is also the principal framer of the Georgia vocational-technical education system.

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[91] Kenneth Coleman, *A History of Georgia*, 2nd ed. (Athens: University of Georgia Press, 1991), 340-341. 340-341

[92] Joiner and others, 348. 348

[93] Dyer, 239-264. 239-264

Mobley was born in 1900 in rural Paulding County, Georgia. He was the only boy in his area to graduate from high school. He matriculated to the University of Georgia in 1919 majoring in agriculture and education. Mobley taught agricultural studies at several different rural Georgia high schools from his graduation in 1923 until 1926 when he was appointed Assistant State Supervisor of Agricultural Education. In 1930, he received a fellowship at Cornell University where he obtained his master's degree in agricultural education. After an appointment as Georgia's Assistant State Director of Vocational Education from 1934-1936, Mobley brought with him a wealth of new ideas how to improve Georgia's vocational education system. Mobley was appointed State Director of Vocational Education in 1936 and would hold the post until 1951.[94]

Mobley had become a prominent national figure in vocational education. He was elected president of the National Association of State Directors of Vocational Education from 1939 to 1940 and president of the American Vocational Association from 1944 to 1946. As the State Director for Vocational Education, Mobley pushed forward the idea of new system of area vocational-technical schools throughout Georgia.

In 1943, M. D. Mobley joined forces with F. H. Rayfield, Chairman of the Vocational Education Advisory Committee for Metropolitan Atlanta, to ask the State Board of Education to address the critical need for training skilled workers in the Atlanta area. In response, the State Board passed a resolution that requested the State Superintendent of Schools and the State Director of Vocational Education to study the need and to develop a plan for funding new programs within the limits of the Atlanta and Fulton County School System budgets.[95] This

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[94] Melvin L. Barlow, Lowell A. Burkett, and Gwen Hoelscher, *The Legacy of M. D. Mobley and Vocational Education* (Alexandria, Va.: American Vocational Association, 1988), 102.

[95] R. E. Bodenhamer, "A History of the Development of Area Vocational-Technical Schools in Georgia" (Academic Paper, University of Georgia, 1968), 7.

action brought the needs of vocational education in Georgia to the attention of the State Board of Education. Two months later, the State Board asked Mobley to look at the needs for vocational schools and develop a statewide plan.

Mobley's plan was based on the idea of large area trade schools to be administered by cooperating local school systems and placed strategically across the state. These area vocational-technical schools would take the place of the District Agricultural and Mechanical Schools that had either evolved into collegiate institutions, been converted to county high schools, or ceased to exist thus leaving a large gap in vocational education.

The possible locations for the Area Trade Schools included Dalton, Rome, Marietta, Atlanta, Macon, Columbus, Albany, Waycross, Brunswick, and Savannah. He asked that statewide schools be established immediately at facilities already established at Clarkesville and Milledgeville.[96] The report was approved by the State Board of Education and local school districts were authorized to apply for designation as an Area Trade School Center without obligating the Board for funding. Financial support was not yet available and would prove to be a large barrier in establishing a system of Area Trade Schools in the state.

Under Georgia state law at the time, the State Board of Education was not allowed to purchase new land for the construction of Area Trade Schools. Clarkesville and Milledgeville both donated land and facilities to the State Board for establishing the first of the Area Trade Schools. The State Board could only find funds for one school and chose to fund a school at Clarkesville.[97]

The North Georgia Trade and Vocational School at Clarkesville was the first school officially established under this plan. The Habersham County Board of Education deeded three hundred acres of land that was formerly the site of the Ninth District Agricultural & Mechanical

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[96] Ibid.

[97] Ibid.

School to the State Board of Education. The Ninth District Agricultural and Mechanical School had closed in 1934. The next year the National Youth Administration had taken over the facilities and established a youth work camp that existed until 1943.

The North Georgia Area Trade School enrolled its first class on February 1, 1944, at that same facility. The curriculum included programs in automotive mechanics, radio and communications, machine shop, welding and sheet metal, cooking and baking, woodworking, upholstery (for blind students), laundry and dry cleaning. The programs offered had no time limits or set graduation dates. Students would arrive and study until they achieved their objectives.[98]

One of the unique features of the new North Georgia Vocational School was the fact that it attracted students from across the northern half of the state. The need was great, and the time and funds to establish Area Trade Schools in smaller districts were not available. North Georgia had dormitory facilities in order to house students who could not commute, and the curriculum included unique programs that not found in secondary vocational education programs.

Along with the Constitutional Revision Commission, Governor Ellis Arnall worked to improve public education in Georgia by reforming the local board system and adding flexibility in local tax funding to the Georgia Constitution. The Georgia Constitution of 1945 had provisions that allowed for the consolidation of large numbers of substandard schools under new district boards of education. In addition, the new Constitution made it easier for local voters to pass school bond issues, permitted state support of the twelfth grade, and raised the limit on local taxing authority from five mils to fifteen mils.[99]

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[98] Ibid.

[99] Harold P. Henderson, *The Politics of Change in Georgia: A Political Biography of Ellis Arnall* (Athens: University of Georgia Press, 1991).

After establishing a large regional trade school in the North Georgia, it was recognized by the State Board of Education that a similar school needed to be established in South Georgia. Both the new flexibility given by the Georgia Constitution of 1945 and enabling legislation from the General Assembly coincided with the end of the Second World War which allowed the State Board to look for a site for a new school in South Georgia. [100]

The original site chosen for the South Georgia school was an abandoned airfield near Camilla, Georgia. The renovations to the buildings and land to establish the school would have cost over six hundred thousand dollars, so the original site plan became too costly. A group of citizens from Americas, Georgia presented an attractive alternative site before the State Board of Education.

Graham Field, an Army Air Force training facility near Americas was deactivated at the close of 1946. Graham Field had the buildings, shops, training facilities, and land already in place, the facility was in excellent condition. The federal government would donate Graham Field and its infrastructure to the State of Georgia. In a meeting on October 28, 1946, the State Board of Education approved the Americus site and the names of the two schools were designated North Georgia Trade and Vocational School and South Georgia Trade and Vocational School.[101]

The first class of seventy-five students matriculated at South Georgia Trade and Vocational School in 1948. The curriculum included diesel mechanics, aircraft and aircraft engine mechanics, auto mechanics, radio and television repair, cabinet making, and upholstery refinishing. South Georgia also included dormitory facilities and unique programs in aircraft and

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[100] See "Acts and Resolutions of the General Assembly of the State of Georgia," (1943).

[101] Bodenhamer.

aircraft maintenance that took advantage of its heritage an airbase and the interest of the area students.

The largest expansion of higher and adult education in the history of the United States started with the Serviceman's Readjustment Act of 1944 otherwise known as the G.I. Bill. The purpose of the G.I. Bill was to assist veterans coming home from Second World War to adjust to civilian life and to help them to join the American workforce. Many of the veterans entered into the Second World War as teenagers and returned home as adults. The period of their lives that would otherwise be spent in college or learning a trade was instead spent fighting a war. The G.I. Bill would compensate them for this by funding an education that would lead to jobs and careers.

Ben Fine described the practical and occupationally oriented outlook of many of the returning veterans as "the men who have traveled and flown over the seven seas" and who "want something more tangible than the classics or the great books of Western civilization." The former-GIs wanted an education that would make them better citizens, would provide for their families, and would let them live in peace with their neighbors. Fine believed that the war had made the former-G.I.s tougher mentally as well as physically. During the war, they had time to think and conclude that education was good for them, but only an education that helped them in their everyday lives.[102]

In order to qualify for GI Bill funds, each veteran had to declare a vocational objective. The act encouraged the inclusion of occupationally oriented programs in higher education in America. It also encouraged veterans to enroll in adult vocational education programs. The G.I. Bill provided the impetuous for a new network of postsecondary vocational-technical schools across the United States.

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[102] As quoted from Mark Starr, *Labor Looks at Education* (Cambridge,: Harvard university press, 1946), 18., 18.

President Harry Truman took a great interest in the question of access to higher education. The growth of the two-year community college system in California provided a model for a combined institution that could offer traditional junior college transfer programs and occupationally oriented vocational-technical programs to students. In 1947, President Truman established the President's Commission on Higher Education.

The purpose of the Commission was to find new ways to expand access to higher education. The Commission's report looked enthusiastically at the community college model and the advantages it held for underserved students. The Commission recommended that the number of community colleges across the country increase and that their functions include continuing education and cultural activities:

> Whatever forms the community college takes, its purpose is educational service to the entire community, and this purpose requires of it a variety of functions and programs. It will provide college education for the youth of the community certainly, so as to remove geographic and economic barriers to educational opportunity and discover and develop individual talents at low cost and easy access. But in addition, the community college will serve as an active center of adult education. For this reason, the Commission recommends that the community college emphasize programs of terminal education.[103]

The Commission on Higher Education went on to call for the states to empower their local school districts to extend their programs to the fourteenth grade and establish congressional district-wide community colleges. The Commission recommended that the community college concentrate on two-year terminal degrees because fully half of all students would not finish a four-year college program.

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[103] "Establishing the Goals," ed. President's Commission on Higher Education (U.S. Government Printing Office, 1947).

The Commission believed that there would be two models for community college systems: "(a) a State-wide system of community colleges under the jurisdiction of some institution of higher education, or (b) a State-wide system of community colleges under the jurisdiction of some institution of higher education, or of an authority representing all public higher education in the State."[104]

During this critical time of growth when many states chose to develop a community college system, Georgia kept to its path of two-year transfer-based colleges under the Board of Regents and continued establishing area trade schools under the State Board of Education. In 1949, the Board of Regents commissioned a general survey of higher education in Georgia conducted by George D. Strayer a former director at Teachers College, Columbia University. The reports recommended a division of functions for each type of institution. A separate chapter of the report recommended that the State's junior colleges transfer from the control of the Board of Regents and go under the supervision of the Board of Education. The junior colleges would then have the responsibility of vocational training as well as academic training transferable to collegiate institutions. This recommendation never entered into the discussion of the future of Georgia's junior colleges.[105]

This is not surprising given the tendency of Georgia to follow those education movements that received financing through federal funds. There was great incentive to take advantage of federal programs for Area Schools and no federal funds forthcoming to develop community colleges.

The George-Barden Act passed in 1946 in order to help develop post-war vocational education training. The sponsors were Senator W. George of Georgia and Congressman

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[104] "Organizing Higher Education," ed. President's Commission on Higher Education (U.S. Government Printing Office, 1947).

[105] Cameron Fincher, *Historical Development of the University System of Georgia, 1932-2002* (Athens, Ga.: Institute of Higher Education University of Georgia, 2003).

Graham A. Barden from North Carolina. The most significant parts of the George-Barden Act for the history of technical colleges in Georgia were the establishment of the Area Vocational-Technical School Program and the establishment of funding for practical nurse training.[106] M. D. Mobley did much to influence the legislation as was noticed by an editorial in *The Atlanta Constitution*:

> Two Georgians are due the bulk of the credit for the expansion of state vocational education programs, as provide in a measure which Congress this week approved.
>
> It was Senator Walter F. George who authored the bill and who worked earnestly for its passage through both Houses. And it was M. D. Mobley, head of vocational education in Georgia, who kept Solons from this and other states aware of the need for additional funds with which to carry on the splendid work.[107]

M. D. Mobley resigned office and took up the task of Executive Secretary of the American Vocational Association in 1951. He would hold this position until 1965 and have a hand in writing legislation and forming national policy on vocational and technical education for the fourteen years he devoted to the Association.

The General Assembly passed legislation that dissolved the State Board of Vocational Education and gave all of its power to the State Board of Education in 1953. A new Division of Vocational Education took over the administration of vocational education in Georgia. W. M. Hicks took the position of State Supervisor of Trade and Industrial Education in the early 1950s. Through most of the decade, the North and South Georgia schools were the only area vocational-technical schools operating in Georgia. Both schools had taken on an additional role in

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[106] Mobley.

[107] As quoted in Barlow, Burkett, and Hoelscher, *The Legacy of M. D. Mobley and Vocational Education*, 39.

Vocational Rehabilitation and had grown a reputation as school designated for the rehabilitation role.

Hicks worked through the 1950s to promote and expand Mobley's original area trade schools. Bodenhammer describes the state of vocational education in Georgia through the early 1950s:

> During the early 1950s some effort was made to continue the vocational programs as part of the regular school programs, but efforts were largely unsuccessful and results poor. Academic educators in the main and high school principals in particular, seemed to believe vocational education to be a dumping ground for poor achievers and disciplinary problems and thus prevented the development of high quality programs.
>
> A second surge of development took place when veterans of the Korean War became eligible for education benefits. Once again enrollments soared and the program grew. Quality, however, remained poor and the development of a strong permanent program still appeared unlikely. [108]

During the 1950s, a new labor crisis hit Georgia. The farm population declined and an influx of under skilled and undereducated workers came into the urban areas looking for work. Wright explains the problems that Hicks faced as the leader of vocational education in Georgia:

During the Second World War, the labor that was tied up in southern agriculture poured out into the new manufacturing economy. The farm population declined by more than 3 million (about 22 percent) as young men responded to induction notices or to wartime job opportunities in the North or South. Most of the departures were not by owners or tenants, but by farm laborers and sharecroppers.[109]

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[108] Bodenhamer, 15.

[109] Wright, *Old South, New South: Revolutions in the Southern Economy since the Civil War*, 241.

On their return from war in the 1950s, the push to mechanize the cotton harvest and to diversify crops led to lower demand for farm workers and an increase in the number of workers without the skills to compete in the industrial workforce. W. M. Hicks recognized this problem because of the frequent pleas of industry and business to help them train new workers. While the rest of the nation enjoyed a boom time through the 1950s, Georgia found it hard to compete without an adequate vocational-technical education system.

One of the lessons of the Second World War was the need for a technologically oriented workforce. Science and technology were a great part of winning the war. The new era of the Cold War with the Soviet Union just emphasized the importance of a strong technological infrastructure to the defense of the nation. Traditional vocational education gave way to the new vocational-technical education. Along with the old trades, new skills in electronics, petroleum technology, manufacturing, and mechanized agriculture would require the teaching of new higher technological skills.

M. D. Mobley and the American Vocational Association lobbied Congress to write federal legislation that would increase funding to vocational-technical education. In 1958, the shock of the launching of the first artificial satellite by the Soviet Union pushed the federal government to promote scientific and technical education. Title VII of the comprehensive National Defense Education Act of 1958 was devoted to the Area Vocational Education Programs. The provisions of Title VII became Title III of the George-Barden act and authorized fifteen million dollars a year of appropriations for the next three years.

The basic criteria for establishing and funding an area vocational-technical school included all of the major ideas that would be used to develop the Area Vocational Schools in Georgia. The ideas put into the 1958 legislation were part of M. D. Mobley's original plans for the Area Trade Schools in the late 1940s. As Executive Director of the American Vocational Association, Mobley was asked to contribute to the writing of the legislation. W. H. Hicks used Mobley's ideas and plans when he developed a set of criteria that each local board would have to

meet in order to start a vocational school for their area in 1957. Each new program was required to be evaluated on its ability to meet a need in the local market. An employment market must exist for the program and course content must be determined upon the basis of an analysis of the occupation. Students had to have appropriate general education backgrounds and the technical content of the program had to fit those enrolled for employment. The school was obligated to provide appropriate facilities and adequate instructional equipment and instructors and supervisors must have professional and technical preparation and experience. Finally, the program had to be supported administratively and assessed on a regular basis.

