

WHEN PRACTICE GOES LOCAL:
THE HOMER PITTARD CAMPUS SCHOOL OF MTSU AND EDUCATIONAL
REFORM IN MURFREESBORO, TENNESSEE, 1930-2000

by

Matthew T. Norwood

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
of Master of Arts in History

Middle Tennessee State University
August 2016

Thesis Committee:

Dr. Mary Hoffschwelle, Chair

Dr. Carroll Van West

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to recognize the efforts of Dr. Rita King for her help with this thesis. Dr. King is the head of the Friends of Campus School organization which seeks to preserve the history of Homer Pittard Campus School as well as raise money for the maintenance of the school building and grounds. Dr. King assisted me in obtaining names of former students and teachers of Campus School as well as their contact information for personal interviews. Their words provided much in the history of the school that could not be acquired through other means of research. Her help proved invaluable for this master's thesis.

I would also like to acknowledge those who did manage to take time out of their lives to talk to me about their experiences at Campus School. Oma McNabb, Rita King, Elizabeth Bennett, Suzanne O'Gwynne, Joan Clark Mann, Pat Nelson, and John Womack participated in separate interviews with me and told me much about their experiences at Campus School and their personal feelings about the school. John Womack unfortunately passed away about two months after his interview.

I would also like to recognize those who believed in me and never gave up on me when researching and writing this thesis. Thank you.

ABSTRACT

Following the Civil War, education in the South underwent a major reform movement, resulting in a much more thorough public education system and teacher training program to improve the education of the citizens and reduce the illiteracy rate. In the early twentieth century, Tennessee passed legislation that established three post-secondary teacher training “normal schools” in each of the major regions of the state, along with a laboratory school at each site. This thesis examines the progressive architectural origin of Middle Tennessee State University’s Campus School and how it managed the challenges of the Great Depression, school desegregation, and school overcrowding and also chronicles the impact of its association with the University. Since 1929, Campus School has been housed in a Neoclassical Revival building that has been able to adapt to meet the educational needs of its pupils and the university’s students. Campus School has also weathered significant events of the twentieth century, has benefitted from its association with the University, and has emerged as a valuable educational resource to the University and Rutherford County.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER ONE: THE ARCHITECTURAL CONTEXT OF HOMER PITTARD CAMPUS SCHOOL IN RELATION TO MIDDLE TENNESSEE STATE UNIVERSITY.....	14
Education Reform and Architectural Design.....	16
Campus School: Its Architects and Architecture.....	27
Change Over Time at Campus School.....	36
CHAPTER TWO: CAMPUS SCHOOL’S EXPERIENCES WITH SELECTED ISSUES IN TWENTIETH- CENTURY PUBLIC EDUCATION.....	44
The Great Depression.....	44
Desegregation.....	59
School Overcrowding.....	68
CHAPTER THREE: THE LABORATORY SCHOOL EXPERIENCE: THE ACADEMIC ADVANTAGES OF HOMER PITTARD CAMPUS SCHOOL.....	83
Teacher Credentials and Responsibilities.....	84
Education Technology.....	90
Middle Tennessee State University’s Influence on Campus School.....	106
CONCLUSION.....	122
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	126

	Page
APPENDICES.....	138
APPENDIX A: PHOTOGRAPHS.....	139
APPENDIX B: LENGTH OF SCHOOL TERM 1928-1938.....	149
APPENDIX C: EDUCATION EXPENDITURES IN TENNESSEE 1928-1938.....	150
APPENDIX D: TEACHER TRAINING IN THE (WHITE) COUNTY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF TENNESSEE 1928-1937.....	151
APPENDIX E: TEACHER CERTIFICATION IN THE (WHITE) COUNTY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF TENNESSEE 1928-1937.....	152
APPENDIX F: SCHOOL ENROLLMENT IN TENNESSEE 1921-1973.....	153
APPENDIX G: TOTAL ENROLLMENT IN RUTHERFORD COUNTY SCHOOLS 1921-1973.....	154
APPENDIX H: CAMPUS SCHOOL ENROLLMENT 1922-2000.....	155
APPENDIX I: IRB APPROVAL.....	156

AUTHOR'S NOTE

In both of their respective histories, Middle Tennessee State University and Homer Pittard Campus School have undergone several name changes. MTSU was originally founded as Middle Tennessee State Normal School in 1911. In 1925, MTSNS was renamed Middle Tennessee State Teachers College, or MTSTC. In 1943, MTSTC became Middle Tennessee State College, and remained a state college until 1965 when it became Middle Tennessee State University.

Likewise, Homer Pittard Campus School was founded on the same day as MTSU and was named Model School. Some sources refer to the school as the Model and Practice School. In 1929, when the school's current structure opened, Model School was renamed Training School, a name it retained until 1957 when it was renamed Campus School. The minutes of the Rutherford County School Board refer to the school during this time as MTSC Campus School. When MTSC became MTSU, the school was renamed MTSU Campus School. In 1985, MTSU Campus School was renamed in honor of Dr. Homer Pittard, a longtime educator who had taught at MTSU for a number of years.

For the sake of simplicity, both institutions will be referred to in this master's thesis using their current names, where applicable.

INTRODUCTION

Middle Tennessee State University began as a normal school, a teacher-training institution. Originally founded as Middle Tennessee State Normal School in 1911, the university was the end result of a reform movement in Tennessee that sought the expansion of public education programs including a teacher training program. The movement strove to improve the State of Tennessee's education deficits at the turn of the century, when illiteracy numbers were high and public education was limited largely to elementary grades and was poorly funded at the local and state levels. Reform legislation enacted by the Tennessee General Assembly in 1909 called for the creation of four normal schools, one for the training of white teachers in each of the three Grand Divisions of Tennessee and one for the training of African American teachers, located in Nashville, with a training school attached to each normal school.

The purpose of the training school was to allow the students of the normal school, later teachers' college, to participate in a practicum in which they practiced what they had learned in the classroom prior to receiving their teaching certification. The training school component is essential because it allows for a hands-on opportunity to apply educational theory and develop skills necessary to become an effective teacher and is one of the last legs of the training experience before the teacher enters the real world of classroom instruction. According to William C. Bagley's "The Place of Applied Philosophy in Judging Student Teaching," "the training school is in many ways a microcosm of our system of universal education.... For the training schools set the

standard for the beginning teacher and what they reflect in practice is quite likely to be what the teacher will at least have as an ideal when he enters the public-school service.”¹ MTSU’s training school appears to have served this purpose since its founding in 1911.

Middle Tennessee State University and Homer Pittard Campus School have their origins in the southern education reform movement that began towards the end of the nineteenth century. According to Andrew David Holt’s dissertation “The Struggle for a State System of Public Schools in Tennessee, 1903-1936,” Tennessee lacked a state-regulated system of public education at the end of the nineteenth century.² Earlier, in 1835, the Tennessee General Assembly established a “state board of commissioners,” including a state superintendent of schools, which it entrusted to oversee the state’s monies for public schools. However, by 1844, due to the state school superintendent’s improprieties in managing the account, the office was eliminated, and the responsibility restored to the state treasurer. For almost a decade afterward, the General Assembly took no additional action toward a state-run system. In 1852, the legislature established “a twenty-five cent tax on those who voted, plus a small tax on property in the state” which went to the state’s education program and was the first such tax in the state’s history.³ In the post-Civil War era, the state legislature passed “An Act to Provide for the

¹ William C. Bagley, “The Place of Applied Philosophy in Judging Student Teaching,” in *Educational Administration and Supervision* 17 (1931): 335, quoted in Edward Irwin Franklin Williams, “The Actual and Potential Use of Laboratory Schools: In State Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges” (PhD diss., Columbia University, 1942), 39.

² Andrew David Holt, “The Struggle for a State System of Public Schools in Tennessee, 1903-1936” (PhD diss., Columbia University, 1938), 3.

³ Dick Bryan Clough, “A History of Teachers’ Institutes in Tennessee, 1875-1915” (EdD diss., Memphis State University, 1972), 33-34.

Reorganization, Supervision, and Maintenance of the Common Schools,” in 1867 as part of Governor William G. Brownlow’s attempt to establish a system of universal public education. The law reinstated the state superintendent’s office, allowed for the election of county superintendents, and imposed a tax for the support of the education system. The 1869-1870 legislature repealed the law, only for the 1873 legislature to reinstate it. Unfortunately, the law was generally ignored for thirty years.⁴

Efforts to aid education toward the end of the nineteenth century came intermittently. In 1875, the legislature passed the State Board Law, which provided for a “state body [to] be appointed to assist in the management of Peabody College,” a state normal school, and the only viable option for training teachers in Tennessee at that time.⁵ With the exception of providing legislation for affordable textbooks for children, the state legislature enacted little for education until the early twentieth century.⁶ The State of Tennessee started to take a more direct approach towards education only after a coalition of state teachers associations and public school administrators campaigned for its improvement. In 1902, several laws recognized the organization of the public schools as grades one through eight with county high schools providing education following the eighth grade. These laws also authorized the development of a common school curriculum, the establishment of a length of school term, government compensation of

⁴ Holt, 3.

⁵ Ibid., 14.

⁶ Ibid., 18.

teachers, the approval of textbooks, and the formalizing of teacher training and certification.⁷

Although not the only measure intended to enhance public education enacted during the first decade of the twentieth century, the General Education Bill of 1909 was crucial to the formation of a public school system in Tennessee. This bill embraced all of the education reformers' points that had failed to pass previously. The 1909 act established the General Education Fund, which comprised 25% of state revenue.⁸ These funds were apportioned for the payment of county superintendents, maintenance of the schools and school libraries, and the establishment of high schools.⁹ Section Seven stated that funds would be set aside for the creation of four normal schools to train teachers.¹⁰

Prior to the formation of normal schools in the United States, teachers were relatively untrained and typically had completed only an elementary education. According to L. Dean Webb, the "common practice," was to allow people without formal training to begin teaching on the condition that they attended a teacher institute, which was a biannual session that lasted for several weeks.¹¹ The normal school system was established to offer a more formal brand of teacher education. In 1824-1825, James

⁷ Ibid., 31-32, 67-87.

⁸ Tennessee Department of Public Instruction, *Public School Laws of Tennessee to June Thirtieth 1911* (Nashville, 1911), 76-77, <https://ia801400.us.archive.org/9/items/publicschoollaw00tenngoog/publicschoollaw00tenngoog.pdf>.

⁹ Ibid., 79-80.

¹⁰ Ibid., 82-83.

¹¹ L. Dean Webb, *The History of American Education: A Great American Experiment* (Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson, 2005), 160.

Carter, who has been described as the “father of normal schools,” began a crusade for the establishment of a state-supported normal school system.¹² Although his proposal failed to garner support, according to Cecil H. Allen’s “Legal Principles Governing Practice Teaching in State Teachers Colleges, Normal Schools, and Public Schools,” Carter’s efforts held “fundamental principles of teacher training which are still pertinent today.”¹³ Horace Mann appears to have been responsible for launching the first normal school in the United States, which opened in Lexington, Massachusetts, in 1839. Massachusetts opened additional normal schools in 1839, 1840, and 1853; Rhode Island also operated a normal school in Providence in 1854.¹⁴ Normal schools took hold in the northern United States, but the South lacked formal teacher training for some time.

According to Dick Clough’s study of teacher training from 1875 to 1915, there were three types of institutes in Tennessee following the Civil War for teacher training: Peabody Normal School, now part of Vanderbilt University, state teacher training institutes, and county training institutes.¹⁵ However, the county institutes “provided little of value,” while Tennessee’s teacher training institute system as a whole was “handicapped by a lack of state financial support and the failure of the legislature to enact

¹² Williams, 2-3; Cecil H. Allen, “Legal Principles Governing Practice Teaching in State Teachers Colleges, Normal Schools, and Public Schools” (PhD diss., George Peabody College for Teachers, 1937), 13.

¹³ *Ibid.*, 13-14.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, 15-17.

¹⁵ Clough, 2.

compulsory attendance regulations, teacher certification requirements, and a uniform course of study.”¹⁶

As a result, Peabody Normal College appears to have been the only professional training available to the state’s teachers prior to the 1909 law. Initially known as the University of Nashville, it became Peabody Normal College in 1875 with the passage of the State Board Law, which provided for a “state body [to] be appointed to assist in the management of Peabody College.”¹⁷ The State of Tennessee started making financial appropriations to the normal college in 1881, effectively making it the only state normal school in Tennessee.¹⁸ According to Holt, Peabody “probably did as much as any other single agency in Tennessee to...raise the standard of training for the teachers in Tennessee.”¹⁹ Between 1857 and 1902, Peabody trained between one and three hundred teachers annually.²⁰ Although these figures are impressive, T.C. Karns, an education professor at the University of Tennessee, noted in his 1900 article “Institutes and Normal Schools”: “It is a remarkably strange fact that Tennessee has no special state normal school while other states have generally from four to fourteen.”²¹ Karns strongly suggested that the State of Tennessee provide more support to Peabody Normal College

¹⁶ Ibid.

¹⁷ Ibid., 14; Peabody Normal College was named for banker George Peabody, who established the Peabody Educational Fund in 1867 “for the benefit of education in the Southern states,” and received funding from the Peabody Fund.

¹⁸ Ibid., 47.

¹⁹ Holt, 38.

²⁰ Ibid.

²¹ T.C. Karns, “Institutes and Normal Schools,” *Southwest School Journal*, quoted in Clough, 186.

while also establishing “not fewer than three local normal schools, one for each grand division of the state.”²² The passage of the 1909 General Education Bill fulfilled Karns’s wish.

The legislation that created Tennessee’s normal school system required that each of the four normal schools have attached to it “one or more practice and observation schools.”²³ The earliest teacher training schools in the United States date back to New Mexico in the 1600s, when Franciscan friars apprenticed their highest-achieving students as teachers. In the early nineteenth century, Mother Seaton and Reverend Samuel Hall established teacher-training demonstration schools in Maryland and Vermont respectively. Both “required practice teaching and had many of the characteristics of present-day normal schools.”²⁴ The laboratory school at the normal school in Lexington, Massachusetts, was “committed to the immediate care of the pupils of the Normal Schools.”²⁵ Its principal, Cyrus Pierce, felt that prospective teachers’ observation of proper instructional techniques was the best means “to combine...theory and practice.”²⁶ By the twentieth century, this notion still held true with William Bagley and William Learned’s 1920 study *The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools*, declaring that the training school “constitutes the characteristic laboratory

²² Ibid.

²³ *Public School Laws of Tennessee to June Thirtieth 1911*, 83.

²⁴ Williams, 2.

²⁵ Quoted in Williams, 4.

²⁶ Ibid.

equipment of a normal school or teachers college, and the courses in observation, participation, and practice teaching should be looked upon as the central and critical elements in each of the curricula.”²⁷

Tennessee initiated public normal schools and training schools simultaneously; the training school for Middle Tennessee State University, then known as Middle Tennessee State Normal School, was established the same day the university started classes. The General Education Act of 1909 called for cities interested in hosting one of the normal schools to issue \$100,000 in bonds with less than 5% interest. The City of Murfreesboro and Rutherford County worked together to bring MTSNS to Murfreesboro. The Murfreesboro City Council authorized \$25,000 in bonds, while the Rutherford County Quarterly Court authorized \$100,000 in bonds.²⁸ The state accepted their collective bid along with the bids from Memphis and Johnson City on December 9, 1909, and Middle Tennessee State Normal School started classes on September 11, 1911.²⁹

Campus School started as Model School, a small school located on Maple Street, near the campus. When its current structure was completed in 1929, Model School officially became Training School. On December 16, 1933, the Murfreesboro-based newspaper the *Daily News Journal* quoted Campus School principal, Dr. J.C. Waller as saying, “the [Campus] School serves the Teacher’s College as a hospital serves the

²⁷ William Bagley and William Learned, *The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools: A Study Upon an Examination of Tax-Supported Normal Schools in the State of Missouri* (1920), 192, quoted in Williams, 14.

²⁸ David L. Rowe, “A Remarkable Legacy,” in *MTSU: A Centennial Legacy*, ed. Janice M. Leone (Murfreesboro, TN: Twin Oaks Press, 2011), 9.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, 14.

medical school; it acts as a laboratory to give the teachers an opportunity to perfect the technique of teaching.”³⁰ Principal Waller also stated that Campus School was “leading the way for the elementary schools of Rutherford and adjoining counties,” because its curriculum catered to the needs of the child.³¹ Campus School followed a form of progressive education based on the ideals of reformers of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, such as psychologist John Dewey. Dewey believed that education should be a child-centric institution, rather than teacher-centric, with greater emphasis on the individual rather than the collective.³² Indeed, Waller studied under Dewey when he attended Columbia University and emphasized that Campus School specialized in the “doctrine of individual differences.”³³ Dewey’s individual approach to education stemmed from his belief that children acquire skills differently; if a child is a slow learner, being held back in the classroom should not be a negative consequence, but rather the child should be subject to different learning techniques in order to ensure his ability to learn.³⁴ Principal Waller appears to have agreed with Dewey, for Campus School offered standardized tests which “determine[d] the relative strength of each child and [allowed staff] to pursue a method of remedial teaching in the essential things.”³⁵

³⁰ “Training School Here Serves As Model For Many Schools In This Section,” *Daily News Journal*, December 16, 1933.

³¹ *Ibid.*

³² Lyle E. Bourne, Bruce R. Ekstrand, and Roger L. Dominowski, *The Psychology of Thinking* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1971), 31.

³³ *Ibid.*

³⁴ Bourne, Ekstrand, and Dominowski, 31.

³⁵ “Training School Here Serves As Model For Many Schools In This Section.”

Educators continued to follow Principal Waller's approach during the ensuing decades, for in the summer of 1968, Campus School offered a "Summer Enrichment Program," one component of which provided help in reading comprehension. According to the *Daily News Journal*, the program provided "[a]n individual reading program for students needing special help in reading," with the overall purpose being "to work individually with special problems in reading." The article also emphasized that "[e]very material and method available will be employed to enable each child to make the greatest amount of progress possible in improving his [or her] reading."³⁶

By that time, the school's name had changed from Training School to Campus School. In 1957, Principal Hilary Parker advocated for the name to be changed to Campus School, stating:

I got it changed, the word Training School sounded like you should jump through a hoop like a dog would at the circus, and we didn't have to argue about it if we called it the Campus School, the school on the campus of the college for elementary children. So they bought that idea readily and it was changed as soon as I came.³⁷

In 1960, the school became known as MTSC (later MTSU) Campus School.³⁸ In July, 1981, Rutherford County School Board member Ed Jordan moved to rename MTSU Campus School in honor of Dr. Homer Pittard, a long-time educator in the Rutherford

³⁶ "Campus School Session June 3," *Daily News Journal*, May 13, 1968.

³⁷ Hilary Parker, interview by Regina Forsythe, tape recording, 26 August 1995, Quintin Miller Smith Collection, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

³⁸ Volume 4 of the Rutherford County School Board Minutes reveal that the minutes for the April 30, 1960 school board meeting indicate Campus School as "MTSC Campus School." When MTSC became MTSU, the minutes reflect this name change.

County school system, Rutherford County board member, and member of the MTSU Education Department.³⁹ In 1985, MTSU Campus School was officially renamed Homer Pittard Campus School, a name it has held since.⁴⁰

This study employs a plethora of sources that provide much-needed historical information concerning Campus School within the context of Rutherford County, Tennessee's education services and the campaign for a public education system and a normal school system, and how normal schools and their training schools started. Most of the primary source information in this thesis comes from the minutes of the Rutherford County School Board, issues of Murfreesboro's *Daily News Journal*, and the published reports and administrative records of the Tennessee Department of Education, as well as oral histories of former teachers, staff, and students at the Albert Gore Research Center on MTSU's campus, including those conducted specifically for this thesis. Sources concerning the history of Middle Tennessee State University included early issues of *The Midlander*, MTSU's student-run yearbook which chronicled much of the Campus School staff's credentials.