The plan was completed and a preliminary handbook describing the application procedure was created. Dr. Hicks then took the plan and presented it to a group of educators and politicians in order to get legislation and funding from the General Assembly and support from the Governor. Bodenhamer described the meetings based on interviews with Hicks:

> Dr. Claude Purcell, then State Superintendent of Schools, was very sympathetic to the need for vocational training of the type being promoted by Hicks, but he felt that such programs should be included in a system of community colleges which he hoped to see built in Georgia. This attitude on his part created quite a bit of concern on the part of those who were in favor of the Area School concept.
>
> By 1957, tentative recommendations for the establishment of the program had been compiled. A committee of state directors of vocational education, state supervisors of trade and industrial education where area schools were already in operation, area school directors and a representative of the U. S. Office of Education were invited to visit Georgia for the purpose of studying the work that had been accomplished and making recommendations for future actions. Later that year the superintendents of the twenty-five largest school systems in Georgia met to discuss the program.
>
> The superintendents went on record as supporting the Area School concept. They also state that they would have nothing to do with the program if they were to be conducted in community colleges.

> This last was accepted by Dr. Purcell who from that day forward vigorously supported the Area School concept.[110]

It is not clear from Bodenhamer or any other source what the reasons were behind the hostility toward the community college concept in Georgia. There are two possibilities for this reluctance to embrace the community college concept. The first concern would have been racial. The *Brown vs. Board of Education of Topeka* case before the U. S. Supreme Court declaring separate educational facilities by race unconstitutional was decided just three years before in 1954. The response from Georgia was to hold to the segregationist path and attempt to continue the idea of "separate but equal" educational facilities. The Area School plan developed by Hicks allowed each district to build two vocational schools, one for whites and one for African-Americans. This would be difficult to do if the program was placed in a community college. There would never be enough funds to have two community colleges in a specific area. The school boards in the area would have to accept an integrated community college system.

The second objection was the issue of political control. The Area Schools would be directly under the local school boards. The local officials would probably place a community college system under the Board of Regents necessitating a loss of control. Local control has always been important in Georgia. Any sense that a measure would mean loss of local control of an important part of education would make it difficult to get local citizens to support the new programs. Both scenarios are probable and would fit the historical and political circumstances.

It may have been one or the other or a combination of both that caused the twenty-five superintendents to be so adamant about community colleges. Whatever the reasoning an opportunity to establish a community college system in Georgia was lost and it would be another forty years before degree–granting technical colleges would emerge.

The State Board of Education adopted the policies and procedures for establishing the Area Schools on July 14, 1958. The original policies allowed for two types of schools. The

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[110] Bodenhamer, 18.

vocational school could be a specialized trade school or it could be a school that extended current high school programs. No area chose to extend the existing high school programs. Bodenhamer describes the reason for this:

> It is obvious that Hicks deliberately and conveniently failed to press for the development of expansions to vocational programs at regular high schools and spent his energies instead in the promotion of the separate institutions. He had witnessed the types of trade programs operated by high schools and believed that they could never be equal in quality to those in separate schools. Developments since then have proved his judgment correct and he is due much thanks for his steadfastness on this matter.[111]

The policies called for the local area school boards to provide for half the cost of buildings and equipment and the state to provide the other half. The local area boards would arrange for the purchase or donation of land. The local area school boards were also charged with arranging to work together to develop a separate board of advisors that would represent the area and manage the new school. When the policies were first approved in 1958, there were no funds available in order for the state to contribute to the new area schools. Governor Marvin Griffin took an interest in the project and allocated over nine million dollars in state funds to provide for buildings and equipment. The Georgia Assembly finally approved the area vocational-technical schools in 1960.[112]

Thirty-two centers in twenty different areas initially qualified for funding and construction. Several areas were to have both white and African-American schools and several would build schools for Whites only. The schools at Albany, Augusta, Rome, Marietta, and Columbus were the first to be completed and opened by 1961. Schools at Griffin, Macon, and Clarkson soon followed by 1963.

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[111] Ibid., 19-20.

[112] See "Acts and Resolutions of the General Assembly of the State of Georgia " (1955).

While Hicks was working to establish Mobley's area vocational-technical school system, a movement in the Georgia state legislature was attempting to establish a system of area junior colleges. Georgia's Junior College Act of 1958 was the result of a study committee formed by the General Assembly in 1957. The reasons for the study committee were laid out in a resolution that stated that, "the problem of financing and providing adequate college educations for the young people of Georgia is becoming more severe each year." The resolution also said that many young people did not have the financial resources to allow them to attend college away from home. The committee also noted that there existed a "real possibility that Junior Colleges without dormitory facilities can provide college training at great savings to the State."[113]

Both the Junior College Act of 1958 and the Area Vocational –Technical Schools set the pattern for postsecondary education at the sub-baccalaureate level in Georgia. A dividing line between terminal vocation-technical programs and transferable academic programs was firmly established during the late 1950s and early 1960s. Cooperation between the two would be encouraged, but vocational-technical education was clearly relegated to non-collegiate status.

A crisis in all levels of education across Georgia gained political attention in the early 1960s. Georgia was falling behind the nation in educational attainment and training in the increasingly important areas of science and technology. By the early 1960s, Georgia's rate of college age students attending college was half the percentage of rest of the nation. At 21.7%, it was lower than every Southern state except for North Carolina.[114]

Governor Carl B. Sanders established the Governor's Commission to Improve Education in 1963. This commission conducted the first comprehensive study of elementary,

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[113] "State Junior College Study Committee," General Assembly of the State of Georgia (1957).

[114] Governor's Commission to Improve Education, *Educating Georgia's People: Investment in the Future* (Atlanta, 1963), 15.

secondary, vocational-technical and higher education in Georgia. The Commission's report was lamented that the comprehensive community college had never developed in Georgia and recommended that such community colleges be developed. The Commission noted that in Georgia, "the conception of the junior college generally held and most often followed in practice, at least until 1958, was that of an institution which offered the first two years of an academic degree program." The Commission also noted that in the last few years before the report, the junior college started many one- and two-year terminal degree programs. [115]

The Commission saw that there were definite advantages to the comprehensive community college model.

> A relatively new conception of the junior college as a comprehensive community college has been gaining ground since World War II, most notably in states such as Florida, Texas, California, and Michigan and, more recently, North Carolina. The comprehensive community junior college is a non-residential education center which serves community students in a geographic area of the state. It offers the widest possible variety of two-year programs to meet the needs of local area communities for education beyond the high school. [116]

The advantages of such an institution led the Commission to recommend non-residential comprehensive community colleges be the primary means by which local area higher education needs should be met. The community college would be educational centers for people living within commuting distance and would provide transferable freshman and sophomore college courses, vocational and technical programs, guidance and counseling services, adult education, and specialized programs. The Commission went on to recommend a dual system with a mixture of locally controlled community colleges and Board of Regents controlled community colleges.

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[115] Ibid., 52.

[116] Ibid.

One of the most difficult issues to resolve according to the Commission report was the relationship between the twenty-six existing and proposed area vocational-technical schools and the nine existing and proposed two-year colleges in Georgia:

> Attempts have been made in the past, in Georgia and elsewhere, to draw a sharp line between the work of the junior colleges and the vocational-technical schools, restricting the junior colleges to purely academic offerings and restricting the vocational-technical schools to occupational courses of less than college grade. However, these distinctions are being erased by the rising level of ability and skill needed for most occupations today and by the desire of a rapidly increasing number of young people to attend college for at least one or two years.
>
> Both types of institutions now look to high school graduates and adults as their principal clientele. There is a growing tendency for the curricular offerings to overlap, a tendency based not upon a desire to overlap, but rather upon the changing nature of our economy which demands that for many skilled technical occupations a person be trained in English, mathematics, science, and other fields. There also is the question of the duplication of administrative personnel and of facilities such as libraries, general classrooms, food service areas, and student enters. Counseling and guidance about occupational objectives and related educational programs also might be more adequately and objectively provided if they dealt with the full range of post-high school educational opportunities.
>
> The approach many states are taking to these problems is the development of community junior colleges of the type discussed above—comprehensive institutions which provide all of the needed services at one location in the community. If the clock could be turned back to the middle 1950s, it undoubtedly would be desirable to follow the same course in Georgia. Since the clock cannot be turned back, the Commission had to face the fact that the new junior colleges and area vocational-technical schools already have been and are being developed separately by the two boards and it gave its attention to ways in which the best coordination of effort between the two programs might be achieved.[117]

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[117] Ibid., 53.

The Commission then recommended that the State Board of Education retain control of those area vocational-technical schools that already existed and were planned to be built. The Board of Regents should remain in control of the junior and community colleges already in existence or planned for construction. Finally, in areas where an area vocational-technical school and a junior college existed together a memorandum of agreement should be developed about the limits of the curricular offerings in the co-existing institutions. In addition, the State Board of Education and the Board of Regents were urged to come up with a plan of cooperation and that no area vocational-technical school or junior college be established until a cooperative agreement could be created.

The report of the Governor's Commission to Improve Education was widely publicized and endorsed by politicians, educators, and administrators. The most significant outcome of the report for the area vocational-technical schools was the creation of the Georgia Educational Improvement Council that was charged with planning educational initiatives. It was also a forum for interagency cooperation. The Council included representatives of the State Board of Education, the Board of Regents, the General Assembly, and private enterprise.[118]

In the second important report, the Board of Regents commissioned its own study of the State's junior colleges in 1964. One of the premises of the study was the acceptance of community colleges as comprehensive postsecondary institutions.

The nation as a whole in the early 1960s was suffering from a stressful period of high youth unemployment, a critical shortage of technicians and skilled workers, and the need to retrain workers to adapt to new technologies. President John F. Kennedy, in an address before Congress, called for a reexamination of existing vocational and adult education legislation with an eye on improving the overall state of vocational training in the United States.

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[118] Cameron Fincher and others, *Higher Education in Georgia--Assessment, Evaluation, and Accreditation: Proceedings of the Conference, January 15-16, 1986* (Athens, GA: Institute of Higher Education University of Georgia, 1986), 60.

Support for this emphasis on vocational and adult education was strong in Georgia ad throughout the South. James C. Cobb describes the need for increased vocational education that was being felt across the South:

> Although more stress on vocational training at the secondary level was important, there was need for greater emphasis on more specialized postsecondary preparation that could be offered only by an expanded system of technical schools and junior colleges. All of the southern states had such institutions, but in 1960 none had enough of them to provide the needed support if the state pursued a comprehensive program designed to attract skill-related manufacturing plants to all parts of the state.[119]

President Kennedy called together a White House Panel of Consultants on Vocational Education. The Panel's task was to make a study of the state of vocational education and recommend policy and legislation to support it.

The Panel of Consultants on Vocational Education put together its recommendations to the President and key legislators. Their work culminated in the most expansive and influential of all the federal acts dealing with vocational and technical education in the 1960s, the Vocational Education Act of 1963, sponsored by Representative Carl D. Perkins of Kentucky and Senator Wayne Morse of Oregon. M. D. Mobley and the American Vocational Association heavily influenced the Act. Mobley had worked on vocational education legislation before but would become most identified with the Vocational Education Act of 1963. Representative Perkins said, "Particularly was he helpful in pointing out the great needs of vocational education—which was indispensable in fashioning the Vocational Education Act of 1963." [120]

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[119] James C. Cobb, *The Selling of the South: The Southern Crusade for Industrial Development, 1936-1990* (Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press, 1993), 165-166., 165-166.

[120] As quoted in Barlow, Burkett, and Hoelscher, *The Legacy of M. D. Mobley and Vocational Education*, 51.

The Act would have a far-reaching impact on the direction of vocational-technical education in Georgia.

The Vocational Education Act established a permanent program of federal assistance for vocational education. The Perkins-Morse Act did not allocate funds by type of occupational or vocational training and it allowed the state boards to determine whether the vocational education took place at the secondary level, postsecondary level, or any other combination.[121] The purpose of the Perkins-Morse was set out in Part A, Section I of the Act:

> It is the purpose of this part to authorize Federal grants to States to assist them to maintain, extend and improve existing programs of vocational education, to develop new programs of vocational education, and to provide part-time employment for youths who need the earnings from such employment to continue their vocational training on a full-time basis, so that persons of all ages in all communities of the State—those in high school, those who have completed or discontinued their formal education and are preparing to enter the labor market, those who have already entered the labor market but need to upgrade their skills or learn new ones, and those with special education handicaps—will have ready access to vocational training or retraining which is of high quality, which is realistic in the light of actual or anticipated opportunities for gainful employment, and which is suited to their needs, interest, and ability to benefit from such training.[122]

The provision for funding the construction of area vocational education schools was particularly influential in the rapid construction of area vocational-technical schools in Georgia throughout the 1960s. Georgia had already demonstrated a record of taking advantage of the federal funding for vocational-technical education. The effect of this act on Georgia was that the pace of establishing the area vocational-technical schools increased rapidly with the infusion of

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[121] Mobley.

[122] As quoted from M. D. Mobley, "A Review of Federal Vocational-Technical Legislation 1862-1963," *Theory into Practice* 3, no. 5 (1964).

new funds from the federal government. Nineteen vocational-technical schools were founded in the 1960s.

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 defined vocational education schools as either a specialized high school or department of a high school used principally for the provision of vocational education to persons who are available for full-time study in preparation for entering the labor market. The act also provided money for technical or vocational schools providing vocational education and training for students who have already completed secondary education or dropped out and wished to gain skills for entering the labor market. Any department or division of a junior or community college that provided vocational education was also eligible for federal funds as long as the education did not lead to a baccalaureate degree.[123]

M. D. Mobley passed away in 1967 still Executive Secretary of the American Vocational Association (now the Association of Career and Technical Education). His influence on national vocational education policy was great, and his influence on the direction of vocational-technical education in Georgia was even greater. The Vocational Education Act of 1963 is his largest legacy.

Adult education became more prominent as part of Lyndon Johnson's Great Society movement in the 1960s. The Adult Education Act of 1966 moved the Adult Basic Education Program to the Office of Education and provided appropriations for the states to conduct adult basic and secondary-level programs for anyone at least eighteen years old.[124]

Adult education programs in Georgia first developed in the local schools with evening basic literacy education. Through the late 1960s and the early 1970s, the adult basic

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[123] Angela M. Giordano-Evans and Library of Congress Congressional Research Service, *A History of Federal Vocational Education Legislation in the Twentieth Century* (Washington, DC: Congressional Research Service Library of Congress, 1975).

[124] Harold W. Stubblefield and Patrick Keane, *Adult Education in the American Experience: From the Colonial Period to the Present*, 1st ed., The Jossey-Bass Higher and Adult Education Series (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1994).

education programs moved to the area vocational-technical institutes. Adult basic education became a part of the vocational-technical area school's mission. The only part left of the mission was the economic development component.

The U. S. Department of Education was not the only federal agency to receive funds in order to start programs in vocational and adult education. The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 provided funds to develop training programs for underemployed and unemployed individuals to get job training. Existing state agencies for vocational education managed the distribution of the money. Many of the programs were developed in states that already had area vocational-technical schools The Manpower Development and Training Act provided the first funds specifically for adult education and economic development.

The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 strengthened and supplemented existing legislation by expanding job-training programs. The programs included in the act were a Job Corps that prepared young men and women between sixteen and twenty years old with residential training including citizenship skills, work training programs that provided those between sixteen and twenty-one with work-study opportunities, and work-study program for low-income and special needs students.

The Manpower and Economic Development Acts were part of a larger movement to provide specific job training opportunities to those in need and job retraining for those displaced by changes in the economy and technological advancement. In Georgia, this economic development movement took the form of the Georgia QuickStart Program.

The QuickStart Program started on an experimental basis in 1967 and was authorized by legislation in 1968. A newly established Industries Services Advisory Committee worked with local boards of education, the area vocational-technical schools, and the federal programs

from the U.S. Department of Labor to provide work skills training for industries locating in Georgia.[125]

QuickStart provided employers with training needs analysis, detailed and customized training plans, instructional materials, training program delivery on or near the work site, and ongoing post employment training programs. The QuickStart program also provided for recruitment of qualified workers with local employment offices and pre-employment screening. QuickStart set a pattern of the area vocational-technical schools as an integral part of economic development. It also set economic development as a major part of the mission of vocational-technical education in Georgia. The mission for the current technical college system in Georgia was complete by the early 1970s.

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 was a great step forward in federal funding and support for vocational-technical education. However, in many ways, it was only an extension and supplement to legislation that had gone as far back as the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. There was a need to overhaul the patchwork legislation that authorized federal funding for vocational-technical education. Congress rewrote the Vocational Education Act of 1963 in order to eliminate duplication of effort and improve administrative efficiency. The Vocational Amendments of 1968 changed the direction and emphasis of vocational-technical education funding.[126]

The major changes of the Vocational Amendments of 1968 included a new emphasis on vocational-technical education in postsecondary schools, a broadened definition of vocational education to include general education goals, and an increase in the opportunities for those with special needs to take advantage of vocational-technical education. The Vocational Amendments

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[125] Breeden, 464. See also Joiner and others, 464.

[126] Albert J. Reindeau, *Promises of the 1968 Vocational Amendments* (Technical Education News, 1969).

of 1968 set the tone for reform and reorganization of vocational-technical education in Georgia during the 1970s.[127]

The 1970s saw a steady growth of the area vocational-technical schools in Georgia. Four technical programs started at Board of Regents schools in Bainbridge, Dalton, Jonesboro, and Brunswick. The rapid growth of postsecondary vocational-technical programs combined with local board control made coordination next to impossible and the state government soon became aware that new organization was needed if the vocational-technical education programs were to be effective in their economic development role.

The election of President Richard Nixon brought new national educational goals. This was especially the case with the burgeoning career education movement. Preparing students for the world of work had been discussed throughout the twentieth century. In 1969, the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education recommended that the national elementary school curriculum be changed to provide opportunities for children to explore the different careers available to them and place less emphasis on purely academic studies. President Nixon's Commissioner of Education Sidney Marland was big proponent of career education from the elementary level through to higher education. Marland applied the name "career education" to his ideas.[128]

Marland and the Nixon administration believed that the emphasis on general education was one of the main causes for dissatisfaction on college campuses in the early 1970s. It was believed that a combination of career education and revised curricula that was linked to an occupation would lessen dissatisfaction and increase employment across the nation. In addition, it was believed that too many students were entering the traditional higher education institutions

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[127] Kevin James Dougherty, "The Politics of Federal Vocational Educational Legislation: 1963-1976," (Washington, DC: National Institute of Education Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1979).

[128] McClure, Chrisman, and Mock, 125-126.

to pursue a baccalaureate degree. The solution was to increase opportunities to attend junior colleges, community colleges, and postsecondary technical schools.[129] This new direction in federal education planning was a major turning point in the progression of Georgia technical schools toward the postsecondary technical institute model.

The new career education policies were a major part of the Educational Amendments of 1972. The definition of higher education now included trade and technical schools and "other postsecondary institutes" as part of the official term. The definition allowed the area vocational-technical schools in Georgia to take on a new importance. Before the Educational Amendments of 1972, area schools were just alternatives to traditional secondary education. Now the area schools would take on the mantle of technical institutes and focus on postsecondary education. The changes would be gradual and take incremental steps in legislation and funding, but the shift had begun with these amendments.

The Georgia Chamber of Commerce sponsored a series of leadership conferences on occupational training in Georgia during 1969 and 1970. The leadership conferences were successful and sparked an interest in an annual award that would highlight vocational-technical students across the state. A committee of area vocational-technical school directors developed a design for the award program and the Georgia Occupational Award for Leadership (GOAL) started with the support of the Georgia Chamber of Commerce in 1971.

GOAL programs started at each of the twenty-five area vocational-technical schools in the state at the time. A panel representing leaders in business and industry, news media, and state government was set up to review the nominees and choose a state winner. The GOAL program committee chooses a winner each year. The GOAL winner represents technical education at events across the state and receives prizes donated by Georgia businesses.

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[129] Joel H. Spring "In Service to the State" in John W. Sommer, *The Academy in Crisis: The Political Economy of Higher Education* (New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Publishers, 1995), 61-62.

Soon after the Junior College Act of 1958, Brunswick College was founded as a junior college in 1961 serving Coastal Georgia from just south of Savannah to the Florida border. Glynn County and the City of Brunswick provide over half the land for the new institution. In 1964, the first classes at the new school started. In 1965, the name of the college changed to Brunswick Junior College. The mission of Brunswick Junior College was to provide transferable sub-baccalaureate programs to students in its service area.

Brunswick Junior College had a tradition of providing lifelong learning and continuing education classes in the coastal region. In 1972, Brunswick became the pilot institution for an expansion of the lifelong learning and continuing education programs to expand and offer vocational-technical programs similar to the area vocational-technical schools. The new expanded programs would be run by the Board of Education and would be the first career programs on a Board of Regents campus. Brunswick Junior College was renamed Brunswick College in the mid-1980s and is now Coastal Georgia Community College. The technical programs still exist and are under the oversight of the Department of Technical and Adult Education.

Bainbridge College in Decatur County, Georgia was established in 1972 and started a Division of Vocational-Technical Education soon after the first pilot project at Brunswick. Dalton Junior College was founded in 1963 and added a vocational-technical program under the Board of Education in the mid-1970s. Dalton Junior College is now Dalton State College. Clayton Junior College in Jonesboro was authorized in 1967 and held its first classes in 1968. Clayton added a Board of Education vocational-technical program in the mid-1970s. Clayton Junior College is now Clayton College and State University.

In 1973, Governor Jimmy Carter formed a committee to develop recommendations for the Adequate Program for Education in Georgia (APEG). The study produced by the Committee looked at thirty-seven subjects under three major divisions. Some of the major recommendations that came from this study dealt with adult and vocational education. The

committee recommended that the state provide all persons age sixteen and over the opportunity to develop competence in basic skills equivalent to an eighth grade education. In addition, all unemployed or underemployed persons age twenty-six and over should be given the opportunity to develop occupational skills or advanced technical training required for satisfactory employment. The committee recommended that all adult education—basic, vocational, developmental, avocational, and recreational—integrate into a comprehensive educational program as soon as possible.

By 1971 there were twenty-five area vocational-technical schools established under the original authorization of 1958. These schools had taken on most of the programs that are part of the current technical college system. All twenty-five had terminal career oriented programs, basic adult education courses, continuing education programs, the QuickStart industrial training program, and other economic development programs.

Table 4: Area Vocational-Technical Schools in 1971

School Name	Location	Year Founded
Savannah Area Vocational-Technical	Savannah	1929 (1967)
North Georgia Area Vocational-Technical	Clarkesville	1944
Atlanta Area Vocational-Technical	Atlanta	1945
South Georgia Area Vocational-Technical	Americus	1948
Albany Area Vocational-Technical	Albany	1961
Augusta Area Vocational-Technical	Augusta	1961
Chattahoochee Area Vocational-Technical	Marietta	1961
Columbus Area Vocational-Technical	Columbus	1961
DeKalb Area Vocational-Technical	Clarkston	1961
Macon Area Vocational-Technical	Macon	1962
Coosa Valley Area Vocational-Technical	Rome	1962
Flint River Area Vocational-Technical	Thomaston	1963
Griffin Area Vocational-Technical	Griffin	1963
Southwest Georgia Area Vocational-Technical	Thomasville	1963
Swainsboro Area Vocational-Technical	Swainsboro	1963
Valdosta Area Vocational-Technical	Valdosta	1963
Lanier Area Vocational-Technical	Oakwood	1964
Moultrie Area Vocational-Technical	Moultrie	1964
Walker County Area Vocational-Technical	Rock Spring	1964
Athens Area Vocational-Technical	Athens	1965
Okefenokee Area Vocational-Technical	Waycross	1965
West Georgia Area Vocational-Technical	LaGrange	1966
Appalachian Area Vocational-Technical	Jasper	1967
West Central Area Vocational-Technical	Waco	1968
East Central Area Vocational-Technical	Fitzgerald	1970

The 1970s was a period of stabilization as well as a period of definition of mission for postsecondary vocational-technical education in Georgia. Other than the four experiments in community college vocational-technical programs, only Middle Georgia Area Vocational-Technical School in Warner-Robbins, Georgia was built in 1974.

However, during this period some of the major characteristics of the current technical college system were put in place: adult basic education programs moved to the area vocational technical schools, economic development programs including the QuickStart program were established, and the strict non-academic nature of the vocational-technical programs was solidified. The most important idea from the 1970s for vocational-technical education in Georgia

was the gradual transformation of the mission from primarily a secondary education alternative to postsecondary technical institutes.

CHAPTER 4
TRANSFORMATION OF GEORGIA'S TECHNICAL INSTITUTES INTO TECHNICAL COLLEGES

In the period between 1950 and 1983, the gross state product (measured in 1972 dollars) of Georgia increased from eight billion dollars to thirty-four billion dollars. This unprecedented economic expansion changed the character and culture of the entire state. As part of the new Sunbelt South, Georgia moved from an agriculturally based economy to an industrialized economy anchored by the major urban center of Atlanta.[130]

Education at all levels was a great concern of Georgia's political leaders and its population in general. Despite a large percentage of the state government budget going to education, Georgia remained behind the rest of the nation in literacy, educational attainment, and graduation rates in the 1980 census. Economic development was still a singular concern of Georgia's governors and vocational-technical education seemed to be a solution to the increasingly technically-driven world. The emergence of the personal computer in the late 1970s and early 1980s and the pressure from foreign manufacturing especially from Japan showed that the old industrial education would not be sufficient in the 1980s.

In 1981, the Governor's Committee on Postsecondary Education conducted a full survey and assessment of all available postsecondary institutions in the state. The institutions were classified by institutional control, level, and type. There were 340 postsecondary institutions, the survey found postsecondary programs in all regions of the state, and that the institutions were diverse. The Committee concluded that there were important high technology programs that were not offered in the state, many of those programs and their institutions were related to new industrial and computer technologies which were in demand by Georgia

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[130] Coleman, 354.

industries. The nature of economic development was changing in Georgia and the technical institutes were to have new importance to state government. [131]

The Governor's Committee on Postsecondary Education had recommended a new structure for vocational education in Georgia in a 1982 report entitled *Maintaining Progress in Georgia Postsecondary Education: Recommendations for Today, Concerns for Tomorrow*. In 1983, Governor Joe Frank Harris established the Vocational Education Task Force to do a study on new ways to govern vocational education that would not involve an independent state agency or a new constitutional amendment. Based on the recommendation of the Task Force, Governor Harris signed an executive order creating the State Board of Postsecondary Vocational Education in 1984. The State Board of Education and Board of Regents officially delegated all vocational education responsibility to the new Board. [132]

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 was renamed after Carl D. Perkins in 1984. The Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 extended the ideas of the original Vocational Education Act of 1963, but allowed for more flexibility in how the states could use these funds. The Perkins Act supported programs that would strengthen the integration of academic and technical education while serving as a catalyst for change and improvement in technical education.

The increased recognition of special populations became a centerpiece of the Perkins Act of 1984. Special populations included individuals with disabilities, economically

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[131] Georgia Governor's Committee on Postsecondary Education, *Georgia Postsecondary Education: An Assessment of Achievement of Statewide Goals and Objectives. Assessment Report on Diversity and Geographic Availability of Postsecondary Programs and Institutions (Objectives 2a and 2c)* (Atlanta, GA: Governor's Committee on Postsecondary Education, 1981).

[132] Governor's Committee on Postsecondary Education, *Maintaining Progress in Georgia Postsecondary Education: Recommendations for Today, Concerns for Tomorrow.* (Atlanta, GA: State of Georgia, 1982).

disadvantaged individuals, single parents and homemakers, and incarcerated individuals. Melvin D. Miller described the impact of the new emphasis on special populations in the Perkins Act:

> Clearly, the idea that vocational education could address the needs of special populations had to be accepted as a compliment by the field. Furthermore, to recognize that there were groups of individuals who were not being adequately served by the nation's schools was a harsh reminder of the early battles required to establish vocational education as a part of public education in America.[133]

Programs under the Perkins Act were required to develop a strong accountability system that ensured quality while providing access to career and technical education for special populations. All of these activities were included in the mission of the new State Board of Vocational Education.

Under the Perkins Act of 1984, states receiving funds were required to develop measures of program effectiveness. The technical institutes in Georgia had always based program and curriculum development on local needs. The Perkins Act of 1984 mandated that the effective measures were related to the labor market of the state, the level of skills to be achieved, and the basic competencies needed to meet the needs of employers. The system of technical institutes that had been developing over the 1960s and 1970s would be able to act as the agent for complying with the provisions in the Perkins Act of 1984. The stage was set for separating the vocational-technical schools and technical institutes from local school board and Department of Education control and placing them under the direction of a new board and new state government department.

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[133] Melvin D. Miller, "Policy Issue Perspectives" in Albert J. Pautler and Melvin L. Barlow, *Vocational Education in the 1990s: Major Issues* (Ann Arbor, MI: Prakken Publications, 1990), 30.

The State Board of Vocational Education was given the responsibility to distribute the Perkins Act funds throughout the state as part of the Quality Basic Education Act of 1985.[134] This gave the locally controlled vocational-technical schools a strong incentive to come under centralized state control.

The first four of the vocational-technical schools (Athens, Columbus, Heart of Georgia, and Middle Georgia) to transfer control became part of the state system in 1986. The next year a set of detailed guidelines on transferring control was established. Seven more schools (Appalachian, Augusta, Coosa Valley, Griffin, Swainsboro, West Central and West Georgia) transferred control to the state board.

The vocational-technical schools that transferred control also changed their names to technical institutes. This name change was significant because of the mission of the new technical institutes as postsecondary institutions. The technical institutes still did not offer the associate's degree, however, most of the new technical institutes began to set up cooperative agreements with local Board of Regents institutions to offer associate degree programs on their campuses or articulation agreements for completing the core requirements on the Board of Regents campus.

The current Department of Technical and Adult Education was established in 1988 by state law.[135] The Department of Education's Office of Adult Literacy moved to be a part of DTAE that same year. Dr. Kenneth Breeden became the first Commissioner of the Department of Technical and Adult Education. For the first time, workforce development in Georgia was under one consolidated state agency. All workforce development activities including adult literacy, technical education, and economic development were part of a system of postsecondary

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[134] See "Acts and Resolutions of the General Assembly of the State of Georgia " (1968).