A large collection of secondary sources was also utilized for this thesis. Andrew David Holt's dissertation "The Struggle for a State System of Public Schools in Tennessee, 1903-1936," Dick Bryan Clough's dissertation "A History of Teachers' Institutes in Tennessee, 1875-1915," Cecil Allen's 1937 dissertation "Legal Principles

³⁹ Minutes of the July 2 and July 16, 1981 Meeting, Volume 13, Rutherford County School Board Minutes, Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁴⁰ Box 20, Folder 5, Jennifer F. Martin, "National Register of Historic Places Registration Form," June 4, 1992, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Governing Practice Teaching in State Teachers Colleges, Normal Schools, and Public Schools,” and Edward Williams’s 1942 dissertation “The Actual and Potential Use of Laboratory Schools in State Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges” describe Tennessee’s education history as well as the development and significance of normal schools and their training facilities. *Middle Tennessee State University: A Centennial Legacy* provided details about the founding of MTSU. Architectural history sources included Stewart Brand’s *How Buildings Learn: What Happens After They're Built?*, John Milnes Baker’s *American House Styles: A Concise Guide*, William Cutler’s article “Cathedral of Culture: The Schoolhouse in American Educational Thought and Practice Since 1820,” Margaret Slater’s master’s thesis “The Evolution of Schoolhouse Architecture in Tennessee,” and the nomination form for Campus School to the National Register of Historic Places.

Sources concerning the events of the twentieth century that directly affected education included David Kennedy’s *Freedom from Fear: The American People in Depression and War, 1929-1945*, H. Blair Bentley’s “Pedagogy in Peril: Education in the Volunteer State During the Depression,” and Elisabeth Hansot, Robert Lowe, and David Tyack’s *Public Schools in Hard Times: The Great Depression and Recent Years*, Melinda Johnson Lickiss’s master’s thesis “Integration of Schools in Murfreesboro, Tennessee: A Community Study” and Richard Pride and J. David Woodard’s *The Burden of Busing: The Politics of Desegregation in Nashville, Tennessee*. Sources used to discuss the MTSU-Campus School connection included David Carlton’s *Student's Guide to Landmark Congressional Laws on Education*, particularly the Education of All Handicapped Children Act. Carol Ferring Shepley’s *Movers and Shakers, Scalawags and*

Suffragettes: Tales from Bellefontaine Cemetery and Christina More Muelle's *The History of Kindergarten: From Germany to the United States* discuss the history of kindergarten in the United States. The history of computers in the classroom came from oral histories from Steve Jobs, the co-founder of Apple and advocate for the use of computers in educational centers, *Computer Innovations in Education*, a report from the Department of Health, Education, & Welfare, and excerpts from Nancy Nelson Knupfer and Robert Muffolette's *Computers in Education: Social, Political & Historical Perspectives* and *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*.

The major theme that runs throughout this thesis is that programs and achievements at Campus School shaped the history of not only MTSU, but also the Rutherford County school system. In order to explain the uniqueness of Campus School, Chapter 1 of this thesis analyzes the school's progressive building design and its context within the time in which it was constructed. Chapter 2 considers three major events of the twentieth century that influenced education —the Great Depression, the desegregation of public education, and school crowding caused by the post-World War II baby boom — and their effects at Campus School. Chapter 3 identifies the advantages Campus School had over other schools in the Rutherford County school system as a result of its connection with MTSU.

CHAPTER ONE

THE ARCHITECTURAL CONTEXT OF HOMER PITTARD CAMPUS SCHOOL IN RELATION TO MIDDLE TENNESSEE STATE UNIVERSITY

Following the passage of Tennessee's General Education Act of 1909, and its call for the creation of three normal schools for white students in each of the primary regions of the state, each normal school was required to have a laboratory or observation school "in which shall be taught at least all the subjects prescribed for the primary schools of the State."¹ MTSNS's laboratory school was housed in various locations before the current structure was built. Since its opening in 1929, the school building now known as Homer Pittard Campus School has become a staple in the Murfreesboro community, creating a sense of pride for those who previously attended or worked there as well as for the university's College of Education. Its relationship with MTSNS (now Middle Tennessee State University) has influenced the school's overall appearance and design, maintenance, and continued use and adaptation. Campus School also reflects the modern design and reforms in school buildings that were prolific during the latter decades of the nineteenth and early decades of the twentieth century.

Founded as the Model School for Middle Tennessee State Normal School in 1911, the observation school was located off campus on Maple Street near downtown Murfreesboro, and encompassed grade levels one through eight. In 1915, Model School became an on-campus school, occupying four rooms of the Administration Building, now

¹ J.W. Brister, "General Education Bill," in *Public School Laws of Tennessee to June Thirtieth 1911* (Nashville: State Printer, 1911), 76-87, accessed June 12, 2016, <https://ia801400.us.archive.org/9/items/publicschoollaw00tenngoog/publicschoollaw00tenngoog.pdf>.

Kirksey Old Main, with the MTSNS education department directly responsible for its operation.² In the mid-1920s, anticipated enrollment growth at the newly renamed Middle Tennessee State Teachers College and the need for more space in the Model School made a new, separate building necessary. MTSNS president Pritchett Alfred Lyon voiced his opinion in 1922 concerning the construction of a new school building specifically for the training of teachers, stating that “the next objective should be the building of a modern building... sufficient to take care of all the grades the students of the Normal School will have to teach when they have finished their courses.” President Lyon justified the new building because “the rooms now being used for [the purpose of the training school] ...are needed for the regular work of the [normal] school.”³ To meet that end, President Lyon “asked for an unprecedented structure that could be constructed for a cost not to exceed \$15,000 to \$20,000.”⁴ He proposed a new school building to be completed around 1926. Some relief was provided in 1925, when Model School became an off-campus school once again, moving to the building that formerly housed the East End Grammar School on Murfreesboro’s East Main Street, where it remained until the completion of the new, more expansive structure. The Nashville-based architectural firm Marr and Holman began construction of the new observation school for the Middle Tennessee State

² U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form Homer Pittard Campus School*, by Jennifer F. Martin (Murfreesboro, Tennessee, 1992), Section 8, 9, Box 20, Folder 5, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

³ State of Tennessee *Annual Report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1921-1922* (Tennessee Department of Education, 1922), 344.

⁴ *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form Homer Pittard Campus School*, Section 8, 9.

Teachers College in 1928 on land that the City of Murfreesboro donated to the College. At a cost of \$140,000, the new school building was completed in 1929 and was named the “Training School.”⁵

Education Reform and Architectural Design

A wave of school building reform that commenced during the nineteenth century and peaked during the early twentieth century influenced the architectural design of Campus School. According to historian John Rury, schools had initially been rural constructs, in which lessons were conducted in log cabins, shacks, and huts.⁶ As Carl Kaestle showed in *The Evolution of an Urban School System: New York City, 1750-1850*, by the middle of the nineteenth century, “grand public buildings which would be permanent and prominent” had become the norm, with school design and location being important considerations, rather than postscripts.⁷ Newer ideas about the permanence and efficiency of school buildings came about partially as the result of the Industrial Revolution, which gripped the United States during the nineteenth century. The Industrial Revolution gave rise to the factory system, which saw vast improvements in design in order to increase worker efficiency. Consequently, the concept of permanence in

⁵ Ibid.

⁶ John L. Rury, *Education and Social Change: Themes in the History of American Schooling* (Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., 2005), 16-17.

⁷ Carl Kaestle, “The Evolution of an Urban School System: New York City, 1750- 1850,” 177, quoted in William W. Cutler III, “Cathedral of Culture: The Schoolhouse in American Educational Thought and Practice Since 1820,” *History of Education Quarterly* 29, no. 1 (Spring 1989): 2.

buildings represented an endeavor to utilize building materials that allowed factories to last longer as well increase efficiency. In urban areas, buildings utilized steel skeleton designs along with modern comforts such as bathrooms, running water, and ventilation. Public buildings followed suit, with Classical Revival styles used as a means to provide an impressive and powerful building façade, evoking feelings of permanence and importance. Thus, permanence in school architecture was a consequence of nineteenth century America's transition from a "conservative rural state to an urban, industrialized, corporate society," with increased emphasis placed not only on the practicality of construction but also on the psychology of architecture.⁸

Permanence made its way into Tennessee schools in the later nineteenth century. Tennessee's early schoolhouses, like those elsewhere, were of log construction, contained inadequate furnishings, and lacked proper ventilation. According to Margaret Slater's master's thesis "The Evolution of Schoolhouse Architecture in Tennessee," early school buildings "mirror[ed] the plan of the one-pen log house," which was a common construct in Tennessee.⁹ Slater analyzed a replica of the 1794 Sam Houston Schoolhouse as a typical example of this design. The school, although built with a gabled roof, contained only one entrance and one window.¹⁰ Obviously, the school lacked much of what Progressive educators would later deem necessary for schoolchildren to learn effectively. These conditions persisted well into the nineteenth century, and any plans for

⁸ Rury, 29.

⁹ Margaret Slater, "The Evolution of Schoolhouse Architecture in Tennessee" (master's thesis, Middle Tennessee State University, 1987), 3.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, 19.

improvement were suspended during the Civil War.¹¹ In the post-Civil War era, short-lived legislation attempted to implement standards for school building design, but failed. However, towards the end of the nineteenth century, the state started to make major efforts to improve school building design.¹² Building materials were the first major improvement in school buildings. In 1875 almost two thousand log construction schools operated in Tennessee, while a little over one thousand frame construction schools existed.¹³ Thirteen years later, there were more frame schoolhouses than log school buildings.¹⁴ The trend of phasing out log school buildings continued into the twentieth century. By the end of the 1928-29 school year, forty-three log schools still existed in Tennessee, with 5,282 frame-based schools constructed.¹⁵ By the end of the 1936-37 school year, sixteen log school buildings operated in the State of Tennessee.¹⁶ The State of Tennessee's *Annual Report of the Department of Education For the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1936* stated that only one log school building operated in Rutherford

¹¹ Ibid., 31.

¹² Ibid., 31-41.

¹³ Ibid., 44.

¹⁴ Ibid., 47.

¹⁵ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1929* (Nashville, 1929), 30.

¹⁶ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1937* (Clarksville, 1937), 57.

County for the 1935-1936 school year.¹⁷ No log school buildings operated in Rutherford County in the 1936-1937 school year.¹⁸

In addition to permanence, the importance of the Industrial Revolution on school design throughout the United States is evident in subtler qualities of the building façade. According to David Tyack and Elizabeth Hansot's *Managers of Virtue: Public School Leadership in America, 1820-1980*, industrialism directly influenced building features such as larger, open rooms and corridors, as well as the inclusion of large windows in urban high schools. Tyack and Hansot propose that these features represent the openness associated with the factory system that replaced the American agrarian system.¹⁹ Open rooms, corridors and the placement and size of windows were reminiscent of the main work areas in a factory. The modeling of schools on factory buildings had an additional meaning. Some schools were built specifically for training people who would immediately enter the workforce; a school that resembled a factory would allow students to become more acquainted with a factory setting. To that end, some schools were built with décor that reminded students of the overall purpose of the school. For example, William Cutler III's "Cathedral of Culture: The Schoolhouse in American Educational

¹⁷ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education For the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1936* (Clarksville, 1936), 179.

¹⁸ *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1937*, 133.

¹⁹ Elizabeth Hansot and David Tyack, *Managers of Virtue: Public School Leadership in America, 1820-1980* (New York: Basic Books, 1982), 4-5.

Thought and Practice since 1820” provides an image of a frieze above the main entrance of Northeast High School Annex in Philadelphia that depicts people engaged in manual labor.²⁰

According to Cutler, schoolhouses constructed toward the end of nineteenth century also had the emerging ideals of Progressive Era educators in mind.²¹ These new schools included large, multipurpose structures that accommodated an expanding curriculum of physical education, music, art, home economics, and manual arts. During this time, schools were moving away from the memorization and recitation technique that had dominated pedagogy in the United States. Early reformers such as Horace Mann and progressive John Dewey believed schools should cater to the needs of the children instead of being teacher-focused institutions.²² Progressive Era reformers connected pedagogy to other problems they saw in education. One problem was the inefficiency of the one-room schoolhouse, a structure that had persisted for over one hundred years prior to the Progressive Era. One deficiency of the one-room schoolhouse was that it could not accommodate newer pedagogies and instead confined teachers to the memorization and recitation methods. Furthermore, the typical one and two-room school designs, with one or two teachers instructing multiple grades, led to limited curriculum and public health concerns because only reading, writing, and arithmetic were taught in a poorly ventilated

²⁰ William W. Cutler III, “Cathedral of Culture: The Schoolhouse in American Educational Thought and Practice Since 1820,” *History of Education Quarterly* 29, no. 1 (Spring 1989): 16.

²¹ *Ibid.*, 16.

²² L. Dean Webb, *The History of American Education: A Great American Experiment* (Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson, 2005), 213.

and illuminated environment.²³ With the rise of the secondary school, which would prepare students for either the workforce or college, teachers needed to apply new pedagogical theories to such subjects as fine arts, physical education, the hard sciences and mathematics, and literature. With a more enlightened approach to teaching and learning, “school design responded to the developments in pedagogy and public health through modification in the plans, classrooms, corridors and ancillary spaces such as gyms and cafeterias.”²⁴

Also during this time, public education assumed a more significant role in the American South, as state governments viewed education as a means to eliminate illiteracy and create a more efficiently educated populace.²⁵ The result was a major shift in the construction of public schools in southern states. In 1891, Tennessee enacted new legislation, providing for both a primary and secondary school system. This ultimately caused the overall size of schools to increase from the one-room school house, leading to the consolidation of smaller schools and the introduction of larger, modern school buildings.²⁶

North Carolina schools built in the early twentieth century also reveal the impact of progressive educational reform on architecture. According to Abby Gentry’s “1920’s

²³ Cutler, 6-7.

²⁴ Abby Anne Gentry, “1920’s North Carolina High Schools Adapting to Twenty-First Century Needs” (master’s thesis, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 2012), 30-31.

²⁵ U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form-(former) Reidsville High School*, by Laura A.W. Phillips (Reidsville, North Carolina, 1993), 8.

²⁶ Slater, 50.

North Carolina High School Adapting to Twenty-First Century Needs,” with increased “state funding and rapid urban growth, educational facilities in North Carolina became a showplace on par with most state educational facilities around the country.”²⁷ Her analysis of a selection of these modern school buildings shows that each was built in the classical style and is representative of the modern school design that Progressive Era educators advocated. The schools in North Carolina that Gentry analyzes contain large windows that allow for more natural light to fill a space so that people can see more effectively. As Tyack and Hansot noted, this type of fenestration reflected the industrial influence on urban school design as the inclusion of large windows was reminiscent of a factory commonly found during the Industrial Revolution.²⁸

All of these North Carolina schools possess a grand one- or two-story portico, a raised basement with two stories atop the basement, and a well-proportioned exterior. Some feature a pediment above the portico, while others have engaged columns, which are attached to the front of the building. The differences in each school’s exterior reflect the architects’ wish to avoid uniformity. According to C.B.J. Snyder, an architect and the superintendent of school buildings for New York City, “look-alike facades on school buildings detracted from their dignity.”²⁹ With the North Carolina schools, while the floorplans appeared to be the same, the building façades, although in the same style, contained differences that made each school unique from the other schools around it.

²⁷ Gentry, 1.

²⁸ Hansot and Tyack, 4-5.

²⁹ Cutler, 9-10.

School consolidation also played an important role in the rise of the modern school design. The rise of paved roads and the introduction of automobiles allowed people to travel greater distances, further rendering the local one-room schoolhouse an archaic concept.³⁰ Such was the case for the North Carolina schools nominated to the National Register of Historic Places. Nomination forms for the former Reidsville High School, Henrietta-Caroleen High School, Woodland-Olney School, and the former Sanford High School specifically cited consolidation as the purpose for the construction of each of these schools, as well as other schools throughout North Carolina. In Tennessee, consolidation began as early as 1891 when the legislature passed a law creating a graded system for primary and secondary schools.³¹ Expanding the grades of the public school system resulted in the construction of larger schools. The 1935 report *School-Plant and Consolidation Survey of the Schools of Rutherford County, Tennessee* indicated that “the need in Rutherford County for the next decade is not more buildings for school purposes, but fewer more adequate buildings to take the place of many small, poorly equipped ones.”³² With the increased size of school buildings, together with rising traveling abilities, school children could learn more efficiently than before. Increased efficiency was the signature of the Industrial Era and, when applied to school building

³⁰ Gentry, 28-31.

³¹ Slater, 50.

³² Ray L. Hamon, Rutherford County School Board of Education, *School-Plant and Consolidation Survey of the Schools of Rutherford County, Tennessee* (Nashville: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1935), 11.

design, the one-room schoolhouse was phased out and the construction of larger, multipurpose schools became the norm.

Publications concerning the design of modern school buildings disseminated education reform concepts and design to school districts planning to construct new schools. Many schools built during the early decades of the twentieth century appear to have implemented the ideals of Fletcher B. Dresslar's 1916 publication *School Hygiene* and his 1925 publication *American School Buildings*, as well as May Ayres, Jesse Williams, and Thomas Wood's 1918 publication *Healthful Schools: How to Build, Equip and Maintain Them*. These three works provided guidelines and rationales for constructing new, modern, and cleaner school buildings. These included the dimensions of the classrooms and hallways/corridors, the placement and dimensions of windows, the size of gymnasiums and auditoriums, location of stairwells and playgrounds, ideal school construction sites, and best practices to clean the classrooms. The use of these guidelines allowed architects to construct a modern school that provided state of the art design and, more significantly, safety features. Other progressive innovations that these works stressed were the inclusion of amenities such as water fountains and bathrooms within the building that had been rarities in previous school building designs but architects hoped would become common features in the early decades of the twentieth century.³³

By the twentieth century, Tennessee was making its own efforts to improve school building design. Initially, the state's public schools lacked building standards.

³³ Fletcher B. Dresslar's *School Hygiene* contains two separate chapters dedicated to bathrooms and drinking fountains, detailing the need for both of these features and certain criteria that officials should follow to implement them effectively.

According to Andrew David Holt, state laws passed in 1869 and 1902 prevented the Tennessee State Department of Education from having authority over school building design. Holt noted that of the 7,136 schools in Tennessee in 1902, 1,070 were of log construction.³⁴ However, according to Margaret Slater, the State's opinion of school building design eased by 1908. In the *Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1907-08*, Superintendent Robert L. Jones reported that the State Legislature allowed for "the preparation of plans and specifications for rural school buildings which were subsequently prepared and distributed to public school officials" throughout Tennessee.³⁵ The Tennessee Department of Public Instruction published in 1907 a book of schoolhouse designs, all of which were the work of the Chattanooga-based architectural firm Adams and Alsup. The firm had previously designed other schools and their design book "discussed subjects such as heating, lighting, ventilation, and proper materials for floors and ceilings."³⁶ The 1907 design book also included classical architectural styles for the school buildings' exterior and interior decorative elements.³⁷ As a result, the county boards of education throughout the state that followed these plans,

³⁴ Andrew David Holt, "The Struggle for a State System of Public Schools in Tennessee, 1903-1936" (PhD diss., Columbia University, 1938), 79.

³⁵ Slater, 53.

³⁶ *Ibid.*, 54.

³⁷ *Ibid.*, 54-55.

according to Jones, “greatly improved” schoolhouse architecture.³⁸ The state followed up in 1927 with the passage of new legislation that “facilitated the acquisition of modern school building[s] for the county school systems.”³⁹

While John Dewey and other movers and shakers of the Progressive Era looked upon building design as one means to improve America’s educational insufficiencies, they also concentrated on school curriculum to help students escape their “isolation and secure the organic connection” with a society that wanted them to succeed.⁴⁰ Their recommendations to marry school design and curriculum, and thereby create an educational symbiosis, led not only to larger buildings but the inclusion of specialized spaces for subjects newer to the public school curriculum such as music and art, along with gymnasiums for physical education and a “well-stocked library.”⁴¹ However, few schools existed that incorporated Progressive concepts. With the dawn of the twentieth century and more governmental involvement in meeting the education needs of its citizenry, a school construction boom for both grade schools and universities occurred. Architects had to be tuned in to these educational issues and infuse both pragmatic and classical aesthetic elements into their school designs.