[135] See "Acts and Resolutions of the General Assembly of the State of Georgia " (1985).

institutions that covered every part of the State of Georgia. This would allow every Georgia citizen to be within driving distance of a technical institute.

Two new technical institutes, Altamaha and North Metro, were established while ten more schools moved to state control (Albany, Chattahoochee, Flint River, Lanier, Moultrie, Northwestern, Ogeechee, Okefenokee, Southwest Georgia, and Valdosta). Central Georgia and Southeastern Technical Institutes came under state control in 1989 followed by East Central Technical Institute in 1990.

Table 5: Georgia Technical Institutes 1990

School Name	Location	Year Founded
Savannah Technical Institute	Savannah	1929 (1967)
North Georgia Technical Institute	Clarkesville	1944
Atlanta Technical Institute	Atlanta	1945
South Georgia Technical Institute	Americus	1948
Albany Technical Institute	Albany	1961
Augusta Technical Institute	Augusta	1961
Chattahoochee Technical Institute	Marietta	1961
Columbus Technical Institute	Columbus	1961
DeKalb Technical Institute (local board)	Clarkston	1961
Macon Technical Institute	Macon	1962
Coosa Valley Technical Institute	Rome	1962
Flint River Technical Institute	Thomaston	1963
Griffin Technical Institute	Griffin	1963
Southwest Georgia Technical Institute	Thomasville	1963
Swainsboro Technical Institute	Swainsboro	1963
Valdosta Technical Institute	Valdosta	1963
Lanier Technical Institute	Oakwood	1964
Moultrie Technical Institute	Moultrie	1964
Walker Technical Institute	Rock Spring	1964
Athens Technical Institute	Athens	1965
Okefenokee Technical Institute	Waycross	1965
West Georgia Technical Institute	LaGrange	1966
Appalachian Technical Institute	Jasper	1967
West Central Technical Institute	Waco	1968
East Central Technical Institute	Fitzgerald	1970
Gwinnet Technical Institute	Lawrenceville	1984
North Metro Technical Institute	Acworth	1988
Altamaha Technical Institute	Jesup	1988

Southeastern Technical Institute	Vidalia	1989

The Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Education Act of 1990 (Perkins II) reaffirmed the 1984 Perkins Act and extended the government mandates while authorizing the largest amount of funds ever allocated for vocational education. The major difference between the 1990 and 1984 Perkins Acts was in the area of vocational education opportunities for the disadvantaged and special needs populations. The Perkins II added basic grants to improve programs in eleven areas: 1) Tech Prep, 2) Supplementary Grants for Facilities and Equipment, 3) Consumer/homemaking education, 4) Career guidance and counseling, 5) Community-based education, 6) Bilingual vocational education, 7) Business/labor Partnerships, 8) Community education and lighthouse schools, 9) State councils on vocational education, 10) Postsecondary institutions in tribal areas, and 11)The National Council on Vocational Education.

One result of Perkins II was the establishment of the Georgia Council on Vocational Education. The Council was an independent agency strictly responsible for assessment, evaluation, and advisement in the area of vocational and technical education at the secondary and postsecondary level. It acted as the main planning agency for DTAE and the technical institutes. Working with the Perkins Act mandates as their guide the Council on Vocational Education produced many planning documents for use across the state at the secondary and postsecondary level.[136] In 1992, the Georgia Council on Vocational Education produced a report on their strategic plan for 1992-1994. One of those objectives was to facilitate articulation efforts among the State Department of Education, the Department of Technical and Adult Education, the Board of Regents, the Department of Corrections, and business and industry .

Perkins II introduced funding for a new type of cooperative arrangement between secondary and higher education. By 1990, there was a major decline in vocational programs at the high school level. Secondary education policies of the 1980s emphasized increased academic

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[136] GSCOVE, "Strategic Planning 1992-1994," ed. Georgia State Council on Vocational Education (1994).

subject preparation and funds at the federal and state level earmarked for traditional college preparatory courses. The concept of cooperation between secondary and higher education institutions in providing technical education was discussed during an American Vocational Association Workshop Symposium in 1983.[137] Dale Parnell originally coined the phrase "Technical Preparation," commonly known as Tech Prep, in his book *The Neglected Majority*. Parnell introduced the 2+2 Tech Prep/Associate Degree program. In the 2+2 program, instructors teach technical courses from postsecondary technical schools at the junior and senior level in high school. Those classes are then credited toward an associate's degree completed at the technical institute or technical college.[138]

The Tech Prep initiative was specified under Titles II and III of Perkins II. Tech Prep under Perkins II was designed to create consortiums consisting of high schools and postsecondary technical institutions. Each consortium was to have an articulation agreement between the participants. The programs were to consist of two years of secondary school preceding graduation and two years of higher education, or an apprenticeship of at least two years following secondary instruction, with a common core of required proficiency in math, science, communications, and technologies designed to lead to an associate degree or certificate in a specific career field. The consortiums also included the development of Tech Prep program curricula appropriate to the needs of consortium participants. Included with the Tech Prep programs was in-service training for teachers. It was designed to train teachers to implement the program. The Tech-Prep program also provided joint training for all consortium members with

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[137] Gene Bottoms, *Redesigning and Refocusing High School Vocational Studies: Blending Academic and Vocational Education, Connecting the School Site to the Worksite, and Linking Secondary and Postsecondary Education* (Atlanta, GA: Southern Regional Education Board, 1993).

[138] Dale Parnell, *The Neglected Majority* (Washington, DC: Community College Press, 1985).

the training on weekends and evenings and in summer workshops. Tech-Prep also trained counselors to enable them to counsel students more effectively.

In addition, the Tech Prep consortiums actively recruited students, ensured that students completed the program and placed students in appropriate employment after completion. Tech Prep programs provided full and equal access to the full range of services to individuals who were members of special populations. Each consortium was to provide for the development of Tech Prep services appropriate to the needs of such individuals and provide for preparatory services that assist all participants in such programs.[139] Tech Prep under Perkins II came at a time when the technical institutes were pursuing regional accreditation and starting to offer terminal program associate's degrees.

In 1990, Zell Miller, a former lieutenant governor from Young Harris, Georgia, ran for governor on a ticket that included a promise of a Georgia lottery similar to neighboring Florida. Miller believed that the money from a new lottery should primarily support education in Georgia. Zell Miller won the gubernatorial election and took office in 1991. One of his first acts was to introduce an amendment to the Georgia Constitution allowing for a statewide lottery. The resolution passed through the General Assembly and passed in a general referendum in 1992. Georgia joined thirty-two other states that funded a lottery with the first Georgia Lottery Commission established in late 1992.[140]

The Georgia Lottery for Education Act specified that all lottery proceeds were to be used for financial assistance for Georgia students at the state's public and private colleges, universities and technical institutes; voluntary pre-kindergarten for four-year olds; and capital

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[139] Congress United States., *An Act to Amend the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act to Improve the Provision of Services under Such Act and to Extend the Authorities Contained in Such Act Throughout the Fiscal Year 1995 and for Other Purposes* (Washington, DC: United States Government Printing Office, 1990).

[140] See Richard Hyatt, *Zell: The Governor Who Gave Georgia Hope* (Macon, GA: Mercer University Press, 1997).

outlay for educational technology and facilities. The two main educational programs that were funded by the Georgia Lottery were a voluntary pre-kindergarten program for four-year olds and a scholarship and grant program named Helping Outstanding Students Educationally or HOPE.

The HOPE Grant fundamentally changed the way that Georgians would finance their higher education tuition. Most scholarship programs at the state and federal level were based on financial need. Even funding from federal legislation for education was a need-based system. HOPE was designed as a merit-based scholarship system. Governor Miller described the philosophy behind the HOPE Grant:

> The American Dream has always been that if you work hard and play by the rules, you can go places, you can be somebody. That's what the HOPE Scholarship Program is about…It's about giving young students an incentive to study and work hard in school, by rewarding their achievement with a chance to get the education they need for the jobs of tomorrow.[141]

Under HOPE, any student who enrolled in a degree program as an entering freshman at a Georgia institution of higher education would receive a scholarship if that student met specific conditions. The student must be a legal resident of Georgia, must have graduated in 1993 or later graduate from an eligible high school, and must have earned at least a 3.0 cumulative grade point average on a 4.0 scale meeting the college preparatory track requirements. A student in the technical curriculum track in high school the minimum cumulative grade point average was 3.2 on a 4.0 scale.[142]

For students attending Board of Regents institutions, the scholarship was equal to the cost of tuition, mandatory fees, and one hundred fifty dollars per semester book allowance. All

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[141] As Quoted in Sarah Eby-Ebersole and Georgia Office of Planning and Budget, *Signed, Sealed, and Delivered: Highlights of the Miller Administration* (Macon, GA: Mercer University Press, 1999), 71.

[142] There was an income cap of sixty-six thousand dollars in 1993 and one hundred thousand dollars in 1994. The cap was removed in July 1995.

students had to maintain a 3.0 average each year in order to maintain their scholarship. Students attending Georgia private colleges and universities could receive three thousand dollars per year if they maintained a 3.0 cumulative grade point average. Students who chose to go to Georgia's technical institutes in a certificate or diploma program could receive an amount equal to tuition and mandatory fees and one hundred dollars per quarter book allowance. There was another significant difference between the students receiving fund to attend a Board of Regents school and students receiving funds to attend a technical institute: the latter were not required to have graduated after a specific year and there was no high school cumulative GPA requirement. However, students who entered into technical institute associate degree programs had the same restrictions and opportunities as those who attended Board of Regents institutions. Those students who were not HOPE eligible right out of high school could become eligible if they maintained a 3.0 grade point average after one year. Students who lost their eligibility had a second chance if they achieved a 3.0 grade point average after their sophomore year at college. Georgia students who earned a GED could receive a five hundred dollar HOPE voucher. The academic requirements for HOPE eligibility were set to increase after 2000. Students after 2000 were required to have a 3.0 grade point average in the academic core-curriculum subjects of math, English, social studies, science, and a foreign language.[143]

The HOPE Scholarship Program had a tremendous impact on the operation of the technical institutes, the planning of DTAE, and the direction the technical institutes would take toward the goal of collegiate status. The largest impact that HOPE had on the technical institutes was to spark an increase in enrollment and with that increase a need to hire more faculty and staff to provide services. From 1991 to 2003 the technical institutes under DTAE increased their annual credit enrollment from 51,610 to 153,444. Much of that growth can be attributed to the

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[143] Eby-Ebersole and Budget, 70-73.

HOPE Grant and especially the provision of a grant without grade point average limitation for certificate and diploma programs.

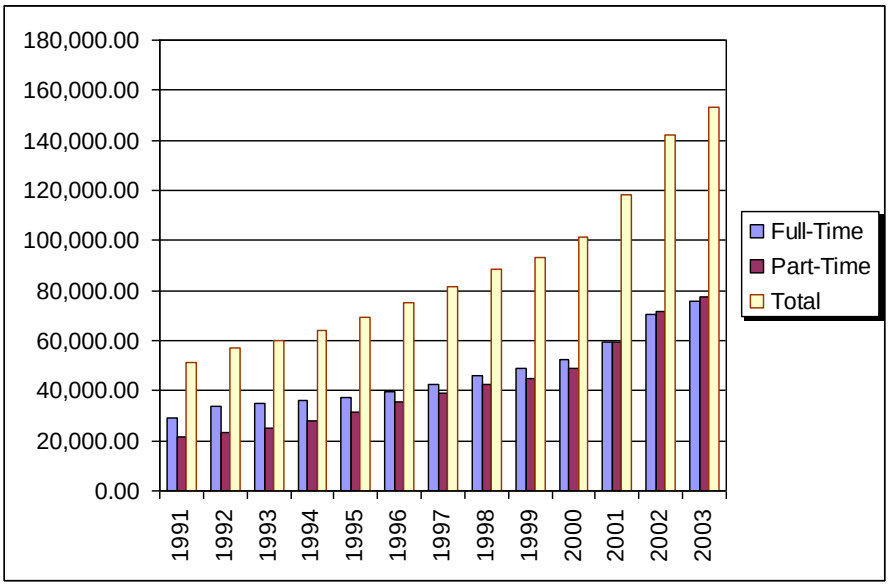

Figure 2: DTAE Annual Credit Enrollment (1991-2003)[144]

Work ethics education came to the attention of vocational and technical educators in the 1970s as part of the growing career education movement. The height of the career education movement was the Career Education Incentive Act of 1977. The Act created an Office of Career Education as part of the U.S. Office of Education (later the Department of Education). [145] Career education became the focus of school reform in the late 1970s. The career education model involved every school and every student in career awareness, career counseling, and work-skills development. Included with the work skills development programs were programs that taught work ethics. Roger Hill defined work ethic in his study of the Georgia Technical College system work ethics program:

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[144] Source Department of Technical and Adult Education Annual Reports (1992-2004)

[145] Kenneth B. Hoyt and Judith Stein, *Career Education: History and Future* (Tulsa, OK: National Career Development Association, 2005).

> Work ethic has been defined in numerous ways but the end result is typically viewed as an honest day's work for a day's pay. A list of behaviors that reflect work ethic might include attendance, character, teamwork, appearance, attitude, productivity, organization, communication, cooperation, and respect. Other definitions of work ethic organize work ethic attributes around initiative, interpersonal skills, and dependability. Regardless of the specific terminology being used, work ethic has to do with workers who arrive to work on time and are ready and willing to work, are able to move from one task to another without constant prodding and supervision, and who function as a responsible team member as work is completed to accomplish the goals of an organization.[146]

The Career Education Incentive Act of 1977 was repealed in 1981 and the Office of Career Education closed. However, the idea of work ethics as part of the vocational-technical curriculum had gained momentum and took hold in the mid-1980s in Georgia. Hill goes on to describe the beginnings of work ethics training in Georgia's technical colleges:

> The initiative to provide formal instruction related to student work ethic in Georgia's technical colleges began in the mid 1980s. The faculty at Valdosta Technical Institute, under the leadership of the school's president, Dr. James A. Bridges, developed and implemented a pilot program to evaluate and monitor student's work-related behaviors. Prior to assuming his leadership role at Valdosta Tech, Dr. Bridges served as vocational supervisor at a large comprehensive high school in Valdosta. It was in this role that he first worked with faculty to develop methods and materials to address work ethic as a part of vocational preparation (personal communication, May 28, 2003).
>
> When Dr. Bridges assumed his responsibilities at Valdosta Tech in 1984, he expected students there would be more focused and that issues related to work ethic would not be a problem. Instead he discovered that the faculty was struggling with student attendance and other work ethic related issues, and that advisory committee members for Valdosta Tech would also be supportive of efforts to encourage a stronger work ethic in students. Dr. Bridges presented

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[146] Roger Hill, *Key Attributes of Georgia Technical College Work Ethic Instruction* (Athens, GA: University of Georgia and Georgia Department of Technical and Adult Education, 2003), 1.