³⁸ Ibid., 53.

³⁹ Ibid., 63.

⁴⁰ Cutler, 10.

⁴¹ Ibid.

Campus School: Its Architects and Architecture

By the time of Campus School's construction, schools throughout the United States followed designs that provided amenities and spaces for the expanded school curriculum and took into account concerns about permanence, pedagogy, and public health and hygiene that Progressive Era educators championed. "Modern" school buildings were necessary in order to accommodate these additions to educational training, as well as to house multiple grades and courses. Therefore, it appears that two endeavors impacted Campus School's design: new legislation that urged the construction of modern schools and Campus School's function as the observation and training school for MTSU.

Because its overall existence and mission are the result of the directives of the State of Tennessee, Campus School was a prime candidate for a modern school building. Normal schools and teachers' colleges typically educate students in the newest theories and practices concerning education, which likely require new facilities to put these new teaching methods of into practice. When MTSU opened in 1911, an expanded curriculum was becoming the norm and, consequently, educating future teachers in the new aspects of the expanded curriculum became necessary. Normal schools and teachers' colleges started instructing student teachers in physical education, music, and industrial arts and increased their focus on teaching reading. To meet these ends, evidence suggests that MTSNS officials believed that their laboratory school should be housed in a new modern school building to accommodate the ever-expanding curriculum their graduates would have to teach.

Cecil H. Allen noted in his dissertation “Legal Principles Governing Practice Teaching in State Teachers Colleges, Normal Schools, and Public Schools,” regarding the State of Indiana’s training school building requirements, that a training school “must be housed in a modern building of adequate size, properly heated, lighted, and ventilated.”⁴² The 1929 MTSTC Training School building exemplifies this assertion. At the time of its construction, it was larger than the other public schools in Rutherford County and incorporated modern approaches to heating, ventilation, and light as well as pedagogy, reflecting the concerns of education reformer Horace Mann as well as Progressive Era educators such as John Dewey and Fletcher B. Dresslar.

Campus School was built in the Neoclassical Revival style, a restrained derivative of the Classical Revival style. According to John Milnes Baker’s *American House Styles: A Concise Guide*, the Neoclassical Revival started around 1895 and was an alternative to the “ostentatious” monumentality of the Beaux-Arts, a style containing coupled columns, stone basements, grand staircases, and freestanding statuary.⁴³ According to Jennifer F. Martin, who prepared the National Register nomination form for Campus School, Neoclassical Revival buildings are “larger than Greek Revival buildings of the nineteenth century.” Moreover, Martin quoted architectural historian Marcus Whiffen, who stated that a common feature of Neoclassical architecture is “broad expanses of plain wall

⁴² Cecil H. Allen, “Legal Principles Governing Practice Teaching in State Teachers Colleges, Normal Schools, and Public Schools” (PhD diss., George Peabody College for Teachers, 1937), 87.

⁴³ John Milnes Baker, *American House Styles: A Concise Guide* (New York: W.W. Norton & Company, 2002), 98-104.

surface[s].”⁴⁴ Martin connects Whiffen’s description to Campus School’s “long, stoic appearance of the front façade.”⁴⁵ The popularity of the Neoclassical Revival style in America had its foundation in the buildings designed for the Chicago World’s Fair of 1893. Thereafter, the design became wildly fashionable for many types of public and private buildings during the early twentieth century. A staple of Neoclassical Revival architecture is the inclusion of a central, two-story portico with Corinthian or Ionic columns, which was a dominant feature in this style along with building symmetry.⁴⁶ The interior décor of a Neoclassical Revival building was also restrained, limited to the commons areas of the building such as the main lobby or the library, which in the case of Campus School is located directly above the lobby. Both of these areas feature crown molding and wainscoting paneling, and are the only rooms in the building to have such décor. The use of the Neoclassical Revival style for Campus School fulfilled two major aspects of building design: the building style cut costs because of its restrained features while satisfying MTSNS President Pritchett Alfred Lyon’s desire for the construction of a building that “need not be ...pretentious.”⁴⁷ The two-story portico is the only distinguishing feature of the building’s exterior. The school’s interior also has a limited

⁴⁴ Marcus Whiffen, quoted in Martin, *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form Homer Pittard Campus School*, Section 8, 14.

⁴⁵ Jennifer L. Martin, *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form Homer Pittard Campus School*, Section 8, 14.

⁴⁶ Baker, 98-104.

⁴⁷ *Annual Report of the Department of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction For the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1921-1922*, 344.

décor in keeping with the Neoclassical Revival's "restrained...decorative details."⁴⁸ Given the use of such architectural designs for school buildings, along with Campus School's use of a concrete foundation, brick walls, and asphalt roof, the concept of permanence is clearly evident.⁴⁹ Unlike log structures, construction of buildings using classical styles requires a multitude of thought, planning, and design before the execution of construction, which itself required the use of building materials that had to be fabricated or manipulated on-site.

Campus School's architectural style and design suggest a strong association with the university's oldest structure. When Middle Tennessee State Normal School opened, only four buildings were on the campus. One of these was the Administration Building, now Kirksey Old Main (KOM), designed by Nashville architect C.K. Colley.⁵⁰ As stated previously, KOM was one of the early locations for Campus School. When plans were made to construct Campus School, it appears that the noted Nashville architectural firm Marr and Holman modeled it after the KOM. When juxtaposed, both buildings share similar features, including a symmetrical facade, a columned two-story portico, a sloping front staircase leading to the main entrance located on the second floor, stairwells located at either side of the building, and a raised basement. KOM, however, has a more ornate exterior than Campus School, such as gables located at each end of the building and a

⁴⁸ Baker, 98.

⁴⁹ Jennifer L. Martin, *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form Homer Pittard Campus School*, Section 7.

⁵⁰ D. Lorne McWatters, "A History of Place," in *MTSU: A Centennial Legacy*, ed. Janice M. Leone (Murfreesboro, TN: Twin Oaks Press, 2011), 22.

decorative structure above the portico. (figure A.8) Campus School lacks these features, in keeping with the Neoclassical Revival style, but still maintains an impressive columnar entrance. Photographs taken of MTSU's campus during the late 1920s and throughout the 1930s show that Campus School resembled other early campus buildings, such as the original library building.

Moreover, Campus School's story of moving to various buildings before entering a new, modern building parallels that of other training schools in this time period, both private and public. The Peabody Demonstration School opened in 1915 in Nashville for the Peabody Normal College. The school occupied the basement of the college's Psychology Building, which "soon became overcrowded." When the college constructed a new building, the Stucco Building, grades seven through twelve remained at the Psychology Building, and grades one through six moved into the Stucco Building. Like Campus School, the number of enrollees exceeded the allotted space in both buildings, and on May 1, 1925, a new, modern building opened, built as a result of a \$750,000 grant from the Rockefeller Foundation. The newly constructed building, according to *The Past Is Prologue: Peabody Demonstration School 1915-1970*, "was constructed in the architectural style of the college buildings-traditional with Romanesque influences."⁵¹ Like Campus School, the new building contained laboratory facilities, a library, a gymnasium, and an adequate number of classrooms.⁵² Since its completion, the building

⁵¹ Theresa Bell et al., *The Past Is Prologue: Peabody Demonstration School, 1915-1970* (Nashville: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1970), 26.

⁵² *Ibid.*, 25-26.

has undergone various renovations, financed through grants and private donations, such as improving the library and gymnasium facilities and remodeling classrooms.⁵³

Campus School was not the only university laboratory school in Tennessee that the 1909 General Education Act mandated. East Tennessee State Normal School, now East Tennessee State University, in Johnson City was established initially as a two-year normal school in 1911 and its observation school was born shortly afterward. Like Campus School, it was originally named Model School and moved to its current ETSU campus building in 1929. It was renamed University School in 1949.⁵⁴ According to the ETSU 2014 Accreditation Report, the building now serves kindergarten through twelfth grade and is composed of “thirty-three classrooms, including four science labs, four computer labs, and two learning cottages. There are 18 office areas, a gymnasium, a Media Center, a small cafeteria, a conference room, and several storage rooms.”⁵⁵ The Neoclassical Revival building itself, while somewhat similar to Campus School in overall appearance, is larger, contains three stories above ground with large windows, and is made of red brick with concrete trim. The entry is less dramatic, with a narrower and shorter stairway approach and six two-story pilasters spaced across the front and above a Palladian doorway (figure A.13).⁵⁶ Its imposing and enduring presence is consistent with

⁵³ *Ibid.*, 26-32.

⁵⁴ “University School: About Our School,” East Tennessee State University, accessed January 31, 2016, <http://www.etsu.edu/uschool/about/history.aspx>.

⁵⁵ *Eastern Tennessee State University School 2014 Accreditation Report Executive Summary* (Nashville: AdvancED, 2014) 3, accessed January 31, 2016, http://www.etsu.edu/uschool/accreditation/documents/advanced_report_04_02_14_executive_summary.pdf.

⁵⁶ “University School: About Our School,” <http://www.etsu.edu/uschool/about/history.aspx>.

the newer school plans of the period and is an excellent companion to its MTSU “cousin.”

At the other end of the state, in Memphis, is another example of the use of a specific architectural style used in the construction of a school building during the early twentieth century. Built in 1911 in the Jacobean Revival style, Central High School, though not a laboratory school, is a red brick structure with four floors, one of which is partially below ground. The entry has fewer steps to the doorway, which is enclosed with two Doric columns and capped with a classical pediment. There are large windows but no columns across the façade. A gymnasium was added in 1949, and a more contemporary classroom addition was built in 1967 (figure A.14). The original building was placed on the National Register of Historic Places in 1982.⁵⁷

These additional examples of Tennessee schools designed and built during the same period of Campus School further validate the developing Progressive Era ideas of the time within the state. Campus School very closely resembles the Henrietta-Caroleen High School in Mooresboro, North Carolina. Completed in 1925, Henrietta-Caroleen offers many of the features found at Campus School, with the exception of a denticulated pediment above the portico and a chimney located on the right side of the building instead of the center (figure A.16).

The multiple stylistic, pedagogical, and health concerns that a building like Campus School had to address made skilled architects a necessity. Nashville-based

⁵⁷ Lloyd Otsby, *Public Schools of Memphis 1902-1915 Thematic Resources* (Memphis: Memphis Landmarks Commission, 1982) accessed January 31, 2016, <http://focus.nps.gov/nrhp/GetAsset?assetID=5e64131f-2218-4ae4-8044-29739aa121df>.

architectural firm Marr and Holman received the commission to design Campus School. The firm's style of choice was based upon the Neoclassical Revival style.⁵⁸ Their previous public buildings included the James Robertson Hotel, the United States Postal Service building (now the Frist Center for the Visual Arts), and the Tennessee State Supreme Court building, all of which are located in downtown Nashville (figure A.9 – A.12).⁵⁹ Many of their buildings constructed in downtown Nashville are listed in the National Register of Historic Places.⁶⁰

The use of architects who specialized in classical styles for school buildings also places Marr and Holman's selection as the architects of Campus School within a regional pattern that extended beyond Tennessee. As seen in the examples discussed previously in this chapter, North Carolina school systems also used architects proficient in classical architectural styles, with some having previously designed school buildings. According to the National Register nomination form for the former Reidsville High School in Reidsville, North Carolina, the architectural firm Northop & O'Brien designed the 1923 structure. They had previously built over one hundred schools between 1915 and 1940, many of which used the Classical Revival and Colonial Revival style (figure A.15).⁶¹ Cliffside Public School's architect also had experience with Colonial and Classical

⁵⁸ U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, *National Register of Historic Places Inventory- Marr and Holman Buildings in Downtown Nashville*, by James Draeger and Philip Thomason (Nashville, Tennessee, 1984).

⁵⁹ Ibid.

⁶⁰ Ibid.

⁶¹ *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form-(former) Reidsville High School*, Section 7, 5.

Revival styles as well as school building design. Louis Humbert Asbury had constructed six schools before the Cliffside Public School and had also worked on the Cliffside Mills office building in 1917, three years before building Cliffside Public School (figure A.17).⁶² Moreover, according to its National Register nomination form, “the prolific” Harold Macklin, a local architect, designed the now closed Atkins High School in Winston-Salem, North Carolina (figure A.20).⁶³ He had previously built the Winston-Salem Journal building in the Georgian Revival style and the Young Men’s Christian Association building, also in Winston-Salem, using the Classical Revival style.⁶⁴

Employing architects with experience in styles involving ornate exterior characteristics shows the seriousness with which the state as well as the community approached education and enhancing the learning process. According to Gentry, progressivism allowed communities to view education as a means for economic and social advancement and one way to attain this was through architecture.⁶⁵ The Classical style was justified as a means of presenting a “pleasing exterior,” one in which a “grand front façade [makes] an important statement to the community.”⁶⁶ As Horace Mann

⁶² *Register of Historic Places Registration Form-Cliffside Public School*, Section 7, 23.

⁶³ U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form-(former) Atkins High School*, by Langdon Edmunds Oppermann, Section 7, 1 (Winston-Salem, North Carolina, 1997).

⁶⁴ Kristi Marion, “Local Architecture,” MyWinston-Salem.com, October 14, 2014, accessed January 4, 2016, <http://www.mywinston-salem.com/local-architecture/>.

⁶⁵ Gentry, 31.

⁶⁶ *Ibid.*

stated in his “Supplementary Report on the Subject of School-Houses,” if a schoolhouse is one of “the most attractive objects in the neighborhood,” children are likely to learn more effectively.⁶⁷

Change Over Time at Campus School

Although Campus School’s connection to MTSU is evident in its style and design, it has undergone constant upgrades and adaptations since its completion in 1929 that have allowed it to continue operating as a school. Campus School is technically a university building subject to actions and decisions of MTSU officials. Often universities update or upgrade buildings instead of demolishing them and replacing them with new structures. Doing so saves time and money that universities frequently lack. For example, as of 2015, two buildings on the campus of MTSU are undergoing renovations. The Wiser-Patton Science Hall, built in 1932, and the Davis Science Building, built in 1968, are currently under renovation to suit the needs of future students and professors.⁶⁸ Older MTSU buildings such as Kirksey Old Main and Peck Hall, as well as buildings on other campuses, contain updates made years after their initial construction. Rooms have been

⁶⁷ Horace Mann, “Supplementary Report on the Subject of School-Houses,” 435-6, quoted in Cutler, 17.

⁶⁸ Randy Weiler, “Older MTSU Science Facilities Await \$20m Renovations,” mtsunews.com, July 30, 2015, accessed January 3, 2016, <http://www.mtsunews.com/davis-wiser-patten-await-renovations/>.

repurposed, walls have been installed or removed, and newer electrical and computer cables have been fitted in rooms in order to suit the current or modern needs of students and professors.

Campus School reflects the practice of upgrading the old rather than building anew, partly because of the cost involved in demolition and construction and also the significance that the building holds within the community and with its graduates. Its constant upgrades and adaptations reflect the ideals of Stewart Brand's work *How Buildings Learn: What Happens After They're Built*, which details the journey of buildings from the time of their construction to the time of their demolition. Brand contends that a building should not be a static construct, but rather a dynamic edifice that is subject to constant refinement, adaptation, and reuse.⁶⁹ He noted in his work that buildings such as George Washington's Mount Vernon and Thomas Jefferson's Monticello were subject to numerous building additions that suited the needs and desires of the owners. Consequently, both buildings look completely different from when they were first built.⁷⁰ Brand's book delved into how buildings can be constructed for an initial purpose, but later adapted if the building's purpose has changed. What is more, Brand stated that older buildings can be upgraded to fulfill the current owner's, or society's, needs.⁷¹ Campus School, like other older university buildings, fits into Brand's thesis for it has undergone numerous renovations since its establishment. Education has

⁶⁹ Stewart Brand, *How Buildings Learn: What Happens After They're Built* (New York: Penguin Books, 1995), 2.

⁷⁰ *Ibid.*, 40-41.

⁷¹ *Ibid.*, 2.

changed dramatically since the current Campus School building's construction.

Technology was not a standard tool for education, certain subjects taught then are not taught now, and certain extracurricular activities are no longer offered today.

Campus School's upgrades have allowed today's generation of students to learn in a building constructed in the late 1920s. Although a detailed list of building changes since 1929 does not exist, some of the major changes at Campus School occurred in the 1980s. In 1972, the middle school grades moved to the renamed Central Middle School, and the school's athletics department disbanded, leaving the school's gymnasium to physical education classes and activities of outside organizations. The two balconies in the gymnasium had very little use, and were repurposed as rooms. Photographs taken during the 1980s show construction underway to enclose the balconies. One balcony became a teacher workroom that housed teacher supplies and their mailboxes.⁷² The other balcony eventually became a computer laboratory following the installation of the school's first computer system.⁷³

The introduction of computers had a drastic effect on Campus School. In the early 1980s, local businessman Jennings Jones donated Campus School's first computer, an

⁷² I visited Campus School on May 10, 2016 and it appears that this room, which is on the northern side of the gymnasium, has been repurposed again as the guidance counselor's office, further proving the continuation of repurposing rooms at Campus School.

⁷³ Boxes 10-12 of the Homer Pittard Campus School Papers at the Albert Gore Research Center at Middle Tennessee State University contain photographs taken over the decades showing the evolution of the balconies in the gymnasium. Although they are in the background of the photographs, the balconies appear enclosed, with a single photograph in Box 12 showing the balcony on the northern side of the gymnasium being used for storage prior to its enclosure. The dates of these photographs range from 1986 and 1990.

Apple II, to the school.⁷⁴ When more computers became available at the school, they were placed in the repurposed balcony, effectively creating Campus School's first computer laboratory. Over thirty years later, each classroom now holds several computers, and the school has two computer labs. The second computer lab is a recent renovation and is located in a room that was previously used as a classroom for university students.⁷⁵ During the 1990s, the internet became a standard tool for education, and Campus School staff adapted by stringing Ethernet cables along the tops of hallway walls that feed into each classroom.⁷⁶

Campus School and MTSU officials continued to make improvements in the early 2000s. An HVAC unit was installed in the gymnasium starting at the end of 2001-2002 school year, which greatly improved the use of the gym. In 2007, the school underwent another major renovation in order to bring it up to building codes. In keeping with MTSU's responsibility for the school, MTSU President Sidney McPhee secured a donation of one million dollars for a major improvement program that would allow the school to continue in its current building. In addition to MTSU's donation, a combination of state funds and private donations enabled the school to have the necessary enhancements, including modern technology and ventilation equipment.⁷⁷ A new

⁷⁴ Carole Shelton, "Campus School PTA plans Big Apple Day Carnival," no date, Box 6, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁷⁵ Author's recollection.

⁷⁶ Author's recollection.

⁷⁷ Michelle Willard, "MTSU and Christy-Houston Foundation Fund Campus School Renovations," *Murfreesboro Post*, August 28, 2007, accessed January 4, 2016, <http://www.murfreesboropost.com/mtsu-and-christy-houston-foundation-fund-campus-school-renovations-cms-6151>.

comprehensive HVAC system eliminated the steam heating system and window air conditioning units. Each room now has its own HVAC unit, and the radiators that were in each classroom and the hallways were removed.⁷⁸ Additional improvements were made to audio-visual equipment. Classrooms no longer have televisions, but rather projectors connected to television tuners, movie viewing equipment, and a computer that allows students to view instructional material via the Internet and video.⁷⁹

Additionally, officials adapted the building was adapted in 2007 to fulfill the requirements of current safety laws. All schools must be equipped with adequate fire suppression systems for the protection of the students, teachers, and staff. At Campus School, some relief was previously provided with the installation of walls that enclosed the stairwells at each end of the building, but the specific year in which they were built is unknown. Up to this point, the school also lacked fire sprinklers and as part of the new building upgrade a sprinkler system was installed in every room, hallway, and stairwell in order to meet state fire safety codes.⁸⁰ Furthermore, administrators added an elevator system to comply with the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 and accommodate people with mobility issues.⁸¹

⁷⁸ Author's recollection.