> the program that had been used in the high school vocational programs, and several of the Valdosta Tech faculty agreed to adapt and implement it in their classes. Soon after, the entire faculty began including a work ethic component in their courses. As Dr. Bridges interacted with leadership from other institutes, interest was generated in what was being done. Several other schools adopted the program, and materials and instructional strategies were shared. The need for work ethic instruction and the importance of helping students develop associated work habits was universally needed.[147]

The Valdosta Technical Institute program was recognized as an important development in vocational-technical education in Georgia and through the late 1980s other technical institutes became interested. Work ethics training got the attention of DTAE Commissioner Kenneth H. Breeden and a pilot project was developed in 1989 to look at the possibility of including work ethics in the curriculum of all technical institutes in Georgia. Twenty technical institutes participated and the project extended through to the summer of 1990.[148]

The project was deemed a success and a regular program of Work Ethics across the curriculum was launched in 1991. The unique part of the work ethics program is the work ethics grade that is given alongside the regular academic course grade. The instructor uses a Work Ethics Evaluation Form and assigns a work ethics grade on a scale of 0 to 3. The work ethics grade does not affect the quarterly or cumulative grade point average of the student, but it does get recorded in the student's academic transcript. The work ethics grades are assigned as follows:

3—Exceeds Expectations: Work ethics performance was exemplary.

2—Meets Expectations: All work ethics standards were met.

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[147] Ibid., 2-3.

[148] Georgia Department of Technical and Adult Education, *History of Georgia's Work Ethics Program* (Atlanta, GA: Georgia Department of Technical and Adult Education, 2000).

1—Needs Improvement: Some work ethics standards were not met.

0—Unacceptable: Work ethics performance was below average.

The work ethics standards evaluated are those considered desirable by employers including attendance, attitude, productivity, organizational skills, communications, cooperation, and respect. There have been numerous articles in business magazines and scholarly journals about the Work Ethics Program. DTAE provides an extensive Work Ethics Manual that contains descriptions of the work ethics that are to be incorporated into the course curriculum and examples of activities that instructors can use in the classroom.

In 1989, Commissioner Breeden and the DTAE introduced the guarantee and warranty system. DTAE programs were designed to with the input of local business and industry to make sure that graduates fit the Georgia economic development needs and ensure that the students were employable. The guarantee and warranty was intended to show confidence and a commitment to high quality technical training at DTAE schools:

> Curriculum standards have been developed with direct involvement of business and industry. These standards serve as the industry-validated specifications for each occupational program. These standards allow the Georgia system of technical colleges to offer their business and industry partners this guarantee:
>
> "If one of our graduates educated under a standard program or his/her employer finds that the graduate is deficient in one or more competencies as defined in the standards, the technical college will retrain the employee at no instructional cost to the employee or the employer."
>
> This guarantee is in effect for a period of two years after graduation.[149]

The DTAE warranty ensures that if the graduate does not have the skills necessary or further training is necessary the student will be retrained at no cost:

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[149] See http://www.dtae.org/guarantee.html (accessed December 3, 2006)

1. This warranty guarantees that the graduate has demonstrated the knowledge and skills and can perform each competency as identified in the industry-validated Standard and Program Guide, and any program graduate who is determined to lack such competence shall be retrained at no cost to the employer or employee for tuition or instructional fees.
2. Any claim against the warranty will be based upon an agreement between the employer and the technical college graduate that the individual cannot perform one or more of the competencies contained in the industry-validated Standards or Program Guide.
3. This warranty is included as a part of the original tuition at all state colleges in Georgia and is applicable to graduates of any degree, diploma, or certificate program who entered the program subsequent to the mandated standards implementation date.
4. The warranty will remain in effect for two consecutive years following the date of graduation and will be honored by any state college which offers the same program.
5. This warranty shall be issued in writing to each graduate who enters a program subsequent to the mandated standards implementation date beginning in the fall quarter, 1989.[150]

The DTAE guarantee and warranty system is little studied. There is no evidence that the guarantee and warranty have an impact on the employability or number of employment opportunities for DTAE graduates. The guarantee and warranty policies do show the importance of economic development to the technical institutes and their mission.

During the 1960s, three types of non-traditional postsecondary institutions grew: 1) comprehensive community college, 2) degree-granting technical institutes, and 3) non-degree granting vocational-technical schools. The problem of how to accredit or even whether to accredit these new postsecondary institutions was a hot topic of discussion during the 1960s. In 1971, the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS) established the Commission on Occupational Education Institutions (COEI). Before the new COEI was established, the unwritten rule for admission as a collegiate institution into SACS was a basic liberal arts curriculum and at least eight major degree programs. The purpose of the COEI was to accredit

[150] See http://www.ogeecheetech.edu/about_otc/dtae_guarantee.html (accessed December 3, 2006)

postsecondary vocational and technical institutions that offered certificates and diplomas, but not degrees.[151]

Felix Robb, former President of George Peabody College for Teachers took the post of executive director of the Southern Association in 1966. Robb was a strong advocate of including postsecondary occupational education into the mainstream of collegiate education. Robb believed that it was "clearly in the national interest for occupational education to be vastly improved in its quality, availability, and image at every level—from the elementary school through the highest graduate program."[152] Vocational, technical, and occupational education at the postsecondary level has a tough time gaining acceptance among the member colleges of SACS.

Most of the area vocational-technical schools had applied for accreditation from SACS initially as secondary institutions because that was the only option for their type of school. The new Commission on Occupational Education Institutions was an acknowledgement from SACS that there was a need for a new category of postsecondary vocational-technical institution.

There were few units of regional accrediting agencies comparable to the COEI. One prominent example was the Committee on Career and Technical Institutions of the New England Association of Colleges and Schools. The Committee on Career and Technical Institutions developed similar criteria as the COEI and accredited similar institutions in the New England states. COEI accreditation was an important goal for Georgia technical institutes through the late 1980s and early 1990s. It was through the accreditation process that the technical institutes could negotiate with Board of Regents institutions on the transfer of basic courses and the development of regional articulation agreements.

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[151] James D. Miller and Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, *A Centennial History of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, 1895-1995* (Decatur, GA: Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, 1998), 260-264.

[152] Ibid., 260.

In the early 1990s, the technical institutes were postsecondary yet non-degree granting schools. Prior to the founding of DTAE, most of the area-vocational technical schools worked out local articulation agreements with Board of Regents or private colleges. After the creation of DTAE, there was a wholesale change in the names of the area vocational-technical schools to technical institutes. The name change came with the awarding of the Associate of Applied Technology degree (AAT) by the technical institutes. The AAT degree did not require any liberal arts and science courses, but instead required a technical core that included basic college algebra or technical mathematics, English, speech, and a computer proficiency course. The degree was a terminal technical degree and very few courses would transfer without a separate institutional agreement.

The accreditation picture changed in 1994 when the COEI separated from SACS to become a national accrediting agency called the Council on Occupational Education. The terminal AAT degree offered challenges to SACS and other regional accrediting agencies. The AAT degree was not transferable and the COEI was not originally set up to accredit associate degree-granting institutions. COEI needed to broaden its focus or the technical institutes would have to meet the SACS standards of a community college or junior college under the Commission on Colleges under SACS.

The core of the dispute between SACS and the COEI was a basic philosophical difference on the role of business and industry in higher education. The COEI cultivated its relationship with business and industry. Many in SACS were worried about the encroachment of "commercialism" into higher education. They feared the gradual loss of the liberal arts mission and believed that SACS had accommodated occupational education goals for far too long. The bylaws of the COEI under SACS restricted the COEI from accrediting institutions that granted

degrees. Institutions without an academic core could not be admitted into the Commission on Colleges. Georgia technical institutes were in an increasingly difficult position.[153]

The COEI broadened its focus because no national agency existed to serve degree-granting postsecondary institutions dedicated to vocational, technical, or occupational education. By branching out the COEI would fill a void by serving schools throughout the country. Changes in federal regulations forced may private schools to find an accrediting agency that would accommodate a postsecondary vocational-technical curriculum. A whole sector of postsecondary institutions was ill served by the accreditation agencies and the new Council on Occupational Education would keep many schools from having to close.

While the COEI was separating itself from SACS to become the Council on Occupational Education (COE), SACS was developing controversial new rules about acceptance of credit between institutions. Soon after the separation of the COEI from SACS and the creation of the COE, SACS changed its rules on acceptance of credits by member institutions.

The new rules prohibited SACS accredited colleges and universities from accepting credit from those schools whose accreditation was not issued by SACS or another regional accrediting agency that was part of the Council on Postsecondary Accreditation, a private group of regional accreditation agencies. This effectively barred transfer of credits from institutions accredited by national accrediting agencies such as the new COE as well as the Accrediting Commission of Career Schools and Colleges of Technology and the Accrediting Council for Independent Colleges and Schools.

The new rules on the transfer of credits from non-regional accrediting agencies were unique to SACS. The position of SACS was that the COE institutions did not have the same strict requirements for their faculty and courses as SACS accredited institutions. Therefore, it was within the right of SACS to refuse equivalent credit to students from COE institutions. The

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[153] Ibid., 284-285.

Justice Department saw another motivation as well for the Southern Association's policy change: punishing the Council for Occupational Education. SACS officials denied that they changed their policy in retribution for the council's defection.[154]

In 1995, the U. S. Department of Education's National Advisory Committee on Institutional Quality and Integrity began to question the SACS policy on transfer credits. The U.S. Department of Justice reviewed the transfer credits policy in 1998 after complaints from colleges accredited by the barred agencies. The Justice Department sent a letter to the Department of Education asking that SACS review the policy for possible violation of federal antitrust laws and regulations. SACS changed its policy to allow transfer of credits from all agencies approved by the U. S. Department of Education.

All the technical institutes in Georgia moved their accreditation to the new COE. The terminal AAT degree became the norm for all DTAE schools through the early 1990s. DTAE developed curriculum standards for each AAT degree program as well as for all certificates and diplomas. The new standardized curriculum was a benchmark and not necessarily a restriction on curriculum innovation. In fact, the technical institutes were encouraged to develop new programs that fit local needs. The curriculum would have to be approved by DTAE, but the process was not restrictive to programs that were already developed.

The fight between COE and SACS regarding accreditation and transfer credits had a profound impact on the evolution of the technical institutes into recognized institutions of higher education. There was pressure from the Georgia State government to develop a path of "seamless education" that would allow Georgia students to move from technical education to the Board of Regents schools. The accreditation by COE would not be sufficient to allow the transfer of credits according to SACS rules and, therefore, the technical institutes in Georgia had

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[154] Douglas Lederman, "Justice Department Sees Possible Antitrust Violation in Rules of Southern Accreditor," *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, September 19, 1997.

to decide whether it was in their best interest to stay with COE accreditation alone, have joint COE and SACS/COC accreditation, or have SACS/COC accreditation alone. The result of this situation was the development of the DTAE goal to have all technical institutes (later technical colleges) accredited by SACS/COC whether or not they kept their COE accreditation.

> DTAE has 34 technical colleges; 27 of those have Council on Occupational Education (COE) accreditation; seven have Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS) Commission on Colleges (COC) accreditation, and five have both COE and COC accreditation. To further collaborations, cooperative projects, and affiliations among the technical colleges and other postsecondary institutions, it has been determined that all technical colleges should maintain or add COC accreditation. For some technical colleges obtaining COC accreditation may require a variety of changes, in areas such as faculty and staff credentials and expansion of library facilities and collections. For all technical colleges pursuing COC accreditation, there will be additional paperwork, demands on faculty and staff time to conduct required accreditation procedures, and accreditation fees and associated costs.[155]

The seamless education movement in Georgia was one of the impetuses for change at DTAE planning and institutional development. The cooperation between the DTAE and the Georgia Board of Regents (BOR) came in 1995 with the first calls for "seamless" education. Governor Zell Miller initiated the seamless education initiative. The charge was for a comprehensive and collaborative statewide effort that was to raise the expectations of Georgia students by allowing them to complete an education from preschool through to a four-year degree whether the student was on an academic or vocational-technical path. A P-16 Council was created that would coordinate the program's goals.[156]

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[155] Georgia Department of Technical and Adult Education, *Strategic Plan Fiscal Year 2002 – Fiscal Year 2006: Fiscal Year 2004 Update* (Atlanta, GA: Georgia Department of Technical and Adult Education, 2003).

[156] Georgia Board of Regents and State Board ofr Technical and Adult Education, *A Student-Centered Collaboration for Public Post-Secondary Education in Georgia (Annotated)*

The P-16 Council reported to the Governor and to the heads of the four state education agencies: the University System of Georgia, the Department of Technical and Adult Education, the Office of School Readiness, and the Georgia Professional Standards Commission. In addition to the statewide P-16 Council, fifteen local and regional P-16 councils covered every part of Georgia.[157]

In 2000, Governor Roy Barnes signed into law HB 1187, the A-Plus Reform Act of 2000. The new law contained sweeping reforms of education throughout Georgia. The A-Plus Reform Act was written after the suggestions of Governor Barnes' Education Reform Study Commission. The A-Plus Education Reform Act of 2000 included an Education Coordinating Council that provided a forum for interagency communication regarding educational policy and programs. The Education Coordinating Council provided for the effective and efficient coordination and seamlessness of public education and programs and components within the educational system of Georgia. It also prevented unnecessary duplication of services within the education system of Georgia and reviewed all education accountability programs from pre-kindergarten through postsecondary education in Georgia The Education Coordinating Council was given the following general powers and duties:

1. To foster coordination and cooperation among the chief officers of the departments, boards, and offices represented on the council;
2. To develop a seamless and integrated public education system;

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with Annotations Approved by Board of Regents and State Board of Technical and Adult Education (1995).

[157] Hyatt. See also Donna E. Miller and David M. Morgan, "Georgia: New Partnerships in Postsecondary Education," *Community College Journal of Research and Practice* 21, no. 4 (1997).

3. To require the shared and efficient expenditures for and utilization of facilities, personnel, and other resources;
4. To require the seamless coordination of curriculum among the departments, boards, and offices represented on the Council;
5. To require reasonable ease of transition for students among the educational institutions represented on the Council;
6. To establish and require high and necessary levels of student achievement at all levels of education;
7. To exercise oversight of accountability systems that are within or among the departments, boards, and offices represented on the Council and develop overlay accountability systems through the Office of Education Accountability;
8. To exercise supervision and oversight over the Office of Education Accountability created in Part 2 of Article of this chapter;
9. To coordinate the activities of state, regional, and local cooperative public education agencies, offices, or councils, including, but not limited to, the state's regional educational service agencies or other such groups that may be created in addition or in their place;
10. To ensure the availability and quality of the education work force through preparation, professional development, and nontraditional routes to employment;
11. To oversee the development and implementation of a comprehensive system-wide education student information system that will support the implementation of an education accountability system and improve the seamless operation of public education;
12. To simplify rules and regulations by all departments, boards, and offices represented on the Council;
13. To develop a state-wide mentoring program that enhances student achievement at all levels of public education
14. To establish and coordinate a school safety collaborative with representation from agencies and organizations designated by the Council to improve the school climate and enhance school safety; and
15. To mediate disputes among the Department of Education, the University System of Georgia, the Department of Technical and Adult Education, the Professional Standards Commission, the Office of School Readiness, and the Office of Education Accountability in matters regarding accountability or education system seamlessness.[158]

[158] "A Plus Education Reform Act," (2000).

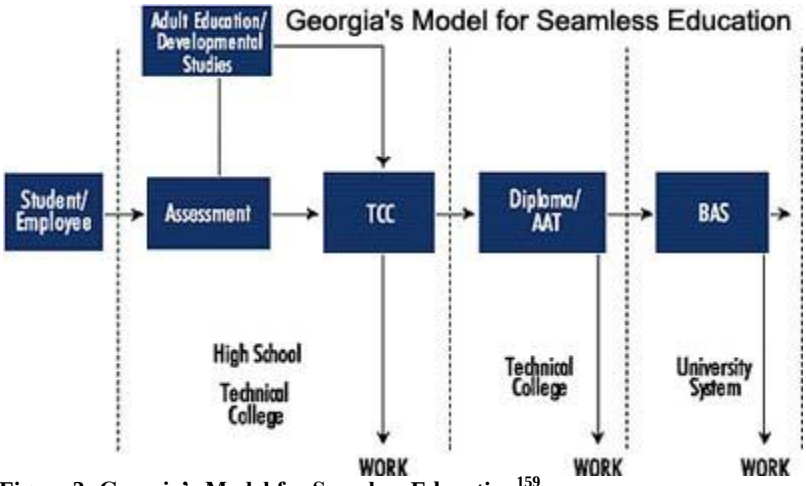

Figure 3: Georgia's Model for Seamless Education[159]

On January 9, 2002, the Georgia Board of Regents reached an agreement with the Department of Technical and Adult education to articulate five courses in English and mathematics. The five courses were called the Mini-Core and included:

Introduction to Mathematical Modeling - MATH 1101 (USG)/MAT 190 (DTAE)
College Algebra - MATH 1111 (USG)/MAT 191 (DTAE)
Pre-Calculus - MATH 1113 (USG)/MAT 194 (DTAE)
Composition I - ENGL 1101 (USG)/ENG 191 (DTAE)
Composition II - ENGL 1102 (USG)/ENG 193 (DTAE)

The Mini-Core courses were guaranteed to transfer as long as the technical college the courses were taken at was accredited by SACS/COC. In addition, the placement tests used at the Mini-Core DTAE institutions were restricted to the ASSET and COMPASS tests from ACT, Inc. This Mini-Core agreement put more pressure on all DTAE institutions to achieve SACS/COC accreditation. Several of the newly regionally accredited technical colleges have since dropped their COE accreditation.

This new articulation agreement did move the DTAE institutions to a new level of collegiate status, although that status was still truncated:

> "We applaud this agreement," said DTAE Commissioner Dr.

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[159] Breeden, 11., 11

> Kenneth H. Breeden. "While our mission to prepare Georgians to go to work remains unchanged, this agreement will assist our graduates when their career pathway requires them to return to the University System for advanced study beyond the associate degree. We have always worked to reduce needless repetition of coursework. That is why we are so pleased with this agreement, as it will provide Georgians with more opportunities."160

The seamless education initiative was the first step in the final transformation of Georgia's technical institutes into technical colleges. The Mini-Core articulation agreement was the first step in the move of the technical institutes from purely vocational-technical training institutes into a collegiate status close to a true community college.

Distance education entered a new age with the introduction of the World Wide Web and the graphical internet browser in 1993. The rapid growth of the World Wide Web as a tool for providing educational services seemed only a small part of the future of vocational-technical education in Georgia. DTAE initiated its first distance learning programs with the launch of the Georgia Virtual Technical Institute (GVTI) in 1998.

The concept of GVTI was to pool the talents of all the technical institutes and provide a central technology center that would provide consistent course work online. The GVTI was provided with a technical staff, an administrative staff, and a director of the program. Each technical institute would initiate courses using its own faculty or hiring part-time faculty. The GVTI staff using the Blackboard Course Management system would help the instructors set up their courses online and provide workshops and continuing assistance each quarter. The GVTI courses started with just a few core courses and then developed quickly on its success. Starting with just a few dozen students the first fiscal year of operation, GVTI (later Georgia Virtual Technical College) grew to over 35,000 online students by the 2005 fiscal year.

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[160] "University System and Technical Colleges Reduce Transfer Barriers," *University System of Georgia Press Release* 2006.

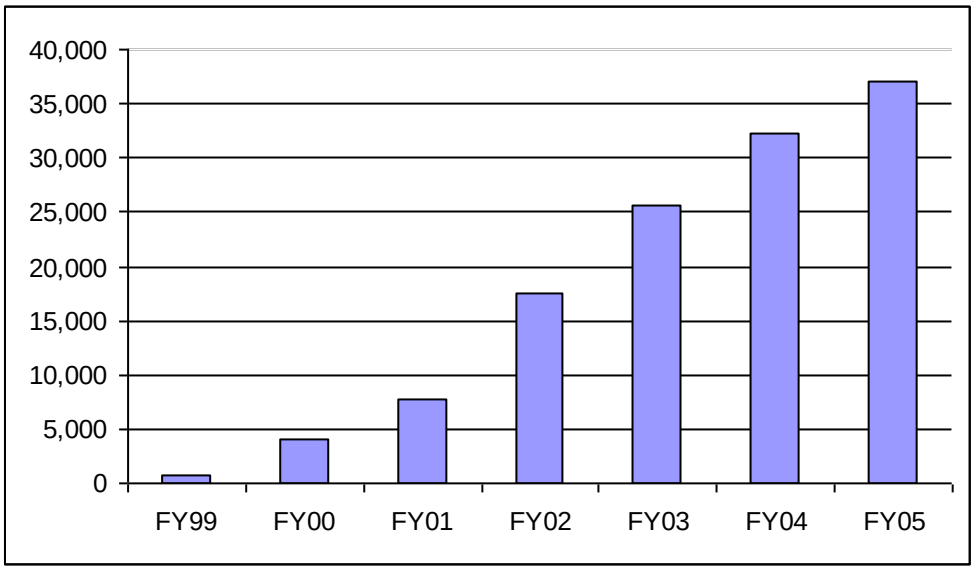

Figure 4: Fiscal Year Enrollment in Georgia Virtual Technical Institute (College)

As the online courses grew in numbers and importance to the enrollment of the DTAE schools, the limit of the number of online courses allowed per program by SACS/COC was met by several schools. In order for the online programs to continue to grow, the DTAE schools began the amendment process to allow academic degree programs to have fifty percent or more courses online.

The remaining locally controlled schools joined in the system during the 1990s and early 2000s (Gwinnett, Sandersville, Atlanta, and Savannah). Two new institutions established, Sandersville Technical Institute (1996) and the Georgia Aviation Technical College (2001), increased the coverage of the Georgia population and introduced a specialized curriculum that supported an important Georgia industry. The place of DTAE schools in Georgia increased in importance as the share of postsecondary enrollment went from 33.4% in 1995 to 61.2% in 2003. The total number of enrolled students at technical colleges in Georgia more than doubled from 69,056 to 153,444.[161]

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[161]Christopher

The year 2000 marked several significant events in the final transformation of technical education in Georgia. The investment in technical education broke the billion-dollar level and the entire system enjoyed unprecedented enrollment. The state legislature passed the A-Plus Education Reform Act that allowed all the technical institutes to change their names to technical colleges and all the new technical colleges began to offer associate degree programs.[162]

The reason for seeking the name change to college was to show the new role of the DTAE schools within the seamless education movement. With the addition of Gwinnett to the system in 2002, the Department of Technical and Adult Education had brought in all locally controlled technical schools and achieved full postsecondary status across the state.

As soon as the A-Plus Education Reform Act was signed, DTAE launched a system-wide campaign to promote the new technical colleges. The campaign used the slogan "We're going to College, now you can too." The phrase encapsulated not only the name change, but also the hope of the technical institutes turning into local colleges on a par with any two-year college in the state. The newly named technical colleges would still have the primary mission of workforce development, but the seamless education initiative gave them new goals for the future. Dr. Kenneth Breeden wrote about the state of Georgia's technical education system in the early twenty-first century:

> Today, guided by our three defining principles—customer focus, partnerships with business and industry; and a commitment to quality—the system's 34 technical colleges are at the center of the state's economic development team, providing careers for Georgia's citizens and guaranteeing success for Georgia's future.[163]

Mustard Cornwall, David B., "Assessing Public Higher Education in Georgia at the Start of the Twenty-First Century," in *What's Happening to Public Higher Education?* (Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers, 2006).

[162] "A Plus Education Reform Act."

[163] Breeden, 3.

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSIONS

Four questions were asked at the beginning of this work: 1) What influences brought about the creation of the first vocational-technical schools in Georgia?; 2) What were the causes for the transformation of the vocational-technical schools into technical institutes and subsequently technical colleges?; 3) How do Georgia's technical colleges fit into the larger higher education environment of Georgia?; and 4) What does the story of the development of technical education in Georgia tell us about its future?

The creation of the first vocational-technical schools in Georgia developed from a combination of economic need and political will. Georgia's vocational-technical schools were the product of Progressive political solutions to the development of Georgia's economic plight in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Georgians were instrumental in the acquisition of federal funding for vocational-technical education in order to provide for Georgia's economic development. All this was despite weak support among the voters in Georgia and suspicion that the vocational-technical schools were an imposition from Northern industrialists who only wanted to develop cheap and pliable labor.

While there are many theories as to what social influences push forward educational change the one theory that seems to be the best fit is the state relative autonomy theory of Kevin Dougherty. State relative autonomy theory acknowledges that both the functionalist theory of educational democratization and the class theory of status quo elitism have some truth but neither fully explains the phenomenon. State relative autonomy theory synthesizes the "society-centric" theories of educational change. In state relative autonomy theory, Dougherty shows that government officials such as educators, governors, and legislators have often supported the development of community colleges and vocationalism in American education in the absence of widespread public demand. State officials are only relatively autonomous in their actions

because they will often defer to private interest groups who control votes, campaign contributions, and economic capital that keep the state officials in power.[164]

Dougherty uses the expansion of occupational education in the typical community college system to develop a theory explaining educational policy-making. The history of the development of Georgia's technical college system runs contrary to the norm, but the state relative autonomy theory can be used to describe its development as well. State officials who were interested in Georgia's economic development established the first vocational schools in the late nineteenth century. Lack of state funds forced Georgia state officials to look to other sources in order to finance the vocational schools.

Georgia congressmen and senators were instrumental in securing federal funding for state vocational schools. Hoke Smith and Dudley M. Hughes were key figures in the promotion of federal funding for Georgia's early vocational schools. The Smith-Hughes Act along with subsequent funding acts set the pattern for vocational education in Georgia through the rest of the twentieth century. Again, the key motivation was economic development driven by the ambitions of state educational leaders.

The first vocational schools focused on agriculture and agricultural technology. Agriculture was the largest industry in the state and had the greatest political support. Soon however, state education leaders realized that industrialization was the key to Georgia's economic future and the early schools expanded to cover industrial skills and trades. Following the pattern of the state relative autonomy theory, state educators and political leaders shaped the early curricula of the vocational schools.

The politicians and state education officials also developed policies based on the philosophy of the national vocational education movement and found the funding at both the

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[164] Kevin James Dougherty, *The Contradictory College: The Conflicting Origins, Impacts, and Futures of the Community College*, SUNY Series, Frontiers in Education (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1994), 281.

state and federal levels to build the schools. It is significant that the first of the vocational schools were founded in rural areas and included housing facilities. Transportation was difficult and even with help from federal funds there were limited resources. High schools were a new phenomenon in Georgia especially in the rural areas of the north Georgia and the southern cotton belt regions. In many northern states, the vocational programs were a part of the high schools. Few high schools in Georgia meant that regional vocational schools based on congressional districts were the best way to establish vocational education for those who needed it. The character and makeup of the technical colleges were shaped by those early decisions based on the need for economic development.

Politicians and state education officials had a vision for vocational education as a solution to the problems of economic development in Georgia. Lacking support, they used the resources available to them creatively to provide vocational education to the students of Georgia.

The founding of the vocational schools set the precedent for educational institutions whose primary purpose was state economic development. Economic development and industrial development was the primary forces driving the development of vocational-technical schools into technical institutes and then, finally, technical colleges.

The early vocational schools in the first four decades of the twentieth century concentrated on developing skills for agriculture, agricultural mechanics, light industry, and homemaking. With the exception of some, primarily evening, schools in Atlanta, vocational education schools in Georgia were rural. Starting after World War II in the late 1940s, Georgia agriculture diminished in importance. Manufacturing boomed throughout Georgia and a new level of skills was required to provide a strong workforce.

The individual during this era that most influenced the form and nature of the growth of vocational-technical education in Georgia was Dr. M. D. Mobley. Mobley started as a teacher and rose to direct all vocational-technical education in Georgia. It was Mobley's plan for area vocational-technical schools that was later implemented in the late 1950s and early 1960s.

The 1950s saw a great change in the economies of both Georgia and the nation. The rise of industrial manufacturing in World War II continued into the boom of commercialism in the 1950s. New factories built throughout Georgia created new needs and requirements for a well-developed workforce.

Just as the federal government put money into the vocational education system in the first decades of the twentieth century based on the threat from Germany and other European powers, the Cold War threat from the Soviet Union spurred a new interest in vocational education in vital technologies. Educational spending throughout the 1950s and into the 1960s was driven by the needs of the growing defense industries.[165] Many of these new industries were located in the Southeast and vocational-technical education was necessary if Georgia was to take advantage of this new economic boom.

Georgia did not develop traditional comprehensive community colleges. While community colleges were increasingly vocationalized, the vocational-technical schools in Georgia moved toward offering more collegiate programs. The national trend beginning with the Carl D. Perkins Act was to emphasize postsecondary vocational and technical education. The Georgia technical institutes were pressed to provide more collegiate level training.

In the 1980s and 1990s, the trend in national higher education was reform, accountability, and academic success. In Georgia, this reform movement took the form of the HOPE scholarships geared toward academic merit and seamless education. The technical institutes moved toward the collegiate model through articulation agreements based on regional accreditation versus specialized vocational-technical accreditation. This new model led to the move from technical institutes to technical colleges. The move to collegiate status came at the same time that support for the postsecondary technical schools was increased by appealing to their fundamental mission of economic development.

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[165] Sommer, 32-34.

The technical colleges are a recent addition to the ranks of institutions of higher education in Georgia. Vocational and technical education in Georgia had always had a postsecondary component in that it was designed to accommodate students sixteen years and older. Until the last decade, vocational and technical education was not considered by the Georgia public and many state officials to be a component of higher education.

There are three basic roles of technical colleges in Georgia: Higher Education (academic courses), Adult Education (adult literacy, career reinforcement, lifelong learning), and Occupational Studies (technical training, job-specific training, economic development, etc.) Each role is important and it is sometimes difficult to balance all three. The biggest challenge in technical education today is remediation of under prepared students coming in from a very poor public K-12 system. The greatest strength that technical colleges have to meet the future is their ability to be flexible and responsive to business and industry.

The technical colleges in Georgia provide all the components of a comprehensive community college except for the transferable academic programs. There is an agreement with the Georgia Board of Regents regarding the requirements that each technical college must meet in order for academic core courses to transfer directly to a Board of Regents university or college. The requirements include regional accreditation through the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, the administration of COMPASS placement testing for mathematics and English, and a standardized curriculum for all transferable courses.

The technical colleges of Georgia provide an important economic development role in the state. The total enrollment for certificate, diploma, and degree programs for all technical colleges during the 2005 fiscal year was 155,126 students.[166] Technical education beyond high school fills a niche that traditional higher education institutions cannot. It provides Georgia with

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[166] Georgia Department of Technical and Adult Education, *Fiscal Year 2005 Enrollment by College* (2005, accessed December 21, 2007); available from http://www.dtae.org/annualreport2005/institutionenrollment.html.

a highly skilled and technologically competent workforce for industry, business, and the medical community. The technical colleges grew into this role as the need for technical workers educated beyond the secondary level developed.