⁷⁹ Author's recollection.

⁸⁰ Mary Catherine Sevier, "Campus School Turns 80—come to the Party Nov. 6!," *The Record*, October 19, 2009, 2, accessed January 4, 2016, http://www.mtsu.edu/news/Record/Rec_v18/rec1808.pdf.

⁸¹ Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990, Public Law 101-336, § 303, *U.S. Statutes at Large* 104 (1990): 327-78, codified at *U.S. Code* 42 (1990), § 126. For additional information regarding Campus School's ADA accommodations, see Mary Catherine Sevier's "Campus School Turns 80—Come to the Party Nov. 6!," from *The Record*, October 19, 2009.

While the interior of Campus School has undergone multiple changes over the years, the building's exterior has changed very little since its construction. The only major alterations were the removal of the chimney on top of the building, the inclusion of ductwork, the addition of the elevator at the back of building, the filling in of several windows in the front of the building and in the stairwells with brick, and the installation of a door on the front right side of the building.⁸² Thus Campus School's exterior did not have alterations that would impair its integrity and historical significance, and the building was successfully nominated to the National Register of Historic Places in 1994. Campus School met the NRHP Criterion A for its "statewide significance in the development of teacher education in Tennessee because of its role in the scientific training of elementary and secondary school teachers in the state."⁸³ Campus School also exemplified Criterion C, for it "embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method, of construction or represents the work of a master," or holds "high artistic values."⁸⁴ Campus School, like the North Carolina schools which also exemplify the qualities of both Criteria A and C, is an example of the local use of classical architecture in a public building, whose architects had previous experience in constructing buildings with similar building styles and attributes.

Although it is a university building, because it is listed on the National Register of Historic Places, Campus School is also subject to the guidelines of the National Park

⁸² Author's recollection.

⁸³ *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form Homer Pittard Campus School*, Section 8, 7.

⁸⁴ *Ibid.*, Section 8.

Service and the Department of the Interior if the university wanted to utilize federal money to work on the building. As such, all measures must be taken to avoid damaging the building's historical significance when making any alterations to the exterior or interior.⁸⁵ Over the years, even with the aforementioned exterior modifications, none has compromised Campus School's historical value or authenticity. Trees and playground equipment in front of the school have also been removed over the years, but the front landscaping, like the building façade, still appears as it did when the building first opened.⁸⁶

Campus School's architectural history is rooted in the early twentieth-century Progressive Era's emphasis on proper school building design, and its overall appearance is the result of its affiliation with the university and the prevalent architectural styles of the period. Its association with the university is also evident in the continued maintenance and building upgrades, the latter of which became apparent towards the end of the twentieth century. Its ties with MTSU have allowed Campus School to evolve and incorporate education and technological advancements as well as innovations in order to adhere to building codes and legislation. Throughout its history, the current Campus School building has fulfilled the proposals of Horace Mann, John Dewey, Fletcher B. Dressler, May Ayres, Jesse Williams, Thomas Wood, and Stewart Brand that have made it not only a safe and enlightened learning environment but also one that is capable of

⁸⁵ "Rehabilitation Standards and Guidelines," National Park Service, accessed January 4, 2016, <http://www.nps.gov/tps/standards/rehabilitation.htm>.

⁸⁶ *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form Homer Pittard Campus School*, Section 7, 1.

necessary change. The university has maintained the building since its construction in 1929 and its continued support allows the school to become a source of community pride, sustained elementary teacher training for university students, and a reminder of how modern school building design came about in the South.

CHAPTER TWO

CAMPUS SCHOOL'S EXPERIENCES WITH SELECTED ISSUES IN TWENTIETH- CENTURY PUBLIC EDUCATION

Following the establishment of a well-regulated public school system, more Americans had access to formal education in the twentieth century. The United States had reached the level of democracy that Founding Father Thomas Jefferson had envisioned, for his stance was that a “continuous system of public education” was “the primary requisite of a free society.”¹ However, throughout the twentieth century, American education could not escape historical events that hindered the learning process and created tense social situations that still shape schools and society. Oral histories with former students and teachers show that Campus School’s distinctive status as Middle Tennessee State University’s laboratory school shaped their experience of those events. This chapter focuses on three examples of Campus School’s distinctive experiences of national issues – the Great Depression, desegregation, and school overcrowding – that influenced education, both positively and negatively.

The Great Depression

By the end of the year that Campus School was completed, the United States was on the verge of the Great Depression. During the 1920s, America returned to a state of

¹ S. Alexander Rippa, *Education in a Free Society: An American History* (White Plains, NY: Longman, 1997), 55.

“normalcy” after World War I. The economy improved; American culture saw a resurgence with the rise in jazz music and the advent of motion pictures as a form of artistic expression; the automobile industry started building more affordable cars; and, the radio became the primary means of communication.² This perceived era of “normalcy” was shattered towards the end of the 1920s when agriculture began to suffer. Yet industry thrived. According to David Kennedy, wages for industrial workers increased by 25%, creating a workforce that had money to spend. In addition to the rise of the automobile industry and the desire of everybody to own a car, products such as canned goods, refrigerators, and telephones were widely available and affordable.³

However, stock prices began to fall in September of 1929, and their descent continued until October 23, when “an avalanche of liquidation” led to “six million shares changing hands.” As a result, investors lost four billion dollars.⁴ On October 24, known as “Black Thursday,” almost thirteen million shares were sold, leading to losses of about nine billion dollars.⁵ Five days later, on October 29, known as “Black Tuesday,” over sixteen million shares were exchanged, and stocks continued to freefall in the coming weeks.⁶ Banks began to fail as people withdrew all their money from their accounts at an alarming rate. In 1929, 659 banks closed; one year later 1,352 banks shut their doors.⁷ As

² David M. Kennedy, *Freedom from Fear: The American People in Depression and War* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2005), 22-23.

³ *Ibid.*, 22-23.

⁴ *Ibid.*, 37.

⁵ *Ibid.*, 38.

⁶ *Ibid.*

⁷ *Ibid.*, 65.

a result of these misfortunes, people lost their jobs, products went unsold, and businesses failed. President Herbert Hoover and the federal government were slow to respond, and limited measures such as the Reconstruction Finance Corporation proved unable to halt the economy's decline.

The Great Depression did not immediately affect public education. Elisabeth Hansot, Robert Lowe, and David Tyack's *Public Schools in Hard Times: The Great Depression and Recent Years* presented data from the National Education Association (NEA), indicating that between 1929 and 1931, teachers and principals actually received a raise in salaries, and education continued to receive funding, with enrollment also increasing.⁸ By 1932, education started to feel the Depression's pinch. Public education relied on tax revenue as a means of support, and when people lost their jobs and homes, tax revenue was severely squeezed, which caused a drastic reduction in school budgets.⁹ Consequently, school officials cut funds for the schools and suspended all nonessential activities, such as physical education, music, and art. Teachers and principals also suffered, with their salaries reduced or not paid at all.¹⁰ In most states, schools were unable to adapt to the lack of funds and simply closed for months at a time, and the schools that did not close faced hardships.¹¹ In addition to deferring payment to teachers and principals, amenities to schools were cut. Schools implemented rationing of coal,

⁸ Elisabeth Hansot, Robert Lowe, and David Tyack, *Public Schools in Hard Times: The Great Depression and Recent Years* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1984), 20.

⁹ *Ibid.*, 32.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, 39-40.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, 34.

resulting in the inadequate heating of the school during the winter; electric lights stayed off; and school supplies were limited. With the inability to offer adequate salaries, some schools resorted to offering new teachers the opportunity to sleep in their classrooms as payment for their service.¹²

President Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal combatted these extraordinary problems, and some of its programs offered strategies for aiding schools and students. Because countless high school males dropped out of school in order to provide for their families, many of them joined the Civilian Conservation Corps, an army-managed relief program that employed young unmarried men and provided manual training to unskilled laborers.¹³ The CCC not only included vocational training but also academic training, and was a team effort on the part of the United States Army, the Forest Service, and public school teachers. According to Howard W. Oxley, many states reassigned "relief teachers" to CCC classrooms with the intention of "expand[ing] classroom instruction." About twenty thousand public school teachers provided instruction to CCC enrollees.¹⁴ These young men, between the ages of eighteen and twenty-three and numbering approximately three hundred thousand at the height of the program, assisted with land reclamation projects, including reforestation, and made infrastructure improvements to

¹² Ibid., 32.

¹³ Robert Fechner, "The Civilian Conservation Corps Program," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 194 (November 1937): 131-32.

¹⁴ Howard W. Oxley, "Educational Activities in the CCC Camps," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* 10, No. 3 (November 1935): 142.

federal lands and parks across the country.¹⁵ Not only was this program well-liked overall, in addition to its development of the participants' work-related skills and the provision of financial assistance, their families back home received most of the men's pay.¹⁶

Other New Deal programs directly aided public school systems. The Public Works Administration constructed over 13,000 schools, over 100 public libraries, and almost 60,000 classrooms, while the Works Progress Administration employed thousands of teachers for adult education and literacy courses. The WPA also provided maintenance to older schools, re-painting and repairing the buildings and utilizing the school cafeterias to feed needy students.¹⁷ The National Youth Administration also aided the American education system, allowing students to obtain an education while also employing them to perform tasks that benefitted society.¹⁸ The CCC managed to put young people to work, while the WPA and the PWA succeeded at keeping schools open, and NYA kept students in school both at the secondary and collegiate levels. The New Deal package of opportunities was designed to address the entire country's economic woes, but each state had its own story of adversities.

Tennessee was certainly not immune to the Great Depression. Many of its teachers worked without being paid for at least a year, and were told their money would

¹⁵ L. Dean Webb, *The History of American Education: A Great American Experiment* (Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson, 2005), 249.

¹⁶ Fechner, 131.

¹⁷ Webb, 250-51.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, 249.

be payable once funds became available. According to H. Blair Bentley's "Pedagogy in Peril: Education in the Volunteer State During the Depression," schools in Tennessee felt its severe impact. Bentley stated that "there was little spare cash with which to engage" in education endeavors and that "salaries discouraged all but the heartiest" educators.¹⁹ During the 1931-1932 school year, Tennessee provided almost \$15.1 million for the payment of teachers' salaries.²⁰ Total expenditures for the 1931-1932 school year in Tennessee totaled about \$31.7 million.²¹ The following school year, the State of Tennessee provided just over \$13.5 million for teachers' salaries, a figure that reflected the sharp decrease in the amount of money spent on education.²² In the 1932-1933 school year, total expenditures for education totaled a little under \$24 million.²³ A total decrease of over \$7 million in education expenditures is astounding, given that previous school years had hovered around \$30 million. By January 1933, the State of Tennessee owed six

¹⁹ H. Blair Bentley, "Pedagogy in Peril: Education in the Volunteer State During the Depression," *Tennessee Historical Quarterly* 43, no. 2 (Summer 1984): 173.

²⁰ Total calculated from the addition of the amount denoted as "Salaries of Teachers," part of "Instructional Services," of the county [Page 42] and city [Page 44] elementary and high schools in Tennessee from the Tennessee Department of Education *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1932*. The total calculated was \$15,093,038.37.

²¹ Total calculated from the addition of the total expenditures of the county [Page 43] and city [Page 45] elementary and high schools in Tennessee from the *State of Tennessee Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1932*. The total calculated was \$31,681,902.41.

²² Total calculated from the addition of the amount denoted as "Salaries of Teachers," part of "Instructional Services," of the county [Page 159] and city [Page 160] elementary and high schools in Tennessee from the Tennessee Department of Education *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1933*. The total calculated was \$13,514,393.88.

²³ Total calculated from the addition of the total expenditures of the county [Page 159] and city [Page 161] elementary and high schools in Tennessee from the Tennessee Department of Education *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1933*. The total calculated was \$23,932,123.37.

million dollars to its teachers.²⁴ Although the 1933-1934 school year rebounded, with just over \$31 million in total expenditures, the following school years saw a steady decrease. Moreover, the amount of funds provided for teachers' salaries steadily fell throughout the 1930s, with about \$12.6 million allocated for the 1934-1935 school year.²⁵ Teachers were earning only \$60 a month, and many of them went unpaid. The money for teachers' salaries did not rebound until the 1935-1936 school year, when the amount of money allocated increased to just over \$6 million.²⁶ However, total expenditures for education following the 1933-1934 school year saw a steady decline. For the 1935-1936 school year, about \$24.8 million in expenditures were reported in the *Annual Report of the Department of Education*, a decrease from the previous year's total expenditures of almost \$27.5 million (table C.1).²⁷ To combat problems with funding, Tennessee teachers, according to Bentley, "were converted to the idea of federal aid to education." By 1935, the East Tennessee Education Association "approved a resolution calling for national support for the ailing educational enterprise."²⁸ On the local level, budgets

²⁴ Bentley, 181.

²⁵ Total calculated from the addition of the amount denoted as "Salaries of Teachers," portion of "Instructional Services," of the county [Page 57] and city [Page 58] elementary and high schools in Tennessee from the Tennessee Department of Education *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1935*. The total calculated was \$12,571,740.00.

²⁶ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1936* (Nashville: Tennessee Department of Education, 1936), 116.

²⁷ Total calculated from the addition of the total expenditures of the county [Page 117] and city [Page 119] elementary and high schools in Tennessee from the Tennessee Department of Education *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1936*. The total calculated was \$24,779,541.26; Total calculated from the addition of the total expenditures of the county [Page 57] and city [Page 59] elementary and high schools in Tennessee from the Tennessee Department of Education *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1935*. The total calculated was \$27,469,358.67.

²⁸ Bentley, 186.

problems eventually made their way to Rutherford County and reached their peak in 1933. On July 27, 1933, the *Daily News Journal* reported five two-year high schools were to be eliminated as a result of budget problems. Additionally, “drastic salary cuts” were made to teachers of all levels, as well as to the superintendents of both the Murfreesboro City and Rutherford County school systems.²⁹

As Tennessee further felt the Great Depression’s effects, schools started closing earlier in the school term, reducing the length of time students attended class. Data from the 1930 Census indicated that Tennessee ranked fortieth “in the number of days school was in session.”³⁰ Five schools in the Rutherford County school system ended their school year prematurely in early March 1931, including Christiana and Kittrell, with thirteen other schools closing about a month later.³¹ The closing is consistent with the Tennessee Department of Education Annual Report for the 1930-1931 school year, which recorded that the white elementary schools in Rutherford County closed after an average of 150 days of operation.³² Two years previous, the white elementary schools in Rutherford County had operated an average of 158 days.³³ City elementary schools in

²⁹ “School Board Cuts Pay, Drops Schools,” *Daily News Journal*, July 27, 1933.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, 174.

³¹ “Five Rutherford Schools to Close,” *Daily News Journal*, March 3, 1931.

³² Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1931* (Jackson: Tennessee Department of Education, 1931), 107.

³³ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1929* (Nashville: Tennessee Department of Education, 1929), 107.

Rutherford County, however, did not suffer as much as the county schools. Between 1928 and 1938, the city schools operated in Rutherford County at a minimum of 175 days (table B.2).

Other education problems that affected Tennessee persisted during the Great Depression. To combat a shortage of teachers, school officials reduced the criteria for teacher certification in order to increase the teaching workforce and fill classrooms.³⁴ When the State Normal Schools opened in 1911, most of Tennessee's teachers had less than a high school education. According to the Tennessee Department of Education's "Evidence of Progress in Tennessee Public Schools," published in 1914, 65% (4,880 out of 7,475) of the state's elementary teachers in the white schools in 1912 had less than a high school education. The rest had either a high school education or higher.³⁵ At the time, the Department of Education certified teachers either through evidence of college training or by taking a state-administered examination.³⁶ With changes in teacher certification in 1925, high school graduates were only minimally eligible for certification. The 1925 certification categories also distinguished between school administrators, high school teachers, and elementary teachers. Elementary school teachers could receive a "Permanent Professional" certificate with two years (90 quarter hours) of higher education training including a minimum of 18 quarter hours of education credit. The

³⁴ Bentley, 176.

³⁵ "Evidence of Progress in Tennessee Public Schools" (Nashville: Tennessee Department of Education, 1914), 6.

³⁶ Tennessee State Board of Education Minutes, February 7, 1924, Series XVI, Reel #105, Box 138, Folder 1, Tennessee Department of Education Records, 1874-1974, Record Group 273, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee, 2.

“Professional” teacher certificate required one year (45 quarter hours) of training including nine quarter hours of education credit. A “Limited Training” teaching certificate required only one quarter (12 quarter hours) along with three quarter hours of education credit.³⁷ This certificate was acceptable for only one year and was renewable each year with verification of the bearer having attended another quarter of college training that included three hours of education credit. As a result, new teachers could enter the teaching profession and obtain certification after completing only one quarter (12 credit hours) of college training. Those teachers with less than a high school education and who had examination-based certificates issued prior to 1925, could enter the Normal Schools as “Special Students” in the spring and summer and take high school courses designed for them to complete their diploma.³⁸

However, with the Depression in full sway in 1933, a new state law allowed those teachers with the “Limited Training” certificate to avoid fulfilling renewal requirements until 1935.³⁹ The number of teachers who possessed a Permanent Professional or a Four-Year Professional certification drastically increased following the 1930-1931 school year. At that time 1,855 white teachers in the county schools in Tennessee had one year of college education. The following school year, 2,555 teachers had one year of college education. Throughout the 1930s, this number increased to over 4,000, with the 1931-

³⁷ *Bulletin of the State Teachers College, Murfreesboro*, Volume 7, Number 1, June 1931: 27, Albert Gore Research Center, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

³⁸ *Bulletin of the State Teachers College, Murfreesboro*, Volume 8, Number 1, July 1932: 28-31, Albert Gore Research Center, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

³⁹ Bentley, 176-177.

1932 and 1932-1933 school years both employing 4,363 teachers who had one year of college education. Although the number of teachers employed in the white elementary schools with less than a high school diploma decreased between 1928 and 1937, the number of teachers who had not completed high school increased. (Appendix B)

While the problems with education during the Great Depression persisted throughout the 1930s, it appears that Campus School did not see as much hardship. Although Campus School operated an entire school year with faculty not being paid, the school experienced the Great Depression somewhat differently than the rest of the district.⁴⁰ A shortened school schedule impacted five other schools in Rutherford County that shut down in the middle of March in 1931. Others closed in the middle of April.⁴¹ Campus School, however, continued to operate until the month of May, along with McFadden School.⁴² The following school year, Campus School closed in late May after four thousand other Rutherford County school students had completed school about five weeks earlier.⁴³ Only two other Rutherford County schools closed in May, Crichlow and Central High School.⁴⁴ Although a county elementary school, Campus School appears to have operated more like a city elementary school and the high schools of Rutherford County at this time. Between 1928 and 1938, students in the elementary schools of

⁴⁰ Oma McNabb, interview by Matthew Norwood, digital recording, 15 September 2015, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁴¹ "Five Rutherford Schools to Close," *Daily News Journal*, March 3, 1931.

⁴² "Negro Schools of County End Today," *Daily News Journal*, March 27, 1931.

⁴³ "Training School Exercises Enjoyed," *Daily News Journal*, May 28, 1932.

⁴⁴ "4,000 Students Free as Rural Schools Close," *Daily News Journal*, April 18, 1932.

Rutherford County went to school for 150 to 161 days. However, students in the Murfreesboro city elementary schools went for 172 to 179 days.⁴⁵ Moreover, the average length of the school year in the Rutherford County high schools ranged from 176 to 179, with most years during the late 1930s averaging 178 school days.⁴⁶

The Great Depression also affected higher education. Although universities did not close during the Great Depression, faculty and staff took pay cuts to offset the deficiencies in funds.⁴⁷ Vanderbilt was one of these universities; its employees took a pay cut until 1937.⁴⁸ University students and faculty also feared shortened semesters and the elimination of various departments. Beginning in 1931, rumors persisted of MTSU's eventual closing due to budgetary problems. However, in February 1932, MTSU President Pritchett Alfred Lyon announced that these reports were unfounded, stating "only an earthquake or something else of cataclysmic dimensions can cause the discontinuance of this institution."⁴⁹ MTSU continued to operate normally, with Dr. Lyon reiterating that definite plans were in place "for the carrying on of our spring and summer

⁴⁵ An examination of the Tennessee Department of Education annual reports for the scholastic years ending between 1928 and 1938 show a range of average term length of 150 to 161 days. The 1930-1931 school year had the lowest average of term length with 150 days, while the 1934-1935 school year showed an average of 161 school days. Moreover, the same reports indicate that the average term length for the city elementary schools ranged from 175 to 179 school days. The 1927-1928 school year shows an average term length of 175 days, while the 1932-1933, 1933-1934, 1934-1935, and the 1935-1936 school years show an average of 179 days.

⁴⁶ An examination of the Tennessee Department of Education annual reports between 1928 and 1938 showed a range of 176 to 179 days. The 1927-1928 and 1928-1929 school years averaged a total of 176 days, while the 1930-1931 school year averaged a total of 179 days. Between the 1933-1934 and 1937-1938 school years, the average length was 178 days.

⁴⁷ Bentley, 186.

⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, 181.

⁴⁹ "Teachers College to Continue Open Says School Head," *Daily News Journal*, February 8, 1932.

quarters just as we have for years past.”⁵⁰ Students at MTSU and the other state normal schools did not pay tuition to attend. According to a state law passed in 1925, students were required “to teach in the public or private school of the State within five years after leaving college at least as long as he or she has been a student therein.”⁵¹ Furthermore, graduates who did not teach might be required to pay back \$30 per quarter that they were enrolled.⁵² In 1931, MTSU charged students an estimated \$76 - \$91 each quarter for particular expenses (registration and activity fees, books, room, and board).⁵³ In 1932, that cost dipped to \$58.25 - \$76.25 per quarter. Part of the reason for that was the change in estimated cost of meals, which dropped \$10 - \$15.⁵⁴ From 1934-1938, the attendance costs stabilized somewhat to \$61 - \$73 per quarter, but the cost of books was not included in those figures.⁵⁵

One of MTSU’s conditions for successful teacher training and certification is practice teaching, which is the original mission of the laboratory school. The laboratory school itself is a requirement of the General Education Bill of 1909, which created the normal school system. Therefore, an early closing of the laboratory school would have limited or even eliminated a key requirement for teacher certification, as well as violated

⁵⁰ Ibid.

⁵¹ *Bulletin of State Teachers College, Murfreesboro*, Volume 11, Number 2, June 1938: 22, Albert Gore Research Center, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁵² Ibid.

⁵³ *Bulletin of the State Teachers College, Murfreesboro*, Volume 7, Number 1.

⁵⁴ *Bulletin of the State Teachers College, Murfreesboro*, Volume 8, Number 1.

⁵⁵ *Bulletin of the State Teachers College, Murfreesboro*, Volume 11, Number 2, 27.

state law. In order to prevent this, it appears MTSU justified the continuance of Campus School's operation despite the dire financial situation.

Moreover, while other school districts reduced or abolished most nonessential courses or offerings because of deficiency in funds during the Great Depression, Campus School's relationship with MTSU allowed its elective or non-essential courses to continue.⁵⁶ In fact, Campus School added courses during the 1930s. In 1932, MTSU faculty offered courses to Campus School students, such as history professor Dr. Carl C. Sims who taught a social science course. Seventh and eighth grade students received manual arts and home economics instruction from MTSU faculty as well. Coupled with the university providing more in the home economics field and fine arts, the addition of these offerings at Campus School ultimately benefitted the university students who trained in these areas.⁵⁷ However, in 1934, Campus School added an art appreciation course in an attempt to have every student "develop a capacity for the enjoyment of the beauty found in home, school, community and the great out of doors."⁵⁸ The new course was intended to "encourage an appreciation of works of master musicians, craftsmen and artists of the past and present."⁵⁹ Such an addition to the curriculum is a striking development, given the nationwide socio-economic situation plaguing the school systems.

⁵⁶ Hansot, Lowe, and Tyack, 40.

⁵⁷ "Training School to Open Monday with Record Attendance," *Daily News Journal*, September 14, 1932.

⁵⁸ "New Course Added at Training School; Benefits Explained," *Daily News Journal*, September 5, 1934.

⁵⁹ *Ibid.*

Campus School also planned field trips to museums and art galleries so that its students had the opportunity to appreciate history and art in the community. Music programs held at the school sampled works from local, as well as well-known, musicians via vinyl records.⁶⁰ Furthermore, the school organized a dramatics club, which prepared and performed one-act plays, while offering two glee clubs and violin lessons.⁶¹ These new course offerings served the junior high grades, which included the newly offered ninth grade that began in the 1934-35 school year.⁶² According to the *Daily News Journal*, “the State Teachers college plan[ned] to make this a model junior high school for Central Tennessee.”⁶³ It appears that, overall, the Great Depression did not severely affect Campus School’s operational ability. Although the school did face difficulties with honoring teachers’ salaries, a common problem throughout the United States during this time, the Great Depression did not close the school. Students received the same, and in some cases more, education that previous students received, while the student-teacher program operated normally.

⁶⁰ Ibid.

⁶¹ “Junior Hi Completed at Training School,” *Daily News Journal*, September 7, 1934.

⁶² Ibid.

⁶³ Ibid.

Desegregation

Following the United States Supreme Court decision of *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*, Campus School and Rutherford County had a peaceful, though lengthy experience with desegregation. In 1954, in the wake of an extensive investigation into the inequality of black and white schools in the South, National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) attorney Thurgood Marshall argued that segregation was inherently unequal and the doctrine of “separate but equal,” issued in *Plessy v. Ferguson*, was unconstitutional. The Supreme Court, under Chief Justice Earl Warren, agreed unanimously and ordered all schools in the United States to integrate “with all deliberate speed.”⁶⁴ The case caused much controversy, particularly in the South, where post-Civil War tensions and Jim Crow practices were still common.

Following the decision, southern state governments reacted in opposition. In a highly publicized case, Arkansas Governor Orval Faubus blocked nine black students, who ultimately became known as the “Little Rock Nine,” from entering Central High School in Little Rock using the Arkansas National Guard to prevent their admittance. Faubus’s decision led President Dwight Eisenhower to federalize the Arkansas National Guard and deploy the 101st Airborne Division in order for the nine students to complete their classes. The incident in Arkansas resulted in the closure of the Arkansas public

⁶⁴ Melinda Johnson Lickiss, “Integration of Schools in Murfreesboro, Tennessee: A Community Study” (master's thesis, Middle Tennessee State University, 1997), 3.

school system for two years.⁶⁵ Other states implemented their own measures to resist integration. Georgia, Mississippi, and Virginia passed legislation that would “preserve the state’s traditional separation of the races.” Georgia Governor Marvin Griffin further stated “there will be no Little Rock here, because the paratroopers can take a hitch in their pants and march up and down in front of an empty school house.” A bill introduced in the Mississippi legislature “authorize[d] school boards to suspend operations rather than allow racial mixing in the classrooms,” while Virginia voted to “cut off state financial aid to schools under orders to integrate.” Virginia Governor J. Lindsay Almond stated he “fully” backed this effort.⁶⁶ In West Virginia, violence against desegregation took a more serious turn at the Osage elementary-junior high school in 1958, when a case of dynamite destroyed the building.⁶⁷

Tennessee also saw violent reactions following the Brown decision. In 1956, Clinton High School in Anderson County was the subject of much publicity when twelve black students enrolled at the school. After protests from local white members of the community turned violent, the National Guard was called in to maintain the peace.⁶⁸ Two years later, a series of explosions significantly damaged the school and prompted Clinton High School to temporarily move to an alternate site.⁶⁹ Nashville also saw tensions when

⁶⁵ Sarah Mondale and Sarah B. Patton, eds., *School: The Story of American Public Education* (Boston: Beacon Press, 2001), 125.

⁶⁶ “More Resistance To Integration Seen In South,” *Daily News Journal*, January 15, 1958.

⁶⁷ Fred Theesh, “Dynamite Wrecks W-VA. School,” *Daily News Journal*, November 10, 1958.

⁶⁸ “Guardsmen Keep Order At Clinton,” *Daily News Journal*, September 4, 1956.

⁶⁹ Steve Gerstel, “Investigators Seek Blast Clues,” *Daily News Journal*, October 6, 1958.

the schools began integrating in 1957, with the Board of Education adopting the “grade-a-year” plan, in which the first grade at all elementary schools integrated as well as each succeeding first grade class. The plan called for all schools to integrate after a period of twelve years.⁷⁰ Following the plan’s adoption, a bomb exploded outside Hattie-Cotton Elementary school, destroying one of the school’s wings.⁷¹ Reacting to the destruction, Police Chief Douglas E. Hosse stated that “this has gone beyond a matter of integration. These people have ignored the laws and they have shown no regard for you or any other citizen.”⁷²

While public school systems were gripped in the tensions of the desegregation order and the fallout that accompanied it, Murfreesboro and Rutherford County schools’ integration procedures appeared peaceful. School officials were determined to prevent demonstrations like those in Nashville, Clinton, and Little Rock. Immediately following the *Brown* decision, Rutherford County Superintendent Ira Daniel stated that the desegregation of the schools depended on the course the Tennessee State Department of Education chose to take before the county school system considered acting on the decision. City School Superintendent Baxter Hobgood took a similar approach, stating “I think we have to wait and see the final pronouncements of the Supreme Court before making any decision... [w]e will have to plan calmly and deliberately.”⁷³ However, to

⁷⁰ Richard A. Pride and J. David Woodard, *The Burden of Busing: The Politics of Desegregation in Nashville, Tennessee* (Knoxville: University of Tennessee Press, 1985), 55.

⁷¹ Ibid.

⁷² Quoted in Richard A. Pride and J. David Woodard, *The Burden of Busing: The Politics of Desegregation in Nashville, Tennessee* (Knoxville: The University of Tennessee Press, 1985), 55.

⁷³ “Local Impact Not Immediate,” *Daily News Journal*, May 18, 1954.

quell a potential backlash of violence towards African Americans, the city of Murfreesboro passed ordinances outlawing “riotous conduct” as well as the unwanted congregation of individuals on private property.⁷⁴ According to Melinda Jordan Lickiss’s master’s thesis “Integration of Schools in Murfreesboro, Tennessee: A Community Study,” Murfreesboro’s relatively uneventful school integration owes more to the work of Superintendent Hobgood and women’s societies that had considerable influence in Murfreesboro.⁷⁵ For fourteen years, Superintendent Hobgood pursued a gradual integration of the Murfreesboro School system. Efforts started with the integration of in-service meetings at which white and black teachers would meet in the same environment and “[become] acquainted and [learn] to trust and rely on each other.”⁷⁶ As a result, teachers in the Murfreesboro City School system had the opportunity to know each other and to understand that racial separation that was once present had ended.

The Murfreesboro School Board voted to appropriate funds for the construction of a new building for all-black Bradley Elementary school in 1953 with similar funding and architectural features to new white schools.⁷⁷ Such an apparent attempt at racial equalization was insufficient following the 1954 *Brown* decision.⁷⁸ Up to that point,

⁷⁴ Lickiss, 24.

⁷⁵ *Ibid.*, i.

⁷⁶ *Ibid.*, 55.

⁷⁷ *Ibid.*, 52-53.

⁷⁸ Webb, 282.

schools for black and white students were separate, but equality was generally not the case. According to Zoe Burkholder, by the early 1950s,

The NAACP abandoned decades of work fighting for the equalization of black schools in the South in terms of better facilities, materials, and teacher salaries—a strategy that had been increasingly successful by 1954. Instead, NAACP activists decided to pursue black equality and fight endemic white racism by removing the legal barriers to quality education, good jobs, adequate health care, and the franchise. Desegregating schools was the first step in what they viewed as a lengthy and strategically crucial battle, but the important factor is that these civil rights activists believed that racial integration was the key to social equality.⁷⁹

After the *Brown* decision, school districts implemented “freedom of choice” plans, in which students could attend the school of their choice. This strategy was thought not to be effective because racial imbalances remained. Further, by the mid-1960s, the glacial pace at which schools desegregated was trying the patience of the federal government. The passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which barred inequities in student treatment “on the basis of race, color, or national origin,” and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, which increased educational funding for efforts at desegregation, accelerated integration’s pace.⁸⁰ According to L. Dean Webb, these two laws employed a “carrot-and-stick” tactic to feed the tempo. The Supreme Court’s decision in 1968 in *Green v. County School Board of New Kent County* required school districts to implement other integration methods if freedom of choice plans failed,

⁷⁹ Zoe Burkholder, *Color in the Classroom: How American Schools Taught Race, 1900 – 1954* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2011), 174.

⁸⁰ Webb, 284-85.

including “forced busing, pairing of schools, consolidating schools, altering attendance zones, reassigning teachers, and using racial quotas.”⁸¹

In 1958, Murfreesboro city school officials integrated school transportation, with white bus drivers transporting black children to the new Bradley Elementary, completed in 1955, another move that maintained segregation but allowed for resources historically reserved for white students to apply to black students as well.⁸² By 1964, 125 black students had enrolled at previously all-white schools, and in 1965, the city school system adopted its “Freedom of Choice Plan,” allowing parents to choose which school they desired their children to attend.⁸³ Once in place, the city school system integrated the teaching staff at the public schools, beginning with Bradley Elementary.

Rutherford County school officials appear to have worked to integrate their schools at a faster pace than Murfreesboro; the city schools had completely integrated by 1968. In a summer 1965 letter to the Office of Equal Educational Opportunity, Superintendent M.B. Brandon and Commission Chairman T.P. Burns asserted that “[a]t no time since the court order have we refused any student’s request to enter any school in the county... [w]e operate a completely desegregated school system in Rutherford County on a voluntary basis and have done so since September 1959 without a single demonstration or sit-in of any kind.” Both officials also stated that the local government, hospitals, and restaurants desegregated “over a period of three to five years without a

⁸¹ Ibid., 285.

⁸² Ibid., 59; Mike West, “Bradley Academy Dates Back to 1811,” *Murfreesboro Post*, January 24, 2010, <http://www.murfreesboropost.com/bradley-academy-dates-back-to-1811-cms-21514>.

⁸³ Ibid., 65-66.

single arrest or an appearance in any of the courts.”⁸⁴ The Rutherford County School Board minutes also included Rutherford County’s desegregation plan, which the State Department of Education approved on May 2, 1965, requiring all students to register at the school of their choice, with teachers, principals, and staff having no say in the parents’ or pupil’s decision.⁸⁵

Although the Rutherford County school system began desegregation in 1959, African Americans did not enroll at Campus School until years later. It appears that Campus School took the same approach that Baxter Hobgood took in the integration of the Murfreesboro City schools. In 1969, Campus School staff took steps to hire their first African American teacher. According to former teacher Elizabeth Bennett, Campus School staff travelled to an African American teacher’s house and “asked her to apply to be a teacher at Campus School.” Her name was Nannie Rucker, and she became a first grade teacher for the 1969-1970 school year.⁸⁶ According to the minutes of the Rutherford County School Board, Rucker’s transfer from her Title I teaching position at McFadden School to Campus School received unanimous approval. Moreover, the Rutherford County School Board indicated that “her salary will be paid 100% by Middle

⁸⁴ Letter to the Office of Equal Educational Opportunity, May 3, 1965, Volume 5, Rutherford County School Commission Minutes, Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁸⁵ Rutherford County Schools Desegregation Plan, Volume 5, Rutherford County School Board Minutes, May 2, 1965.

⁸⁶ Elizabeth Bennett, interview by Matthew Norwood, digital recording, 13 October 2015, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Tennessee State University since this position is above the state minimum program.”⁸⁷

The hiring of an African American teacher appeared to serve as a demonstration of compliance, similar to Hobgood’s plan of transferring black teachers to white schools and vice versa. Rucker’s hiring also furthered the school’s efforts to enroll African American students. However, this step was just the beginning of an active integration of Campus School. The federal Civil Rights Act of 1964 forbade distribution of federal funds to any agency or program that practiced discrimination and thus prohibited educational discrimination based on race; it also authorized the federal government to pursue legal action against school systems that did not take strong steps to integrate schools. The government invoked racial enrollment quotas to enforce this directive. School systems in the South understood that they were up against the wall and were in jeopardy of losing millions of dollars in funding if they failed to comply.⁸⁸ According to Ms. Bennett,

The public school system had already gone through all that resistance. The public school system had already been through a lot of that and so it was when the [Civil Rights Act of 1964] was passed that said this will be the ratio that, and because we were application only, we had not had any applications from African Americans.⁸⁹

Since Campus School was a school of choice rather than a zoned school, but still needed to achieve racial integration, Ms. Bennett, Ms. Rucker and a group of Campus School teachers and staff went to the homes of African American families in the Murfreesboro

⁸⁷ Minutes of the May 22, 1969 Rutherford County School Board Meeting, Volume 6, Rutherford County School Board Minutes, Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁸⁸ William J. Reese, *America’s Public Schools: From the Common School to “No Child Left Behind”* (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 2011), 245.

⁸⁹ Ibid.

area to publicize the school's programs and encouraged them to enroll their children. The African American children who applied received priority status on Campus School's waiting list, causing the children already on the list to wait longer before they could enroll.⁹⁰ Although this created tension for those already on the list, it was a necessity in order to maintain federal funding to the school. By 1973, six of the 63 first grade enrollees (9.5%) were black.⁹¹

As MTSU's laboratory school, which received federal operating funds, and at the same time being a part of the Rutherford County public school system, Campus School was required to fulfill the legal requirements of the *Brown v. Board* decision and the 1964 Civil Rights Act. MTSU's participation in the desegregation of Campus School appears to have been more indirect. Children attended Campus School by choice. However, due to its cap on enrollment, which was a decision in which the University was involved, the children were required to apply to enter and have their names placed on a waiting list, the only school in the county with such a list. Thus, the waiting list appears to be a key element in the university's involvement in Campus School's desegregation. The list was opened to African American applicants, who initially received higher priority for entry so that the county could comply with federal desegregation requirements. As a result,

⁹⁰ Elizabeth Bennett, interview by Matthew Norwood, digital recording, 13 October 2015, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁹¹ Suzanne O'Gwynne, interview by Matthew Norwood, digital recording, 17 December 2015, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

MTSU maintained influence over how many children, but not which children, Campus School could serve.

School Overcrowding

While desegregation of the schools was a major event that forever altered public education in the United States, a problem also emerged in the 1950s and continues to plague some public schools today is overcrowding, which typically results from population growth in the school district. When planning to build schools, officials try to take into account the potential for a rapid increase of enrollees. However, it is difficult to predict accurately the number of students that enroll in a school, with an increase in the overall population in a county or city and the development of subdivisions around a school being the major factors behind high enrollment numbers in the schools. In Tennessee, the number of students in public schools rapidly increased following World War II, reaching almost one million by the 1970s, with Rutherford County witnessing a similar trend.

Beginning in the 1930s, the number of students enrolled in the public schools in Tennessee fluctuated. During the 1930-1931 school year, 639,310 were enrolled in both elementary and high schools throughout the State.⁹² However, during the 1932-1933 school year, the State Department of Education reported a total of 492,734 students

⁹² Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1931* (Tennessee: Tennessee Department of Education, 1931), 154.

enrolled in the public schools.⁹³ Such a sharp decrease in enrollment numbers suggests that students dropped out in order to provide for their families because of the Great Depression. The following year, the number of students enrolled in the schools rebounded dramatically, to over 600,000 and did not fall below this figure for the remainder of the 1930s.⁹⁴ This appears to have been the work of New Deal efforts. Murfreesboro and Rutherford County school enrollment also fluctuated in the 1930s. During the 1931-1932 school year, the *Daily News Journal* reported that 1,600 students were enrolled in the Murfreesboro City schools, while 4,000 students were enrolled in the Rutherford County school system.⁹⁵ According to the State Department of Education's annual report for 1931-1932, the final calculated figure was 7,875 enrolled students for all elementary and high schools in the city and county. Just before the 1934-1935 school year, the *Daily News Journal* reported that the enrollment for that year was "unusually large," with city schools' attendance likely to exceed 1,500, a figure it would maintain for the 1937-1938 school year.⁹⁶ This is consistent with the total enrollment figure for the State of Tennessee, which reached a total of 658,690 for that year.