One area that the technical colleges excel is in the flexibility of their programs. Technology changes and evolves rapidly. There is a need in higher education for an institution that can adapt quickly to the needs of business and industry in a competitive worldwide market. It is important that the technical colleges develop a technical core that allows students to adapt while the colleges create new programs to teach technical skills.

Technical colleges provide true open access to Georgia students. All students over sixteen can be admitted either at the collegiate program level or in the General Education Development programs. The General Education Development path allows for students that have dropped from the secondary education system to have a second chance at a college education. The majority of the fastest growing careers in Georgia require postsecondary technical training that is less than a four-year degree.[167] This trend shows no sign of slowing in the years ahead. Technical colleges provide a bridge for Georgia students who need to have postsecondary education in order to pursue the careers that they desire.

The Georgia Technical College System is at a crossroads in its history. The technical colleges can be content with their historical workforce development mission or move to become comprehensive community colleges through the addition of fully transferable associate degree programs. Three factors could decide which way the Technical College System will go: 1) the trend of two-year colleges in the Georgia Board of Regents system to move to four-year colleges; 2) the lack of need-based scholarships; and 3) the continued high dropout rate in Georgia secondary schools.

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[167]et. al. Georgia Student Finance Commission, *Gacollege411 -- Fastest Growing Careers*(2007, accessed December 21, 2007); available from http://www.gacollege411.org/Career/fastest_growing_careers.asp.

The past ten years have seen a number of the two-year Board of Regents institutions progress toward four-year state college status. The most recent schools to make this move are Gordon College in Barnesville, Georgia, Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College in Tifton, Georgia, and Middle Georgia College in Cochran, Georgia. In 2007, Gordon College added a four-year program in Early Childhood Education with plans for expansion and Abraham Baldwin added four-year degrees in agriculture. Also in 2007, Middle Georgia College took over the Georgia College of Aviation from DTAE and added a bachelor's degree in Aviation Management.

In 1997, Macon Junior College became Macon State College adding several medical and nursing bachelor's degrees in its move from two-year to four-year status. In all, only nine two-year colleges affiliated with the Georgia Board of Regents are left. While the former two-year colleges still provide two-year degrees along with their new baccalaureate offerings, the new status of four-year College brings increased academic standards for admission leaving fewer options for students who are academically underprepared. This creates a gap that the technical colleges are in a position to fill if they increase their academic offerings while retaining their open-access mission.

The HOPE scholarship program changed the landscape of higher education in Georgia starting in 1997. The original intent of the HOPE scholarship program was to raise academic expectations and graduation rates through merit based financial aid incentives. The success of the program in meeting this goal is still difficult to determine. The HOPE scholarship has been a help to technical education and technical colleges in Georgia with fewer academic restrictions during the first-year, HOPE scholarship for technical education students has clearly been a major factor in the huge enrollment increase in technical colleges over the last ten years.

However, two problems will affect the future of the HOPE scholarship program and postsecondary technical education in Georgia. The first problem is that the HOPE scholarship cannot maintain its current distribution of financial aid and remain viable in the future. Difficult

decisions regarding the amount of financial aid per student and the number of students covered by the HOPE scholarship program will have to be made by the state government. Restrictions have already been put in place regarding the amount of books that can be purchased and the amount that can be used by a student during a degree program.

These new rules have caused changes in technical college policies. In order to manage HOPE scholarship monies, students trying to enter into programs with waiting lists, such as practical nursing and other popular allied health programs, must be put in programs like health care assistant that act as "holding pens" for students waiting admission. Limits in HOPE textbook funds have instructors searching for the least expensive alternatives to more popular classroom texts. Limits on state aid have also forced technical colleges to start new fundraising programs and to set up institutional development or advancement offices in order to raise outside funds for scholarships and other projects.

The freshman graduation rate for Georgia high school students during the 2003-2004 school year was 61.2%, well below the national graduation rate of 75%.[168] There has been an increased call for all higher education institutions in Georgia to work with the local schools to increase graduation rates and transition more students from secondary to postsecondary education. The technical colleges have been placed in the best position to work with local high schools due to the influence of the Perkins grants and other federal programs such as Tech-Prep.

The Carl D. Perkins reauthorization of 2006 includes mandates for programs to include connections to high schools, to provide for special populations, and to show that all courses are academically rigorous. The mandate for programs that help transition high school students to postsecondary education is specifically designed to reduce the high school dropout

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[168] United States. Office of Educational Research and Improvement., National Center for Education Statistics., and Institute of Education Sciences (U.S.), "Dropout Rates in the United States: 2005 Compendium Report," (Washington, DC: United States Department of Education, 2007), 35 table 13. 13

rates. Representative Tom Osborn of Nebraska clearly stated the intent of the new Perkins mandates:

> This legislation will help to reduce the dropout rate. If the schools across this country will work out the programs that are envisioned in this report, I think our schools will make giant strides in reducing dropouts, because it will allow students at the high school level to get a vision of what can be achieved, what they can do in technical education and what they can do in employment opportunities and what a better future they can have. This should be billed as a hope bill, it is a future bill.[169]

This puts the technical colleges of Georgia in the position of filling the gap between academically underprepared students and higher education. On May 13, 2008, Governor Sonny Perdue signed legislation that officially changed the name of the Department of Technical and Adult Education to the Technical College System of Georgia, effective July 1, 2008. This act completed the transition of the vocational-technical institutes into technical colleges. It also set the stage for the future direction of the technical colleges.

One of the stated goals of the new Technical College System of Georgia's (TCSG) Strategic Plan for 2008-2012 is to "enhance the TCSG's organizational development in terms of its educational delivery, facilities and equipment, and internal workforce." In order to meet that goal, the State Board agreed to "enhance the System structure to maximize efficiencies of delivery."[170] Currently there are thirty-three technical colleges (Georgia Aviation became a part of Middle Georgia College in Cochran in 2007) serving every county and providing educational programs within commuting distance (25 miles or less) of over 90% of the state's adult population. The TCSG administrative staff looked to find ways to consolidate the system and

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[169] Michael Brustein and Association for Career and Technical Education, *Perkins Act of 2006 : The Official Guide: The Authoritative Guide to Federal Legislation for Career and Technical Education : The Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Act of 2006* (Alexandria, VA: Association for Career and Technical Education, 2006), 4.

[170] Georgia State Board of Technical and Adult Education, "Minutes of April 8, 2008," ed. Technical College System of Georgia (2008).

developed a plan to merge several colleges across the system. It is believed by the Commissioner and the State Board that streamlining the management of these colleges would cut down on overall expenses during a difficult economic downturn and maximize the efficiencies of delivery through the reduction of redundant programs and student services. It would also be possible to offer new programs at smaller colleges that were not possible before the merger thereby increasing student enrollment overall in the system.

The consolidation plan includes fourteen technical colleges that will merge into six new institutions. The plan calls for a savings in administrative cost of three and a half million dollars. The mergers will take place in three stages and be complete by July 1, 2010. No campuses are planned to close and it is still unclear whether service area counties will be adjusted. The colleges to be merged include: Swainsboro Technical and Southeastern Technical in Vidalia; Valdosta Technical and East Central Technical in Fitzgerald; Northwestern Technical in Rock Spring and Coosa Valley Technical in Rome; West Central Technical in Waco and West Georgia Technical in LaGrange; Appalachian Technical in Jasper and North Georgia Technical in Clarkesville; Griffin Technical in Griffin and Flint River Technical in Thomaston; Chattahoochee Technical in Marietta and North Metro Technical in Acworth. The colleges now scheduled for merger are all in proximity to one another. In addition, the move toward Southern Association of Colleges and Schools accreditation will be accelerated since several of the merged colleges are currently accredited only by the Council on Occupational Education.

Table 6: TCSG Merger Plan

College Name (as of merger date)	Location ("A" Campus)	Merged Colleges	Proposed Date of Merger
Albany Technical College	Albany		
Altamaha Technical College	Jesup		
Athens Technical College	Athens		
Atlanta Technical College	Atlanta		
Augusta Technical College	Augusta		

College Name (as of merger date)	Location ("A" Campus)	Merged Colleges	Proposed Date of Merger
Central Georgia Technical College	Macon		
Chattahoochee Technical College	Marietta	Appalachian, Chattahoochee, and North Metro	July 1, 2009
Columbus Technical College	Columbus		
DeKalb Technical College	Clarkston		
Georgia Northwestern Technical College	Rome	Coosa Valley and Northwestern	July 1, 2009
Gwinnett Technical College	Lawrenceville		
Heart of Georgia Technical College	Dublin		
Lanier Technical College	Oakwood		
Middle Georgia Technical College	Warner Robins		
Moultrie Technical College	Moultrie		
North Georgia Technical College	Clarkesville		
Northwestern Technical College	Rock Spring		
Ogeechee Technical College	Statesboro		
Okefenokee Technical College	Waycross		
Sandersville Technical College	Sandersville		
Savannah Technical College	Savannah		
South Georgia Technical College	Americus		
Southeastern Technical College	Vidalia	Southeastern and Swainsboro	July 1, 2009
Southern Crescent Technical College	Griffin	Griffin and Flint River	March 1, 2010
Southwest Georgia Technical College	Thomasville		
West Georgia Technical College	LaGrange	West Central and West Georgia	July 1, 2009
Wiregrass Technical College	Valdosta	Valdosta and East Central	July 1, 2010

The evolution of technical colleges in Georgia toward becoming comprehensive community colleges appears to be inevitable. The only function of a comprehensive community college that the technical colleges lack is the provision of transferable academic programs. Based on its history and the development of postsecondary technical education in other states, there seem to be three options for the future structure of the technical college system. The

technical colleges could continue as a department of state government under the current commission and board system, the technical colleges could become a unit of the University System of Georgia, or finally, a technical college board that is self-sustaining and parallel to the University System of Georgia could be developed.

The advantage of continuing the current governance structure of the technical college system is that it would cause the least disruption. Current policies, procedures, and practices have been developed to fit federal and state policy. A major change in governance structure could cause complications at the local level. This could be problematic during a time when both state and federal laws are requiring more accountability.

The advantage of changing to a new governance structure would be to remove many obstacles in the budgeting and planning process that are caused by a state system that is not focused on higher education problems. A separate governing board would allow the technical colleges to move away from the economic development focus and allow for curriculum planning that has a more academic focus.

Postsecondary technical education is sufficiently different from the mission of most University System of Georgia institutions, so there would be a real advantage in having a unique technical college governing board. A separate governing board would be difficult to establish in Georgia because such change would require a constitutional amendment similar to the one that formed the Georgia Board of Regents.

It is difficult to predict what governance system is in the future for Georgia's technical colleges. It is clear that the movement toward regional accreditation, the addition of offerings in transferable academic programs and courses, and the placement of the technical colleges as gateway institutions into the higher education system means that a fundamental change is taking place. It is also clear that this change follows the path of evolution of the technical college from its earliest days as vocational schools through to its development as a full higher education institution.

Many areas in this study lend themselves to future research. Two areas of future research stand out as important for both historical research and the development of future policy: the influence of postsecondary technical education on race relations in Georgia and the relationship between postsecondary technical education and labor.

There is some evidence that the area vocational-technical schools of the late 1950s and early 1960s were the first education institutions to allow African-Americans to attend with whites in many areas of Georgia. This is especially true in the rural areas. A more in-depth study of this historical area could shed light on racial relations in Georgia during the period and could also inform policymakers on what is possible during a time of increased Hispanic immigration into the state.

Historically, there has been an ambiguous relationship between Georgia labor unions and vocational-technical education. During difficult economic times, the vocational and subsequent technical schools were seen as a threat to the traditional apprenticeship system as well as a way of spreading anti-union propaganda among Georgia's workers. However, the labor unions have also seen the necessity of providing educational opportunities to workers in the state. Postsecondary education in particular can be a way to allow Georgia's workforce to progress, to attract more business and industry, and to increase the workforce's lifetime earning power. Further research in this area can inform policymakers on strategies for working in a competitive, increasingly globalized, economy.

CHAPTER 6
BIBLIOGRAPHIC NOTE

The nature of the technical college in Georgia makes it necessary to research the influence of several different educational movements that cross over each other. These movements are community and junior colleges, vocational education, industrial education, adult education, and career education. Looking at each of these movements and their influence on government and educational officials in Georgia, it is possible to demonstrate that several key individuals had a tremendous impact on the development of technical education in the state.

It is important to remember that the history of technical education in Georgia has secondary as well as postsecondary roots. The history of vocational training programs at the secondary level is inseparable from the history of the technical colleges. This includes the social issues of class and race in Georgia and the southeastern United States.

The literature search was conducted in the following databases: H.W. Wilson's Education Abstracts Full Text; ERIC; EBSCO's Professional Development Collection; H.W. Wilson's Humanities Index and Humanities & Social Sciences Index Retrospective; EBSCO's Academic Search Premier; JSTOR; Web of Science including Social Science Index; ABC-Clio's America: History and Life; Dissertation Abstracts; the University of Georgia online catalog; the online catalog of the Georgia State Archives; OCLC's WorldCat database; and the Georgia State Code through Georgia Library Learning Online (GALILEO). Research was also conducted at the State of Georgia Archives, the special collections of the University of Georgia Library, the Southern Labor Archives at Georgia State University, and the Southern Regional Archives of the United States.

The most important movement in the formation of Georgia's technical education system was the vocational education movement of the early twentieth century. Marvin Lazerson

and W. Norton Grubb[171], and Howard R. D. Gordon[172] have written the most recent histories of vocational education. Roy W. Roberts wrote a history at the time the vocational-technical schools in Georgia were moving toward technical institutes which sheds light on the thinking of technical education proponents at the time and what influences from history they felt were important.[173] Joseph S. Taylor gives a good description of vocational education during the first decade of the twentieth century.[174]

Clyde W. Hall has written on the history of African-American vocational and technical education.[175] There are also important surveys of federal legislation that funded the state vocational education programs written by Garrett D. Hunter[176] and Giordano-Evans[177] of the Congressional Research Service.

W. Stull Holthas written a short history of the Federal Board for Vocational Education.[178] The Federal Board of Vocational Education was formed soon after the passing of

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[171] Marvin Lazerson and W. Norton Grubb, *American Education and Vocationalism: A Documentary History, 1870-1970*, Classics in Education, No. 48 (New York: Teachers College Press Columbia University, 1974).

[172] Howard R. D. Gordon, *The History and Growth of Vocational Education in America* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1999).

[173] Roy W. Roberts, *Vocational and Practical Arts Education; History, Development, and Principles*, Exploration Series in Education (New York: Harper & Row, 1971).

[174] Joseph S. Taylor, *A Handbook of Vocational Education* (New York: The Macmillan company, 1914).

[175] Clyde W. Hall, *Black Vocational, Technical, and Industrial Arts Education: Development and History* (Chicago: American Technical Society, 1973).

[176] Garrett D. Hunter, "A Historical Background of the Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Education Act," *Journal of Studies in Technical Careers* 15, no. 3 (1995).

[177] Giordano-Evans and Service.