⁹³ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1933* (Tennessee: Tennessee Department of Education, 1933), 282.

⁹⁴ An examination of the Tennessee Department of Education annual reports between the 1933-1934 and the 1938-1939 school year showed a range of total enrollment in Tennessee between 637,920 and 663,693.

⁹⁵ "1,600 Murfreesboro Youngsters Enroll," *Daily News Journal*, September 14, 1931; "4,000 Students Free As Rural Schools Close," *Daily News Journal*, April 18, 1932.

⁹⁶ "Enrollment At City Schools Is Unusually Large," *Daily News Journal*, October 8, 1934; "Four Murfreesboro Schools To Begin Terms Tomorrow," *Daily News Journal*, September 8, 1937.

By 1939, enrollment at the city school system reached 2,000, with 450 students enrolling at the newly constructed McFadden School.⁹⁷ According to the city school superintendent J.C. Mitchell, “record enrollments” were expected at Crichlow Grammar School and Central High School.⁹⁸ Campus School also had a high enrollment for the 1939-1940 school year, with 481 students.⁹⁹ Enrollment in the Rutherford County schools declined during World War II, when 7,495 enrolled during the 1940-1941 school year, compared to the 6,774 students enrolled during the 1944-1945 school year. However, by 1951 the number of enrollees had increased to pre-war numbers, with 1,482 enrolled in the City schools.¹⁰⁰ The total number of students enrolled in Rutherford schools during the 1951-1952 school year reached 7,897 students. Three years later, enrollment in the city schools reached 1,593.¹⁰¹ When combined with the county schools, the total number of enrolled students within Rutherford County by the end of the 1954-1955 school year reached a total of 8,669.¹⁰² By the 1955-1956 school year, *The Daily News Journal* reported that 8,755 students had enrolled in the city and county school systems.¹⁰³ When the 1957-1958 school year rolled around, there were approximately 7,000 county school

⁹⁷ “Schools To Open Sept. 14,” *Daily News Journal*, August 23, 1939.

⁹⁸ *Ibid.*

⁹⁹ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1940* (Tennessee: Tennessee Department of Education, 1940), 30.

¹⁰⁰ Lickiss, 52.

¹⁰¹ “Enrollment Up In City Schools, Statistics Show,” *Daily News Journal*, October 7, 1954.

¹⁰² Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1955* (Tennessee: Tennessee Department of Education, 1955), 77.

¹⁰³ “City-County To Register 8,755 In ‘55,” *Daily News Journal*, August 14, 1955.

students.¹⁰⁴ The State Board of Education reported that the total number of enrollees in Rutherford County for that year reached 9,649 students.¹⁰⁵ In 1959, the *Daily News Journal* noted that Hobgood Elementary School saw its largest increase in students and was filled to capacity for the 1959-1960 at 665 students, while Mitchell-Neilson held 625 and Bradley Academy had 580.¹⁰⁶ By the 1960 school year, student enrollment exceeded 13,000.¹⁰⁷ Tennessee overall saw rapid growth in the enrollment of the public schools. During the 1940-1941 school year, the number of enrollees in the public schools reached 647,414.¹⁰⁸ Thirteen years later, that number had climbed to 716,295.¹⁰⁹ Based upon these figures, it was evident that Tennessee, more specifically Murfreesboro and Rutherford County, experienced rapid population growth, with exponential growth in the public school system that created problems for both students and teachers (graph F.1).

These problems were not exclusive to Tennessee. By the early 1950s, the initial members of the post-World War II “Baby Boom” generation had started to enroll in school. Robert H. Anderson’s 1955 article “The Principal Faces Overcrowding” noted that overcrowding “affect[s] the entire staff and school population in so many

¹⁰⁴ “‘57- ‘58 Year Starts Friday,” *Daily News Journal*, August 25, 1957.

¹⁰⁵ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1958* (Tennessee: Tennessee Department of Education, 1958), 108.

¹⁰⁶ “City Schools Annual Growth Phenomenal,” *Daily News Journal*, June 9, 1959; “City Students Overflow Schools,” *Daily News Journal*, August 30, 1959.

¹⁰⁷ “13,125 Start School Soon,” *Daily News Journal*, August 14, 1960.

¹⁰⁸ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1941 Part 2* (Tennessee: Tennessee Department of Education, 1941), 134.

¹⁰⁹ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1954* (Tennessee: Tennessee Department of Education, 1954), 74.

communities.... Only a total approach, coordinated by school leaders and using all available resources, can alleviate this prevalent and urgent condition.”¹¹⁰ Anderson detailed the overall problems that overcrowding produces, including “less individual attention [to] each pupil,” health hazards, reductions in the quality of elective courses and school services, such as libraries, and overworked teaching personnel.¹¹¹ The federal government attempted to provide support for new school facilities. On January 5, 1956, President Dwight D. Eisenhower acknowledged the problem in his State of the Union Address, stating:

Today our schools face pressing problems—problems which will not yield to swift and easy solutions, or to any single action. They will yield only to a continuing, active, formed effort by the people toward achieving better schools.... I urge that the Congress move promptly to enact an effective program of Federal assistance to help erase the existing deficit of school classrooms. Such a program, which should be limited to a five-year period, must operate to increase rather than decrease local and State support of schools and to give the greatest help to the States and localities with the least financial resources. Federal aid should in no way jeopardize the freedom of local school systems.¹¹²

Eisenhower sought over one billion dollars in federal aid in order to build new schools.¹¹³ The federal aid would match state money and allow for the construction of 200,000 classrooms nationwide.¹¹⁴ Arguing for federal aid to education, Eisenhower

¹¹⁰ Robert H. Anderson, “The Principal Faces: Overcrowding,” *Educational Leadership* 13, no. 1 (October 1955): 18.

¹¹¹ *Ibid.*, 19.

¹¹² Dwight David Eisenhower, “Annual Message to the Congress on the State of the Union” (speech, Washington, D.C., January 5, 1956), Dwight D. Eisenhower Presidential Library, Museum, and Boyhood Home, https://www.eisenhower.archives.gov/all_about_ike/speeches/1956_state_of_the_union.pdf.

¹¹³ “Ike Asks Over \$1 Billion For Schools,” *Daily News Journal*, January 12, 1956.

¹¹⁴ *Ibid.*

noted that “hundreds of thousands of children study under overcrowded conditions, in half-way or doubled-up school sessions, or in make-shift buildings not designed as schools.”¹¹⁵ Although Eisenhower’s plan would have provided much needed aid to school systems that lacked appropriate learning facilities, the bill failed to pass. However, he revived his call for money to build more schools and additions to existing schools “in needy states and areas.”¹¹⁶ By 1957, 5.7 million elementary school students attended overcrowded classrooms, while 3.5 million students attended ramshackle schools.¹¹⁷ Issues with desegregation overshadowed Eisenhower’s efforts as did election year politics; his bill once again failed by a narrow margin.¹¹⁸ Although his bill to increase aid for the construction of schools failed, according to the *Congress Quarterly Almanac 1957*, Eisenhower begrudgingly signed into law HR 8679–PL 267, which “extend[ed] through June 30, 1959, a program of school construction aid for areas overburdened by Federal activities.”¹¹⁹ Unfortunately, the bill made no mention of school aid based on the needs of society.¹²⁰ While Congress rejected efforts to fund an increased number of

¹¹⁵ Ibid.

¹¹⁶ “Ike Calls For School Bill Reform,” *Daily News Journal*, July 17, 1956.

¹¹⁷ “10 Million Kids Short-Changed On Schooling Because Of No Room,” *Daily News Journal*, January 29, 1957.

¹¹⁸ Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, *The Federal Role In the Federal System: The Dynamics of Growth, Volume V, Intergovernmentalizing the Classroom: Federal Involvement in Elementary and Secondary Education*, March 1981, 23, <http://www.library.unt.edu/acir/Reports/policy/a-81-Vol-V.pdf>.

¹¹⁹ “Federal School Construction Aid Defeated,” in *CQ Almanac 1957*, 13th ed., 04-588-04-593, Washington, DC: Congressional Quarterly, 1958, <http://library.cqpress.com/cqalmanac/cqal57-1345328>.

¹²⁰ Ibid.

classrooms, it did pass the National Defense of Education Act, which provided federal aid for science, math, and foreign language programs in higher education and guidance programs to identify gifted high school students who should go on to college. However, the act did not provide for school construction or increasing the number of classrooms.

In Rutherford County, both school districts faced mounting problems with the influx of students. Central High School, part of the Rutherford County school system, was one of the overcrowded schools. Built in 1945 to house six hundred students, Central had more than eight hundred students enrolled during the 1955-1956 school year.¹²¹ In order to accommodate all of them, many attended classes in an older building on the school campus. Projections at the time indicated that CHS would hit the one thousand mark by the following school year, and officials asked for \$85,000 in order to make further accommodations.¹²² The county school board made additions to other school buildings. In 1957 the board sought funds to construct an additional eleven classrooms, restrooms, a kitchen, and a cafeteria at McFadden School.¹²³ The Tennessee Department of Education annual report for the 1957-1958 school year shows that a total of twenty-four “self-contained classrooms” were built for five schools in the Rutherford County system. By the 1959-1960 school year Hobgood Elementary School had also received an addition, which provided six new rooms, as did Bradley Elementary.¹²⁴ Overcrowding

¹²¹ Douglas Sparks, “County Faces Big Problem at High School,” *Daily News Journal*, January 17, 1956.

¹²² *Ibid.*

¹²³ “School Board Seeks \$80,000,” *Daily News Journal*, March 10, 1957.

¹²⁴ “City Schools Annual Growth Phenomenal,” *Daily News Journal*, June 9, 1959.

persisted in the Rutherford County and Murfreesboro City school systems and reached the breaking point in the late 1960s, when the Rutherford County School Board put into action a plan to address these problems. The 1969-1970 school year saw an enrollment figure of 14,816 students in all schools within Rutherford County; almost 11,000 of those students were part of the county school system. The Rutherford County School Board voter to construct two new high schools, Riverdale and Oakland. When the new high schools opened, Central High School became Central Middle School to accommodate the seventh and eighth grade students from Buchanan, Bethel, McFadden, and Campus School.¹²⁵

While schools nationwide, and in Rutherford County, suffered from overcrowding, it appears that Campus School was less affected. Its distinctive purpose and affiliation with MTSU seemed to isolate it from the problem of overcrowding that plagued other Rutherford County schools and the Murfreesboro City schools. Prior to the construction of Riverdale and Oakland High School, Campus School's enrollment numbers fluctuated along with the rest of Rutherford County's enrollment numbers. When Campus School, then known as the "Model and Practice School," was housed on campus in the Administration Building it had approximately 100 students enrolled.¹²⁶ In 1928 Campus School had 107 enrolled students.¹²⁷ When the current building opened in

¹²⁵ Adoption of Plan For Improving Existing Facilities and Program, January 15, 1970, Volume 6, Rutherford County School Board Minutes, Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

¹²⁶ Tennessee Department of Public Instruction, *Annual Report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1922* (Nashville, 1922), 344.

¹²⁷ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1928* (Nashville: Tennessee Department of Education, 1928), 258.

1929, the *Bulletin* of the Middle Tennessee State Teachers College indicated that the building had a capacity for five hundred students and twelve grades.¹²⁸ Indeed, 455 had enrolled by the end of the 1928-1929 school year, according to the 1928-1929 annual report of the Tennessee Department of Education.¹²⁹ During the 1931-1932 school year, the *Daily News Journal* reported that 480 pupils had enrolled at the school, with the final figure reaching 505 students.¹³⁰ The following school year, the *Daily News Journal* projected that Campus School would exceed 500 students.¹³¹ The final number of students, according to the Tennessee Department of Education annual report listed 561 students enrolled for the 1932-1933 school year.¹³² The start of the 1934-1935 school year at Campus School saw 501 pupils enrolled; the year concluded with a total of 549 students enrolled.¹³³ The following year, approximately 450 students enrolled at the school.¹³⁴ The 1936-1937 school year saw 481 pupils enrolled at Campus School, but the

¹²⁸ *Bulletin of the State Teachers College, Murfreesboro*, Volume 8, Number 1, July 1932: 23.

¹²⁹ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1929* (Nashville: Tennessee Department of Education, 1929), 264.

¹³⁰ "1,600 Murfreesboro Youngsters Enroll," *Daily News Journal*, September 14, 1931; Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1932* (Jackson: Tennessee Department of Education, 1932), 321.

¹³¹ "Training School to Open Monday with Record Attendance," *Daily News Journal*, September 14, 1932.

¹³² Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1933* (Nashville: Tennessee Department of Education, 1933), 30.

¹³³ "Training School Starts Fall Term," *Daily News Journal*, September 17, 1934; Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1935* (Nashville: Tennessee Department of Education, 1935), 37.

¹³⁴ "Training School Opens Sept. 16," *Daily News Journal*, September 13, 1935.

number of pupils enrolled dropped during the following two school years.¹³⁵ However, during the 1939-1940 school year, the final number rebounded to 481 students, with the *Daily News Journal* reporting that all grade levels were “filled almost to capacity.”¹³⁶ During the 1942-1943 school year, the number of pupils enrolled at Campus School was 460.¹³⁷ While the number of students at Campus School in ensuing years of the 1940s reached as high as 534, by the 1951-1952 school year enrollment had declined to 318, and it would remain under 300 for about thirty years.¹³⁸ The following year, 296 students had enrolled.¹³⁹

According to the *Daily News Journal*, in 1954 the enrollment at Campus School was capped at 280, a number that remained consistent the following year and subsequent years.¹⁴⁰ Between 1955 and 1960, the number of students enrolled at Campus School ranged between 270 and 284. The Department of Education Annual Report for 1960-

¹³⁵ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1937* (Clarksville: Tennessee Department of Education, 1937), 30; The Tennessee Department of Education annual report for the 1937-1938 and 1938-1939 school years show enrollment numbers for Campus School to 439 and 454 students, respectively. It must be noted that during the 1937-1938 school year, grade ten was added to the school.

¹³⁶ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1940* (Tennessee Department of Education, 1940), 30; “Schools Crowded To Limit,” *Daily News Journal*, September 14, 1939.

¹³⁷ “Schools Open Today In City, County,” *Daily News Journal*, August 31, 1942.

¹³⁸ The Tennessee Department of Education annual report listed a total of 534 Campus School students for the 1940-1941 school year. The years following the 1940-1941 school year, the number of enrollees fluctuated between 286 and 498; Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1952* (Tennessee Department of Education, 1952), 26.

¹³⁹ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1953* (Tennessee Department of Education, 1953), 296.

¹⁴⁰ “Training School Opens Monday; Enrollment 280,” *Daily News Journal*, September 12, 1954. The party or parties responsible for this cap are not known.

1961 listed a total of 285 students, while the 1961-1962 Report listed 289 students enrolled at Campus School.¹⁴¹ Following the 1961-1962 school year, the enrollment numbers of the training schools for the three normal schools (now universities) were no longer listed in the state education department annual reports. However, towards the end of the 1990s, Campus School's enrollment appears to have increased to about three hundred students each year. The Campus School Year Book contained 333 students for the 1996-1997 school year, while the 1999-2000 school year had 307 enrolled students (graph H.1).¹⁴²

Campus School's enrollment cap is on par with Edward Williams's point regarding advantages of an on-campus laboratory school and an off-campus laboratory school. Williams stated in his dissertation "Actual and Potential Use of Laboratory Schools" that an advantage of the on-campus school is that the "buildings are better planned and have rooms better designed for teaching small groups and for holding conferences than are the public schools."¹⁴³ Williams further stated that class sizes for off-campus schools "must be larger than in [on-]campus schools because the... routine of the school do [sic] not adapt themselves to small groups."¹⁴⁴ Williams contended that

¹⁴¹ Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1961* (Tennessee Department of Education, 1961), 39; Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1962* (Tennessee Department of Education, 1962), 241.

¹⁴² Box 19, Folder 1-3, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

¹⁴³ Edward Irwin Franklin Williams, "The Actual and Potential Use of Laboratory Schools in State Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges" (PhD diss., Columbia University, 1942), 105.

¹⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, 139.

fifteen students per class was typical for on-campus schools, but larger class groups were needed for the off-campus school in order to ensure that the building could be filled appropriately.¹⁴⁵

Moreover, Williams stated that if a laboratory school's enrollment is small, "it is restricted in the complex services which it should render in different phases of the laboratory experience," such as observation and student-teaching, whereas if enrollment is large, "the administration tends to become unwieldy and the school itself is less nearly typical of the usual public school."¹⁴⁶ His data indicated that "the modal enrollment in the laboratory school lies between 200 and 300 pupils."¹⁴⁷ This is consistent with other laboratory schools throughout the United States. The Horace Mann Laboratory School in Salem, Massachusetts, part of Salem State University, caps their kindergarten through grade five school at fifteen students per grade.¹⁴⁸ Eastern Kentucky University's Model Laboratory School also limits their pre-kindergarten through grade twelve school to sixty students per grade, and enrollment is by application-only.¹⁴⁹

Campus School fits these characteristics for an off-campus laboratory school, for it is a large structure that, following the 1950s, held about three hundred students.

Moreover, according to Williams, "[t]he most common plan for enrolling pupils in the

¹⁴⁵ Ibid.

¹⁴⁶ Ibid., 118.

¹⁴⁷ Ibid., 119.

¹⁴⁸ "Horace Mann Laboratory School About Us," Horace Mann Laboratory School, accessed April 16, 2016, http://spshmann.salemk12.org/pages/SPS_HmannWebDocs/Aboutus.

¹⁴⁹ "About Model," Eastern Kentucky University Model Laboratory School, accessed April 16, 2016, <http://model.eku.edu/about-model>.

laboratory school is to admit them from any source whatever, without payment of tuition.” About 31% of the schools Williams profiled in his study employed this method of enrollment.¹⁵⁰ Campus School also employed this strategy, allowing students from anywhere in the county or city to enroll. It continues to be a school of choice, where students have the ability to enroll at the school based on the wishes of the parents, not based only on where a student lives. Moreover, the school’s registration date was separate from the rest of the county, with registration taking place towards the end of the school year. At the end of the 1962-1963 school year, for instance, registration for those attending Campus School for the 1963-1964 school year took place on April 26, one month prior to end of the school year.¹⁵¹ The rest of the Rutherford County school system holds registration a few weeks before the start of the new school year.

The Rutherford County School Board’s reorganization of middle and high schools resolved the overcrowding issue in Campus School. Following the opening of Oakland and Riverdale High Schools in 1972, Campus School’s seventh and eighth grades moved to the repurposed Central Middle School, along with the band, vocational education, and home economics departments, allowing two classes of each grade level of kindergarten through six to be taught at Campus School.¹⁵² The deletion and addition of classes and departments unclogged the pupil congestion at Campus School and allowed the school to expand certain areas. Rooms that had been used for athletics became storage spaces or

¹⁵⁰ Williams, 131.

¹⁵¹ “School Sets Registration,” *Daily News Journal*, April 24, 1963.

¹⁵² National Register of Historic Places Form, 1994, Box 20, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

classrooms for elective courses. Higher grade levels used larger rooms freed up by the reorganization to perform tasks that would prepare them for middle and high school.

Just as importantly, Campus School's controlled enrollment numbers meant that no additions to the physical building were necessary to handle increased enrollment, as happened at other county schools, such as McFadden School, in the late 1950s.¹⁵³ More recent population growth and the resulting larger numbers of students have brought continued additions of extensions and portable classrooms at other county schools. In 1989, Oakland High School added a new annex and later constructed a new science wing, which brought a total of fourteen new classrooms to the school.¹⁵⁴ Ultimately both Oakland and Riverdale high schools became multi-building campuses accommodating over one thousand students. Blackman Middle School opened in 2002 and within two years, the construction of new housing subdivisions and increased numbers of students required the installation of four portable classrooms.¹⁵⁵ Nearby Blackman High School endured a similar overcrowding problem and added an entire wing, which opened in 2007.¹⁵⁶

Although Campus School had between 300 and 500 students in the early 1950s, the institution of an enrollment cap in 1954 meant that the school did not suffer when overcrowding started to become problematic by the late 1950s. Because of the controlled

¹⁵³ "School Board Seeks \$80,000," *Daily News Journal*, March 10, 1957.

¹⁵⁴ "Oakland High School: An International Baccalaureate School," Oakland High School, 2014, accessed January 18, 2016, <http://www.ohs.rcschools.net/guidance/documents/SchoolProfile.pdf>.

¹⁵⁵ Author's recollection.

¹⁵⁶ Author's recollection.

number of enrollees, the lack of substantial changes to the building and to its architectural integrity made it easier for it to be nominated to the National Register of Historic Places. Its exterior has remained practically intact since it opened in 1929, with minimal changes made to the building's interior.

Campus School's connection to MTSU shaped its experience of major events affecting public education in the twentieth century. During the Great Depression, MTSU financially fostered Campus School's ability to keep its doors open, even though its teachers were victims of funding constraints and even expanded its course offerings. Being a university laboratory school of choice, Campus School dealt with the requirements of school integration via a door-to-door publicity and recruitment effort following the hiring of its first African American teacher, whose salary was paid by MTSU. The Rutherford County School Board's restructuring of its schools following the opening of two new high schools led to the reduction of the number of grades and some ancillary classes at Campus School and the creation more space overall. Campus School initiated kindergarten and two classes per grade and became a K-6 laboratory school. Along with its previously enacted enrollment cap, it was able to continue its legislated mission of providing teacher preparation for university students.

CHAPTER THREE
THE LABORATORY SCHOOL EXPERIENCE: THE ACADEMIC ADVANTAGES
OF
HOMER PITTARD CAMPUS SCHOOL

In his doctoral dissertation “The Actual and Potential Use of Laboratory Schools,” Edward Williams stated that the laboratory school “can be so organized as to illustrate the best theory and practice as an ideal, to present the best type of ‘model teaching.’”¹ The relation between the laboratory school and the normal school or teacher’s college is most evident in the quality of education and the overall experience of the students, teachers, and staff. The laboratory school is a pilot for applying new educational theories or strategies that the college teaches its education students. Moreover, because the college influences the curriculum and instructional methods taught to its students who practice teach at the laboratory school, it has a continuing impact on the laboratory school’s faculty. Student teachers who have placements at a laboratory school are likely to be aware of newer theories concerning education, and the students at the laboratory school are likely to be among the first to be taught using the new theories, methods, or technology. Throughout its history, Campus School has borne witness to these advantages in various ways, such as teacher experience, access to educational technology, and the university’s direct influence on the school. Given these advantages, Campus School has distinguished itself from the rest of the schools in the Rutherford County and the Murfreesboro City school systems.

¹ Edward Irwin Franklin Williams, “The Actual and Potential Use of Laboratory Schools: In State Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges” (PhD diss., Columbia University, 1942), 105.

Teacher Credentials and Responsibilities

Since the establishment of Middle Tennessee State Normal School, thousands of teachers have graduated from what is now the MTSU College of Education and, consequently, have educated several generations of schoolchildren. Graduates of teacher training programs must meet state-mandated certification requirements that vary by the grade level they plan to teach, as well as licensure requirements for specific subjects and types of courses such as Advanced Placement. The laboratory or demonstration schools affiliated with a normal school or teacher's college hold their faculty to a higher standard, not only ensuring that the students who attend the school are educated effectively, but also because faculty members are responsible for observing student teachers to evaluate their strengths and weaknesses. In his publication *An Analysis of the Supervisory Activities and Techniques of the Elementary School Training Supervisor In State Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges*, Harry N. Fitch stated that in order to serve the ends of the laboratory or observation school, the school itself "must be staffed with skilled and experienced teachers [who] are specifically trained to join forces with the normal school or teacher's college in organizing and maintaining a laboratory school which exemplifies teaching procedures and use of materials that are in keeping with the best educational theory and practice."²

² Harry N. Fitch, *An Analysis of the Supervisory Activities and Techniques of the Elementary School Training Supervisor in State Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges* (1931; repr., New York: AMS Press, 1972), 2.

Typically, public school districts hire and retain teachers following the policies adopted by their school board to meet state requirements and any contractual agreements with teachers' associations. However, Campus School's process of hiring teachers is different from the rest of the Rutherford County district's hiring process. MTSU's administrators recommend new teachers for positions at Campus School and the Rutherford County School Commission elects them.³ Former teacher Charlotte Smotherman, who taught at Campus School between 1943 and 1947, recalled in a September 1995 interview that she was hired following an informal interview with then-MTSU President Q.M. Smith at his home, along with then-Campus School Principal Frank Bass.⁴ Former teacher and principal Dr. Rita King, who worked at Campus School between 1977 and 1995, recalled that "a committee...made up of the principal, people from the university, and teachers" made the ultimate decision in her hiring at Campus School.⁵ Personnel from the MTSU College of Education had to approve her, as did the Rutherford County School Board. Dr. King further stated the hiring committee asked about her "interests in working with college students" as part of the laboratory requirement.⁶ Former teacher Ella Jolly, who worked at Campus School between 1973 and 1991, remembered her experiences in an August 1995 interview. Ms. Jolly received

³ "Campus School Aids Students In 'Practice.'" *Daily News Journal*, February 25, 1962.

⁴ Charlotte Smotherman, interview by Regina Forsythe, tape recording, 29 September 1995, Quintin Miller Smith Collection, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁵ Rita King, interview by Matthew Norwood, digital recording, 16 February 2016, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁶ Ibid.

her master's degree in August of 1972 and started at Campus School as a substitute teacher before taking a full time position at the school. She revealed the duality of being a Campus School teacher, stating:

Not only were we responsible for teaching the children in our class room, but we were responsible for teaching some college methods courses in the education programs taught a methods course in reading. We were responsible for teaching our class room children and a college course, each semester. That is still the role of the Campus School teachers.⁷

Thus, teachers at Campus School went through two different hiring procedures by which the district and the university worked in tandem to select accomplished teachers who could instruct schoolchildren as well as supervise student teachers.

Teacher credentials were critical to Campus School's hiring process and instructional mission for schoolchildren and university students. Miss Mary Hall started teaching at Campus School in 1929. At that time, she only had a bachelor's degree; she earned her master's degree in 1931.⁸ Hall later became one of Tennessee's first regional elementary supervisors, as well as the only woman professor in MTSU's College of Education. According to Ella Jolly, Miss Hall "had taught elementary education in different places," and taught many of Ms. Jolly's core elementary education courses at MTSU.⁹ What makes Mary Hall remarkable is that, in an era when teachers were employed after having a minimum of teacher training that could be as little as an

⁷ Ella Jolly, interview by Regina Forsythe, tape recording, 17 August 1995, Quintin Miller Smith Collection, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁸ Rita Schaerer King, "Mary Hall: A 20th-Century Pioneer for Educational Progress in Tennessee" (PhD diss., Peabody College of Vanderbilt University, 1993), 1, 31.

⁹ Ibid.

elementary, this elementary school teacher not only earned her master's degree but later became a college professor.

An examination of the Rutherford County's Annual Statistical Report for the 1945-1946 school year demonstrates the continuing importance of teacher credentials for Campus School. According to the report, Campus School employed twelve teachers who held a "Permanent Professional" certificate, and ten had at least five years of training and experience. The other two teachers had four years of training and were college graduates.¹⁰ The 1945-1946 report recorded that other county teachers, did not have such extensive credentials at that time. Although most of the county teachers had four years of college, only three other teachers had five years of experience, and they all taught at different schools.¹¹ Moreover, it must be noted that the State of Tennessee often hired teachers with minimal education. An examination of the Annual Reports of the Department of Education from the 1920s until the 1970s revealed that as late as the 1940s, Tennessee employed teachers whose education levels were less than high school, indicating that Tennessee did not require at least a bachelor's degree to become an elementary teacher. For the 1945-1946 school year, Tennessee employed 2,467 high school graduates, and 465 people with "Less than High School Graduate" as teachers in

¹⁰ Annual Statistical Reports, Rutherford County, 1945-1946, Tennessee Department of Education Records, 1874-1974, Record Group 273, Division of Research and Statistics Reports, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee.

¹¹ Ibid.

the white county elementary schools.¹² In Rutherford County for the same school year, fifty-seven teachers in the white county elementary schools lacked a college degree.¹³ Dr. Rita King recalled the higher standards expected of Campus School teachers thirty years later when she began teaching at Campus School, stating that teachers “had to have a master’s degree to teach at Campus School...I think it was five years of experience and a master’s degree.”¹⁴ According to Dr. King, the amount of experience and education requirements were necessary because the Campus School teachers’ secondary job was to train college students to be teachers.¹⁵ Former teacher Elizabeth Whorley Bradley, who taught at Campus School between 1966 and 1979 and served as principal between 1979 and 1985, also stated in a November 1995 interview that “you had to have a certain number of years’ experience and a master’s degree to teach [at Campus School]. I qualified for that.”¹⁶

The university and the county school system have historically held Campus School teachers to a higher standard of training and experience and the concentration of teachers with strong training and longer experience suggests the probability of a robust level of education for the Campus School students. Former students who attended

¹² State of Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1946* (Nashville, 1946), 92.

¹³ *Ibid.*, 93.

¹⁴ King, interview.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*

¹⁶ Elizabeth Bradley, interview by Regina Forsythe, tape recording, 5 November 1995, Quintin Miller Smith Collection, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Campus School and gave interviews for this study stated that the school prepared them well for their journey through high school and post-secondary education. Pat Nelson, who attended Campus School between 1957 and 1965, stated, “I was put in classes that challenged me in high school...the [high school] Latin teacher did a lot of the placement of the students from Campus School and put us in the more challenging classes.”¹⁷ It appears that Campus School’s reputation extended to other schools, where faculty saw the students who graduated from Campus School as more prepared for the rigors of their program.

Because the university required teachers at Campus School to serve a dual purpose of educating students while observing and evaluating student teachers, Campus School was staffed with teachers who had more experience. The higher standard for hiring teachers at Campus School also created the impression that Campus School raised the bar for the application of modern educational techniques. Furthermore, because Campus School appears to have had a stronger academic preparation of its students, its graduates were also subject to higher academic expectations. Former student John Womack, who attended Campus School during the middle 1930s, transferred between Crichlow School and Campus School throughout his primary and secondary education. When comparing the two schools, he never regretted attending both, but stated “if you

¹⁷ Pat Nelson, interview by Matthew Norwood, digital recording, 7 December 2015, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

put [Crichlow School and Campus School] on a set of scales, [Campus] School might come out just a little higher.”¹⁸

Education Technology

In the mid-twentieth century, important and far-reaching advances in electronic technology started to make their presence known in the classroom. Technology in the classroom is not a new concept; microscopes and film strips have been commonplace in schools since the early twentieth century, particularly during World War II, when the War Department produced films that showed students what they could do for the war effort. In the second half of the twentieth century, Campus School appears to have been the pilot program for two technologies that are present now in most schools throughout the United States: closed-circuit television and personal computers. Campus School’s close association with MTSU suggests why it was one of the first institutions to initiate use of these learning tools.

Television has its origins in the late 1920s, with the establishment of stations such as the British Broadcasting Corporation, the Columbia Broadcasting System, and the Radio Corporation of America. In the late 1930s television started to gain momentum, airing sports games and political programs, but efforts to create a network of television

¹⁸ John Womack, interview by Matthew Norwood, digital recording, 10 November 2015, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

programming were put on hold with the outbreak of World War II.¹⁹ Prior to World War II, however, the Federal Radio Commission “had asserted a need for broadcasting to serve a common good for the broad public and civic interest.”²⁰ As a result, colleges and universities established educational radio stations.²¹ When television moved to the forefront in communications, the venue for open-education services shifted to television. The first educational television appeared in 1947 when the Philadelphia public schools started broadcasting a weekly education program. By the 1951-1952 school year, they had increased their programming to thirteen broadcasts each week, which sixty thousand students were able to view. The programming consisted of science, music, art, mathematics, reading, social studies, and vocationally-oriented topics.²² According to Martha Gable, a Philadelphia school district administrator, “the rapid increase in classroom television, due largely to favorable responses from teachers, pupils, and parents, leaves no doubt as to the effectiveness of this new medium as a teaching device.”²³

During the 1950s, educational television started to reach a wider audience. By 1954, \$15 million had been invested into educational television ventures, with the Federal Communications Commission announcing over 242 channel reservations for educational

¹⁹ Laurie Moses Hines and Robert A. Levin, “Educational Television, Fred Rogers, and the History of Education,” *History of Education Quarterly* 43, no. 2 (Summer 2003): 263.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, 262.

²¹ *Ibid.*

²² *Ibid.*, 264.

²³ Quoted in *Ibid.*

use.²⁴ A report from the Tennessee Educational Television Committee in 1954 indicated that the states of Alabama, New Jersey, and Oklahoma sought to establish educational television systems, with efforts also made in Nashville and Knoxville to develop and implement city-wide educational television systems.²⁵ In early 1954, the Ford Foundation offered a sizable grant to the Memphis Television Foundation for public use.²⁶ The use of television in education gained popularity in the late 1950s with the passage of the National Defense Education Act, an act intended to improve the United States' education system following the Soviet Union's launch of *Sputnik I*.²⁷ Title III called for increased federal funding for the development and strengthening of math, science, and foreign language programs.²⁸ Title VII of the NDEA called for federal funding of research on educational technology.²⁹ Although research into the uses of educational television had started in the late 1940s at the state level, with the federal government becoming involved in the late 1950s, the combination of television and school became increasingly popular during the 1960s. For example, in 1963, about 4,300 students in Santa Ana, California were learning via television programs and school authorities were planning further

²⁴ *Ibid.*, 262.

²⁵ 1953-54 Educational Television Committee Report, Box 25, Folder 1 & 2, Tennessee Department of Education Records, 1874-1974, Record Group 273, Division of Research and Statistics Reports, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee.

²⁶ *Ibid.*

²⁷ David Carlton, *Student's Guide to Landmark Congressional Laws On Education* (Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 2002), 109.

²⁸ National Defense Education Act, *U.S. Statutes at Large* 72 (1958): 1588.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, 1595.

expansion of the educational television system.³⁰ The National Education Association Committee on Services, which appears to have been the entity responsible for this endeavor, planned to launch six closed-circuit television stations, in which subjects such as Spanish, social studies, and science were taught to grades three through seven while two teachers elaborated on what the televised lesson had taught. The new program implemented in Santa Ana was flawless, with few complaints from parents.³¹

The Tennessee Department of Education had started investigating the use of educational television during the early 1950s. Additional efforts made following the passage of the NDEA brought educational television to the mid-state's smaller cities. The Murfreesboro City School Board initiated a program at the end of 1961 that brought educational television programming in all five Murfreesboro City schools.³² Mitchell-Neilson School served as a test site prior to full implementation of the program, which "was made possible through [an] application to the State Department of Education for funds allocated to school systems under the National Defense Education Act sub-section Title III."³³ The program was fully implemented by February 1962, when five monitors and thirty-seven receiving sets were operational in city schools.³⁴ The televisions transmitted lessons in math, science, art, and foreign language for grades four through

³⁰ William Coleman, "Santa Ana Students Learning by Television," *Daily News Journal*, October 20, 1963.

³¹ *Ibid.*

³² "TV Aids 5 City Schools," *Daily News Journal*, February 4, 1962.

³³ "City Schools Ready For TV," *Daily News Journal*, December 10, 1961.

³⁴ "TV Aids 5 City Schools."

eight. The new technology also allowed city schools to access programming on Nashville's WDCN-TV Educational Channel 2, which launched on June 25, 1962 for experimental use in summer school before the 1962-1963 school year commenced.³⁵

While the inclusion of a television system in the schools allowed students to have a visual or in-depth view of school lessons, teachers, however, were not overly impressed.

According to Robert Levine and Laurie Hines's article "Educational Television, Fred Rogers, and the History of Education," teachers expressed little enthusiasm [with television in schools]. In an expression of their concern, the American Federation of Teachers announced that its members were "unalterably opposed to mass education by television as a substitute for professional classrooms techniques." Although teachers had reservations concerning television in schools, Levine and Hines contend that television could assist schools in times of teacher shortages while also "provid[ing] in-home broadcasts."³⁶

Campus School appears to have been the first Rutherford County school to receive a similar television system. Planning for Campus School as the test site began in August 1961 when T.B. Webb and Dr. Sam Ingram of the Tennessee Department of Education and Dr. Will Bowdoin, the head of the MTSU College of Education, asked the Rutherford County Board of Education to approve a closed circuit television system for Campus School.³⁷ Their proposal unanimously passed, with funds provided from a

³⁵ "Channel 2 Broadcasts Start June 25," *Daily News Journal*, June 18, 1962.

³⁶ Hines and Levin, 265.

³⁷ Minutes of the August 19, 1961 Meeting, Volume 5, Rutherford County School Board Minutes, Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

combination of state and federal monies (under Title III of the NDEA), as well as money from MTSU.³⁸ Campus School's closed circuit television system was installed by May 1962 and fully implemented for the 1962-1963 school year. Every classroom in the school had a television set with the capability to receive the Channel 2 educational station.³⁹ According to Campus School's then-principal Hilary Parker, the program provided enrichment in foreign language and science instruction because "several classes can participate in a single class in Spanish or other foreign languages as it originates in one room and is televised to others."⁴⁰

However, viewing of Channel 2 and other educational programs from Nashville was not the only purpose of the system. Campus School was selected as the pilot school for Rutherford County Schools' television system because the MTSU education department wanted a closed circuit television system for remote observation and instruction of its students, with the viewer or instructor located at MTSU.⁴¹ University students had the opportunity to observe the Campus School teacher instructing students, and faculty of the education department could remotely observe a student teacher in action, evaluating his or her performance from afar. In a 1995 interview, former Campus

³⁸ Ibid.

³⁹ "Campus School To Have TV," *Daily News Journal*, March 19, 1962.

⁴⁰ Ibid.

⁴¹ Ibid.

School teacher Jean Moser recalled that “TV cameras in the classroom...were connected to the main campus.” According to Moser:

They [the cameras] were mounted in the back of the room, and the university professors could control the cameras. It was an experimental program that did not work well. We spent quite a bit of money on it.⁴²

Moser further detailed the deficiency of the remote observation, noting the nervousness of the Campus School students when they were informed that their actions were being observed from MTSU. Moreover, Moser shared her own reservation concerning the use of television for remote observation, stating that “we tried the experiment for a couple of years, but it never worked well...I did not like switching from student teachers to observation.”⁴³ Based upon what Moser stated in her interview, it appears that MTSU had instituted remote observation to decrease reliance on in-person student teaching. Although the closed-circuit television system did not work as intended, its presence at Campus School allowed students of MTSU’s audio-visual education department to offer technical assistance “in the development of the program.”⁴⁴ The system also allowed professors at MTSU to instruct Campus School students, allowing faculty with specialties in certain subjects to give live lessons and demonstrations. Thus, the installation of the closed-circuit television system served multiple purposes: remote instruction, observation, and hands-on training for the Campus School students and

⁴² Jean Moser, interview by Regina Forsythe, tape recording, 21 September 1995, Quintin Miller Smith Collection, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁴³ Ibid.

⁴⁴ “Campus School To Have TV.”