[178] Holt.

the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917. The Federal Board oversaw the distribution of federal funds to the states for vocational education. This is an important part of the story behind the founding of vocational-technical schools in Georgia before their evolution into technical colleges later in the century.

The two major figures in the vocational education movement that wrote about its formation and development are Layton S. Hawkins and Charles A. Prosser.[179] Prosser was not only a chronicler of the vocational education movement but he was also one of its most important personalities. The debate between Charles Prosser and John Dewey over the nature of vocational education has shaped the philosophy of technical education in Georgia. Prosser worked as the Deputy for Vocational Education in Massachusetts during the time David Snedden was the first State Commissioner of Education. John Dewey believed that the goal of public education should be to concentrate on the individual and prepare them for life by teaching them how to achieve personal fulfillment.[180] In contrast, Prosser and Snedden believed that public education should provide students with vocational skills and prepare them for the world of work. Both believed that it was more democratic for public education to train those who were not likely to go to college.[181]

Prosser's sixteen theorems are reflected in the mission and values statements of the Department of Adult and Technical Education. This is especially true in Prosser's belief that vocational education must meet the needs of industry and prepare students for work.

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[179] Prosser and Quigley, *Vocational Education in a Democracy*.

[180] Jay W. Rojewski, "Preparing the Workforce of Tomorrow: A Conceptual Framework for Career and Technical Education," *Journal of Vocational Education Research* 27, no. 1 (2002).

[181] Emery J. Hyslop-Margison, "An Assessment of the Historical Arguements in Vocational Education Reform," *Journal of Career and Technical Education* 17, no. 1 (2001).

Hawkins, along with Prosser and Wright, wrote a work that was written at a time that the vocational education movement was at its most politically powerful and influential. [182] It covers the history of the movement from the point of view of its major proponents. The philosophy in this volume is still used today in vocational and technical education at all levels.

The manual training movement of the late nineteenth century evolved into the industrial education movement of the first half of the twentieth century. The industrial education movement became the basis of the technical education movement (the other half of the vocational-technical model) of the latter half of the twentieth century. Two comprehensive histories are important to review. Charles A. Bennett has written on the manual arts movement and industrial education in America.[183] In addition, Fisher has written on the history of industrial education as part of her general survey of industrial education in America. [184]

Melvin L. Barlow has written a comprehensive history of industrial education and technical education[185]. Barlow's history is one of the most important in developing any history on technical education. The chapters on the Federal Board for Vocational Education (chapter six) and Influence of Industrial Arts since 1917 (chapter ten) are particularly useful in researching technical education in Georgia.

The two-year postsecondary institution is an American invention and therefore the historical background research can be confined to the United States and some relevant influential European educational movements. The history of the two-year college in general and the community college specifically is well researched. There are several good general histories of

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[182] Hawkins.

[183] Charles A. Bennett, *History of Manual and Industrial Education, 1870 to 1917* (Peoria, IL: The Manual arts press, 1937).

[184] Berenice M. Fisher, *Industrial Education: American Ideals and Institutions* (Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press, 1967).

[185] Barlow, *History of Industrial Education in the United States*.

two-year colleges, specifically the community college movement of the 20th century. Frederick Rudolph is recognized as one of the most important historians specializing in American higher education. Rudolph's general history of the American college and university[186] along with his history of the undergraduate curriculum[187] are both essential reading for investigating the history of two-year colleges. John R. Thelin wrote the most recent survey of the history of American colleges and universities.[188] Thelin has included more on the history of community colleges then previous general histories.

Lawrence A. Cremin has written the most comprehensive history of American education. Cremin's volume on the metropolitan experience from 1876-1980 includes valuable background for the study of the progressive movement that has influenced vocational education in Georgia.[189] In addition to his general history, Cremin has also written a separate volume on the progressive movement in American education.[190]

George B. Vaughn[191] and Allen A. Witt[192] have written the most recent histories of the community college movement in America. Both authors concentrate on the development of

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[186] Frederick Rudolph, *The American College and University: A History* (New York: Knopf, 1962).

[187] Frederick Rudolph and Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education, *Curriculum: A History of the American Undergraduate Course of Study since 1636*, The Carnegie Council Series (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1977).

[188] John R. Thelin, *A History of American Higher Education* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2004).

[189] Lawrence Arthur Cremin, *American Education, the Metropolitan Experience, 1876-1980*, 1st ed. (New York: Harper & Row, 1988).

[190] Lawrence Arthur Cremin, *The Transformation of the School: Progressivism in American Education, 1876-1957*, 1st ed. (New York: Knopf, 1961).

[191] George B. Vaughan, *The Community College Story. Second Edition* (District of Columbia: American Association of Community Colleges, Washington, DC., 2000), 010 Books; 141 Reports--Descriptive.

comprehensive community colleges. Neither looks at other two-year postsecondary institutions such as technical colleges or vocational-technical institutes in depth.

Cohen and Brawer[193] have included a chapter on the historical background of the community college in their frequently cited work *The American Community College*. Cohen has also written a separate work on the history of the higher education system in America that includes a great deal about the community college movement.

Brint and Karabel have a good overall history of community colleges in the first section. [194] The authors contend that community colleges in America are moving away from the original idea of providing the first two years of college toward vocationalization. They see this as a way to track lower income students away from four-year colleges. This theory is highly controversial, but the work contains social research that helps clarify the uniqueness of the Georgia technical education system that started as vocational and is moving toward providing a transfer path to four-year colleges.

Dougherty writes about the debate on the origins of the community college. [195] He looks at the theory of Brint and Karabel along with others. Dougherty looks at several issues concerning community college origins and its impact. The discussion of the rise of community colleges from the early 1900s and the causes of vocationalization from the1960s are particularly relevant.

There are many histories of two-year college state systems in different formats. Most of the histories written at the state level are journal articles or short official chronologies

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[192] Allen A. Witt, *America's Community Colleges: The First Century* (Washington, D.C.: Community College Press, 1994).

[193] Cohen and Brawer.

[194] Brint and Karabel.

[195] Dougherty, *The Contradictory College: The Conflicting Origins, Impacts, and Futures of the Community College*.

published by the various state systems. There have been several more extensive state-level histories written as dissertations or monographs.

Kevin J. Morris has written a dissertation on the South Carolina community and technical college system from its beginnings as branch campuses of the University of South Carolina system in the early 1960s. [196] This dissertation is important as a guide to the literature of postsecondary technical education. The South Carolina system evolved differently from other state community college systems and has more in common with Georgia than some others. However, the South Carolina model is still significantly different from the Georgia experience. The South Carolina technical and community colleges are comprehensive and they evolved from technical education centers placed around the state by government mandate rather than as vocational-technical schools with local support as in Georgia. The similarities and contrasts of the two systems are very interesting and useful for this project.

Presented research papers and journal articles have been written on the development of various state community and technical college systems by Elena Y. Sanders,[197] Lana G. Snider,[198] and Ben E. Fountain, Jr. and E. Michael Latta.[199] Most of these have been part of a series of articles on the history of state two-year colleges published by the *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*.

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[196] Kevin J. Morris, "A History of the South Carolina Technical Education System, 1961-1991" (dissertation, 1997).

[197] Elena Y. Sanders, *A Comprehensive System of Community Colleges in Ohio: To Be or Not to Be?* (Ohio, 1995), 120 Opinion Papers; 150 Speeches/Meeting Papers.

[198] Lana G. Snider, "The History and Development of the Two-Year Colleges in Wisconsin: The University of Wisconsin Colleges and the Wisconsin Technical College System," *Community College Journal of Research and Practice* 23, no. 1 (1999).

[199] Ben E. Fountain, Jr. and E. Michael Latta, *The Community College System in North Carolina: A Brief History* (Raleigh, NC: North Carolina State Advisory Council on Vocational Education, 1990), 060 Historical Materials.

Unlike the education of children and youth, there is no one institutional framework for adult education. Adult education became a popular term in the United States in the late nineteenth century. The progressive era in American history was a fertile time for educational outreach to adults. Adult education activities in the early twentieth century were carried out in public schools, universities, public libraries, and museums.

Adult Education activities were sponsored by philanthropists and reformers who were interested in social reform through basic literacy education in industrial workers. Harold W. Stubblefield and Patrick Keene have written one of the most complete histories of the Adult Education movement in the United States. [200] They note that Carnegie Corporation's initiatives in the early 1920s were a catalyst for Adult Education as a social reform movement. They also cite one of the most used and influential definitions of adult education by Lyman Bryson in 1936: "All the activities with an educational purpose that are carried on by people engaged in the ordinary business of life."[201]

Joseph F. Kett looks at the development of adult education in light of the social and cultural movements of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. [202] Kett examines the link between the Chautauqua movement and the formal educational institutions such as public schools and university extension programs.

Career education is a more recent movement in American education. Its influence on Georgia's technical college system stems from the education reform nature of the movement. Career education had its greatest impact in the 1970s and 1980s when it received a great deal of

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[200] Stubblefield and Keane.

[201] Ibid.

[202] Joseph F. Kett and Center Educational Resources Information, *From Useful Knowledge to Vocational Education, 1860 - 1930* (New York, N.Y. Washington, DC: National Center on Education and Employment Institute on Education and the Economy Teachers College Columbia University ; U.S. Dept. of Education Office of Educational Research and Improvement Educational Resources Information Center), microform.

federal support and funding. Kenneth B. Hoyt and Judith Stern have recently written the most complete history of the career education movement. [203]

Sidney P. Marland is considered the "father of the career education movement." Marland was the Commissioner of the U.S. Office of Education in the late 1960's and early 1970's. In 1971, Marland formed the Commissioner's Committee on Defining Career Education in order to promote the movement. The committee defined career education as "the infusion into all educational curricula and student counseling K through 14, of information and hands-on experience pertinent to real life jobs and world of work experience."

There are only a few histories of public education in Georgia and the majority of those histories concentrate on individual institutions. The most important histories of public education at the K-12 level in Georgia were written by Elbert Willis Griffin Boogher,[204] Dorothy Orr[205] and Oscar H. Joiner.[206] Cameron Fincher has written a history of the Georgia Board of Regents that includes much about postsecondary efforts of the technical institutes in Georgia. [207]

In 1964, Victor Chalmers Nix wrote an unpublished thesis on the history of industrial arts education in Georgia just before the greatest time of growth for the vocational-technical schools. [208] Thomas G. Dyer's bicentennial history of the University of Georgia has valuable background information on the formation of public colleges and universities throughout Georgia. This includes important information on the founding of the agricultural extension centers and the

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[203] Hoyt and Stein.

[204] Elbert Willis Griffin Boogher, *Secondary Education in Georgia, 1732-1858* (Philadelphia,: 1933).

[205] Orr.

[206] Joiner and others.

[207] Fincher, *Historical Development of the University System of Georgia, 1932-2002*.

[208] Victor Chalmers Nix, "The History of Industrial Arts Education in Georgia" (Thesis--University of Georgia, 1964).

agricultural and mechanics schools.[209] Norman Burns wrote a short article on state-controlled junior colleges in Georgia in 1945 that has some value as a snapshot of two-year colleges in Georgia at that time. [210]

The Smith-Hughes Act is well studied and there is a ground of contention as to the motives for its establishment. Regina Werum has suggested that the Smith-Hughes Act was neither an altruistic progressive act of legislation nor was it driven by outside industrial forces. She suggests that Smith-Hughes Act was pushed forward by agricultural interests in the South who also wanted to track African-Americans away from traditional colleges.[211] Werum shows, in a later article, that the funding of African-American vocational education was small in comparison to the money allocated to the white-only vocational programs in the states of Georgia, North Carolina, and Mississippi.[212] She also shows that social control was a prime motivation for vocational education during the Great Depression.[213] These studies also indirectly show that there was a large influence by educational and political leaders in the development of technical education in Georgia.

Post-Civil War America underwent great political, economic, and social change. Progressivism was a large part of the political and social activism starting in the late nineteenth century and into the early twentieth century. Historians generally agree that reformers created new political, cultural, educational, and social institutions that depended on bureaucratic

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[209] Dyer.

[210] Norman Burns, "The State-Controlled Junior Colleges in Georgia," *The School Review* 53, no. 10 (1945).

[211] Werum, "Sectionalism and Race Politics: Federal Vocational Policies and Programs in the Pre-Desegregation South."

[212] Werum, "Elite Control in State and Nation: Racial Inequalities in Vocational Funding in North Carolina, Georgia, and Mississippi, 1918-1936."

[213] Regina Werum, "Warehousing the Unemployed? Federal Job Training Programs in the Depression-Era South," *American Journal of Education* 109, no. 2 (2001).

organizations at the state and federal levels. Georgia traditionally relied on local control in the Jeffersonian republican mold. Progressivism was a radical shift in the political landscape.

During this time, the term "New South" came into usage.[214] The most important proponent of the New South ideal was Henry Grady. Grady was a prominent journalist in Atlanta with close ties to Northern Industrialists such as J.P. Morgan and H.M. Flagler. The New South symbolized the break with Southern traditionalism and the desire to change the economic and social structures of the South from agricultural production toward industrialization. Grady was influential in the Democratic Party of the late nineteenth century and was especially influential with the administration of Grover Cleveland.[215]

William A. Link has written about the bipolar nature of the progressive movement in the South.[216] Link shows that the opposing views of southern traditionalists who wanted reform that was locally controlled and paternalistic reformers who wished to erect new bureaucratic structures that would oversee reform influenced progressivism in the South.

In 1971, C. Vann Woodward wrote a comprehensive study of the origins of the New South movement.[217] This volume was a part of the larger A History of the South series and it traces the origins of the New South from its beginnings during Reconstruction to the influence of northern Industrialists through the heart of the Progressive Era in the South.

James C Cobb picks up the development of the New South in his study. Cobb covers the period of the height of the Great Depression through the migration of industry to the Sun Belt

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[214] Henry Woodfin Grady, *The New South. Writings and Speeches of Henry Grady* (Savannah, GA: Beehive Press, 1971).

[215] Henry Woodfin Grady and Edna Henry Lee Turpin, *The New South, and Other Addresses. With Biography, Critical Opinions, and Explanatory Notes*, Maynard's English Classic Series, Nos. 239-240 (New York: Maynard Merrill & Company, 1904).

[216] Link.

[217] Woodward.

in the 1980s.[218] This work is important because it covers a time were the greatest growth in technical education occurred in Georgia. Most of the development of area vocational schools into postsecondary technical institutes took place during the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s.

Gavin Wright has written a volume on the various economic movements that have occurred in the South since the Civil War.[219] Wright looks at the effect of the South's labor market on the development of the Southern economy and its struggle to emerge from the shadow of a perennial low-wage work force in a high-wage national economy.

A useful biographical source about progressivism in Georgia and the South is Dewey W. Grantham, Mr.'s political biography of Georgia Governor and Senator Hoke Smith.[220] Smith was a strong advocate of vocational education at the national and especially the state level. Finally, Charles W. Dabney wrote an extensive two-volume work on universal education in the South that is an excellent source when studying the educational reform movement during the Progressive Era.[221]

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[218] Cobb.

[219] Wright, *Old South, New South: Revolutions in the Southern Economy since the Civil War*.

[220] Grantham Jr., *Hoke Smith and the Politics of the New South*.

[221] Charles W. Dabney, *Universal Education the South*, 2 vols. (Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina Press, 1936).

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