MTSU student-teachers. With Campus School's system setting an example "for future municipal and regional TV facilities," the *Daily News Journal* reported that school officials looked forward to when "cable connections with other city and county schools may be a reality."⁴⁵

While the inclusion of a television system was a significant innovation, perhaps no piece of technology has left a bigger mark on education than the personal computer. Computer use first started in colleges and universities to assist research endeavors, with the National Science Foundation assisting colleges with obtaining computers.⁴⁶ In 1958, as part of the National Defense of Education Act, the United States Office of Education called for research on education technology and instructional media. IBM, being at the forefront in educational technology, shortly thereafter began researching instructional uses for the computer.⁴⁷ By the 1960s, computers started appearing at colleges and universities, typically for data processing.⁴⁸ Majors such as statistics, mathematics, physics, and engineering, were the primary consumers. By 1962, two hundred colleges were using computers in some fashion. Dartmouth College, in 1964, established a computer center that was opened to students and faculty.⁴⁹ In 1964, MTSU acquired a

⁴⁵ Ibid.

⁴⁶ United States Department of Health, Education & Welfare, National Science Foundation, *Computer Innovations in Education* (Washington, D.C.: Government Publishing Office, January 1972), 9.

⁴⁷ Ibid., 10.

⁴⁸ Ibid., 24-25.

⁴⁹ Ibid.

Goodyear Electronic Differential Analyzer, an analog computer.⁵⁰ By 1969, about 1,250 colleges had computers.⁵¹ Within the span of seven years, over one thousand colleges were using computers, showing that computer use in educational institutions was gaining momentum. However, they were strictly a research tool and elementary and secondary educational centers did not use computers other than for administrative purposes.

The concept of the computer's purpose changed during the 1970s when Apple Computer, Inc., now Apples, Inc., established itself as the frontrunner for the application of computers in the public schools. According to Apple co-founder Steve Jobs, "one of the things that built Apple II's was schools buying Apple II's."⁵² One of Apple's first contracts to provide Apple II computers to schools was a 1978 contract with the Minnesota Education Computing Consortium, which sought five hundred computers for select schools.⁵³ Apple lobbied to amend federal tax laws to "allow charitable contribution income tax deduction for corporations which donate computers to qualified educational organizations such as schools, museums, and libraries."⁵⁴ After Congress repeatedly voted down this proposal, Jobs lobbied successfully for the passage of similar legislation in California, which led to Apple's "Kids Can't Wait" computer education

⁵⁰ "College Adds Computer," *Daily News Journal*, March 4, 1964.

⁵¹ *Computer Innovations in Education*, 12.

⁵² Daniel Morrow, "Excerpts from an Oral History Interview with Steve Jobs," Smithsonian Institution Oral and Video Histories, April 20, 1995, accessed April 30, 2016, <http://americanhistory.si.edu/comphist/sj1.html>.

⁵³ Audrey Watters, "How Steve Jobs Brought the Apple II to the Classroom," Hack Education, February 25, 2015, accessed May 3, 2015, <http://hackeducation.com/2015/02/25/kids-cant-wait-apple>.

⁵⁴ *Ibid.*

program that provided computers for nine thousand elementary and secondary schools in California, amounting to over one million dollars in donations.⁵⁵

As computers infiltrated the American education system, teachers needed training about how to use them properly. At least in California, legislation existed that required an eligible school's faculty to complete some form of training on computers before they received any system. In response, Apple offered training through their retail dealers.⁵⁶ The Atari Corporation also provided similar training programs with their computers. Atari's Institute for Education Action Research, a research program, sought to further a practical and innovative use of the personal computer in education. It provided grants and stipends to organizations in order to develop and disseminate new uses for computers within the schools.⁵⁷ Additionally, the Tandy Corporation, which eventually became RadioShack, offered computers to schools and free training courses to every school within the United States.⁵⁸

While Apple, Atari, Tandy, and later Hewlett Packard were doing what they could to assist with training teachers to use computers, IBM managed to create an in-depth program designed to train teachers in every facet of the computer. In 1981, IBM introduced the IBM PC and in May of 1983, IBM established its Secondary Education

⁵⁵ Ibid.

⁵⁶ Ibid.

⁵⁷ *Compute!*, Atari Sponsors Research Efforts in Education, October 1981, 174, accessed June 4, 2016, https://ia800701.us.archive.org/6/items/1981-10-compute-magazine/Compute_Issue_017_1981_Oct.pdf.

⁵⁸ Howard Besser, "Education as Marketplace," in *Computers in Education: Social, Political*, ed. Nancy Nelson Knupfer and Robert Muffoletto (Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press, Inc., 1995), 57.

Program with the goal of setting up a model of computer education training. The program linked eighty-four schools in Florida, California, and New York to twelve teacher-training institutes. Each of these institutes and schools received fifteen IBM PCs as well as software.⁵⁹ Additionally, each teacher-training institute conducted a six-week training session during the summer of 1983, during which teachers learned computer set-up, hardware characteristics, operating system use, programming in the BASIC programming language, word processing, and maintenance.⁶⁰

Once teachers completed the session, they attended a computer fair where they interacted with hardware and software manufacturers and vendors, as well as attended presentations concerning computer innovations. Afterwards, teachers took their IBM PCs home for further exploration and skill development.⁶¹ When the summer had ended, teachers returned to their classrooms with knowledge of how to apply the computer more effectively. It appears that IBM's extensive campaign to educate teachers on computers led to schools shifting away from Apple computers and incorporating more IBM PCs during the latter 1980s.

Despite the overwhelming efforts of private computer companies to provide access and training to schools across the United States, Tennessee and the Rutherford County school system were not effectively addressing computer literacy. In 1970, the Rutherford County School Board Minutes mentioned the approval of a computer course

⁵⁹ William J. Wagner, "Giving with a Plan: The Training Component of the IBM Secondary Education Program," *Teacher Education Quarterly* 10, no. 4 (Autumn 1983): 43.

⁶⁰ *Ibid.*, 47.

⁶¹ *Ibid.*, 49-50.

at Central High School; however, it appears that not much else concerning computers in schools came about for the rest of the decade.⁶² Not until the 1980s did the Tennessee Department of Education start taking a more active role in addressing computer literacy. In a 1981 letter to Faye Wilmore of Dodson Elementary School in Hermitage, Tennessee State Education Commissioner Bob McElrath acknowledged that “during the past year a state advisory committee on the use of microcomputers in education has been formed to address computer awareness, utilization, and literacy within our state,” and “at present an urgent need exists to develop a computer literacy program for Tennessee’s public schools.”⁶³ While the State of Tennessee was slow to adopt a statewide implementation plan for computers in schools, Commissioner McElrath noted in his letter to Wilmore that the Memphis City Schools system had announced that it would begin using computers “by the beginning of the next fiscal year.”⁶⁴

In the summer of 1982, Tennessee Governor Lamar Alexander expressed interest in establishing computer literacy and education programs in public schools as part of his public education reform agenda.⁶⁵ Alexander’s interests came to fruition two years later when the General Assembly passed the Comprehensive Education Reform Act of 1984,

⁶² “Computer Course For Central High School,” Minutes of the May 7, 1970 Meeting, Volume 6, Rutherford County School Board Minutes, Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee. There was no further mention of computers in the county board’s minutes until 1982.

⁶³ Letter from Robert L. McElrath to Faye Wilmore, September 1, 1981, Reel 21, Tennessee Department of Education Records, 1874-1974, Record Group 273, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee.

⁶⁴ Ibid.

⁶⁵ Box 6, No folder, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

more commonly referred to as the “Better Schools Program.” In addition to establishing a merit raise strategy for teachers and modifying vocational curricula, the legislation also allocated funds for the purchase of six thousand computers for middle schools. The state’s Information Systems Council noted that “the Better Schools Program established Tennessee as the first state to offer a fully funded statewide computer literacy course, the Computer Skills Next Program.”⁶⁶

Even as the State of Tennessee worked to establish a computer education and literacy program, private sector efforts successfully placed computers in the schools. Campus School was one of the first to benefit. In 1982, local businessman Jennings A. Jones, the owner of several Middle Tennessee businesses such as the Ready Mix Concrete Company in Murfreesboro, donated an Apple IIe to Campus School, as well as to Central Middle School, Bellwood Elementary School, and Webb School.⁶⁷ His donation of an Apple IIe to Campus School suggests his continued interest not only in MTSU’s mission, but also the educational needs of Rutherford County Schools in general. Mr. Jones made a myriad of financial contributions to the university and county schools in order to “make a difference in the community.”⁶⁸ Tennessee State Education Commissioner Bob McElrath acknowledged Jones’s donation in an August 1982

⁶⁶ Melissa Smith, *The Education Improvement Act: A Progress Report*, State of Tennessee, Office of the Comptroller of the Treasury, April 2004, C-3.

⁶⁷ Memorandum to Keel Hunt from Bob McElrath, Education Commissioner, August 19, 1982, Reel 21, Tennessee Department of Education Records, 1874-1974, Record Group 273, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee.

⁶⁸ Mr. Jones’s gifts included the provision of small grants to public schools and gifted education programs, establishment of the MTSU Chair of Excellence in Free Enterprise (which now bears his name), and MTSU’s Landsat teaching and mapping program. MTSU’s College of Business is named in his honor. “Jennings A. Jones,” Middle Tennessee State University, November 5, 2015, accessed February 14, 2016, <http://www.mtsu.edu/business/jonesbio.php>.

memorandum to Keel Hunt, Special Assistant to Governor Alexander. He noted, “[a]s well as helping students gain computer literacy, they hope this gift will set an example for industries and businesses to follow.”⁶⁹ Jones’s gift to Campus School was quite popular with the students and teachers, prompting then-principal Elizabeth Whorley to proclaim “this is not a fad...I think [the computer] is here to stay.”⁷⁰ In September, 1982, the School’s Parent Teacher Association held a fundraiser in order to purchase more computer equipment that raised \$7,000, allowing the purchase of two more Apple computers and various educational software programs.⁷¹

The introduction of computers at Campus School during the early 1980s encouraged its teachers to begin training in computer literacy and programming like teachers around the nation at the time. The Apple and IBM summer training courses for teachers, according to Campus School third grade teacher Dolley Jolley, were a “great help” in developing the teaching staff’s skills in computer literacy.⁷² While Jolley’s experience was a delight, former teacher Elizabeth Bennett was at first apprehensive

⁶⁹ Memorandum to Keel Hunt from Bob McElrath, Education Commissioner, August 19, 1982.

⁷⁰ Rebecca Cox, “Carnival to aid ‘computer literacy,’” *News Journal Accent*, September 19, 1982, Box 6, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁷¹ “School Raises \$7,000,” *The Tennessean*, September 28, 1982, Box 6, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁷² Terry Morrow, “Computers allow tots to play with worms, math,” unidentified clipping, Box 6, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

about teaching programming, though she later taught the rudimentary skills to her second grade class. She recalled:

When we got the very first computer, it was an old Apple IIe, and it was on a cart, and we rolled it from room to room. And the only thing we knew how to do was to teach programming. And we actually taught...I taught second graders to program on an Apple IIe. Now, can you imagine that? But we were told that we were supposed to be using technology. There were no educational software pieces available at that time. Absolutely nothing.⁷³

During the 1982-1983 school year, the computer became an important tool.

According to Principal Whorley, the introduction of computers at Campus School served a dual purpose. In addition to providing a new form of learning and allowing the teachers to be some of the first in Rutherford County to be more computer literate, the computers benefitted the student teachers, who were starting to learn computer-based education in their courses at MTSU.⁷⁴ Former librarian Joan Mann further elaborated on the extent to which MTSU assisted Campus School when they received their first computer.

According to Mrs. Mann, MTSU provided workshops for the Campus School teachers at the Campus School library as well as individual help upon request.⁷⁵ A few years after Campus School received its first computer, more computers arrived in the form of donations. According to Dr. King, former student Harry Bradley, who attended Campus

⁷³ Elizabeth Bennett, interview by Matthew Norwood, digital recording, 13 October 2015, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁷⁴ Carole Shelton, "Campus School PTA plans Big Apple Day Carnival," Box 6, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁷⁵ Joan Clark Mann, interview by Matthew Norwood, digital recording, 5 May 2016, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

School in the 1940s, made a large donation to the school. Mr. Bradley donated “a huge TV for the lobby, and he gave us the computers for the classrooms” about three years following Jones’s donation.⁷⁶ Moreover, the parents relished in the fact that Campus School received a computer. Susan Loyd, the head of the Campus School Parent-Teacher Association who was responsible for the Apple Day fundraiser, stated, “I wanted to be sure my children are not at a disadvantage simply because computers were non-existent in their school.”⁷⁷

The blossoming reliance on computers in education led to the concept of Computer-Assisted Instruction, which started in the 1960s but saw mass proliferation during the 1980s, when the size of computers shrank, prices dropped, and more effective computer programs were released. In April of 1983 the National Commission on Excellence in Education, appointed by President Ronald Reagan, reported on the current state of education within the United States. *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform* concluded that the job market required new skills associated with computers, technology, and science.⁷⁸ The report jumpstarted campaigns to install computers and computer labs in schools throughout the United States, with education authorities urging teachers to take time out of the day to teach programming and allow their students to use computers to augment their classwork. Essentially, the 1980s saw a

⁷⁶ King, interview.

⁷⁷ Cox.

⁷⁸ United States Department of Education, National Commission on Excellence in Education, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform* (Washington, D.C.: Government Publishing Office, 1983), 10.

massive shift in pedagogy, with a new tool introduced to educate students. When the computer became a staple in education, so too did the need to educate teachers in how to exploit computers in the classroom.

Middle Tennessee State University's Influence on Campus School

Although its teachers met higher standards of training and experience and it served as a pilot for new education technologies, Campus School's connection with MTSU is most evident in the use of full-time university staff to provide part-time instruction, training opportunities for student teachers, and funds. From its inception, MTSU provided Campus School with elective course instructors who taught part-time at the school. They were described as "supplemental teachers," and mostly comprised college staff who taught courses such as music, band, art, and shop, as well as foreign languages and physical education.⁷⁹ According to former student Pat Nelson, the teachers she had for elective courses were all professors from MTSU. She mentioned that a professor of Art Education who held a doctorate taught art at Campus School, while Mr. Harold Baldwin, an instructor of industrial studies at MTSU, taught general shop in the school's basement.⁸⁰ According to Ms. Nelson, "those professors would come over from campus to teach us every week. That was part of their job, as being professors over here

⁷⁹ "Campus School Aids Students In 'Practice.'"

⁸⁰ Nelson, interview.

on campus, was they had to do so many hours I guess at Campus School.”⁸¹ Physical education was also a supplementary course in which MTSU and Campus School utilized graduate students seeking a Master of Arts degree in Physical Education.⁸² Regarding foreign language classes, Ms. Nelson also noted, “we had French in first grade. I don’t know who came and taught it to us. Somebody from MTSU, I’m sure. We had that once a week... I still remember that.”⁸³ Music class was also a subject that MTSU provided. Mr. John Womack, who attended Campus School in the 1930s reported that he

had a music period, and I was thrilled I got to play the violin. There were about 20 of us. And I was ...when I first started playing with this classroom, I started out with what she [the teacher] called thirds, and musically, of course, that’s the baritone of the chord. And I really just enjoyed...I looked forward to it.⁸⁴

When asked if he had music when he attended Crichlow School, Mr. Womack stated, “no, they didn’t have anything remotely related to that.”⁸⁵ According to Marguerite Boutwell, during her time as a Campus School teacher between 1962 and 1972, MTSU Music Department instructor Michael Salzman would also teach music at Campus School.⁸⁶ MTSU faculty instructing Campus School students allowed for a more thorough education in elective courses not available at other county schools while also allowing MTSU faculty to fulfill their instructional obligations. Learning from a college

⁸¹ Ibid.

⁸² “Campus School Student Aid,” *Daily News Journal*, November 13, 1963.

⁸³ Nelson, interview.

⁸⁴ Womack, interview.

⁸⁵ Ibid.

⁸⁶ Marguerite Boutwell, interview by Regina Forsythe, tape recording, 30 August 1995, Quintin Miller Smith Collection, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

professor in courses such as music, shop, or foreign language meant that the students were in good hands, for they learned from a specialist who worked full-time at the college level.

In addition to providing Campus School with university staff for supplementary courses, MTSU also provided funds for the school. When Campus School was established, Rutherford County and MTSU entered into an agreement for the school's management. For example, the Rutherford County School gave MTSU \$9,500 "as full payment of the County's part of the expenses for operating the [Campus] School" for the 1930-1931 school year.⁸⁷ The following year, the board budgeted \$7,500 in operational costs to be paid to MTSU.⁸⁸ School board minutes recorded no further discussion of the agreement with MTSU until July 1942. The State of Tennessee agreed to provide furnishings, water, heat, lighting, and building maintenance as part of its funding for MTSU, while the county school board agreed to pay teachers' salaries based upon the State's salary schedule and to "supplement the county salary paid to the Campus School staff members."⁸⁹ The Rutherford County School Board and the Tennessee Board of Education agreed "that it is the purpose and intent of the parties to this agreement that the [Campus] School shall be administered for the mutual benefit of Rutherford County and

⁸⁷ Minutes of the August 15, 1930 Meeting, Volume 1, Rutherford County School Board Minutes, Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁸⁸ Minutes of the August 11, 1931 Meeting, Volume 1, Rutherford County School Board Minutes, Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁸⁹ Minutes of the July 15, 1942 Meeting, Volume 2, Rutherford County School Board Minutes, Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

the State Board of Education.”⁹⁰ The contract between the two parties continued, with the contract renewed unanimously each year, even after MTSU expanded its teacher training program to include Central High School in 1947.⁹¹ University funding to Campus School went further in the late 1960s and throughout the 1970s. The minutes of the Rutherford County School Board show that during the October 21, 1976 meeting, chairman Dr. Homer Pittard, reported that Rutherford County “transferred...money in the amount of \$47,000... last year” to Campus School, while MTSU also transferred \$2,700 for building maintenance.⁹² In some cases, MTSU covered salaries for some of Campus School’s teachers completely, such as when Campus School hired Nannie Rucker, its first African American teacher, as discussed in Chapter 2. The minutes also list three Campus School teachers, Verna Crockett, Carolyn Strang, and Peggy Whicker, as “paid in full by MTSU” in 1974 and again in 1978, though not the rationale for the university’s payments.⁹³

Until the 1970s, Campus School appeared as a line item in the university’s budget. According to former teacher Elizabeth Bennett,

I was at the Campus School at the time the State of Tennessee said Campus School may no longer appear as a line item budget in the higher education budget. MTSU, ETSU, Memphis State, their campus schools may no longer appear as a line item budget. Basically, they said we are in the business of educating higher

⁹⁰ Ibid.

⁹¹ Minutes of the April 4, 1947 Meeting, Volume 3, Rutherford County School Board Minutes, Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁹² Minutes of the October 21, 1976 Meeting, Volume 10, Rutherford County School Board Minutes, Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

⁹³ Minutes of the April 1, 1974 Meeting, Volume 8, and Minutes of the April 6, 1978 Meeting, Volume 11, Rutherford County School Board Minutes, Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

education. We are not in the business of educating elementary kids; so it may no longer appear as a line item budget. There was a committee appointed to study that. I was on that committee. I think it was 1971. That's debatable. It could have been 1973. But it was somewhere in there. And we met with the university president. That was Sam Ingram. The Rutherford County Superintendent. That would have been Elam Carleton. And there were three teachers on that committee, a parent, and a university person who was Dr. Beasley and ironed out all those details. And the Rutherford County School system assumed the responsibility of hiring...the Campus School still had some control over that with the interview process, but the Rutherford County School system paid the salary of the teacher. The university paid the janitorial staff because it was their building. So all of those details were kind of ironed out at that time. Prior to that, the university had done all of the funding for the Campus School.⁹⁴

Even though Rutherford County Schools paid the Campus School teachers' salaries, the university supplemented their salaries due to the teachers being considered adjunct university instructors. Mrs. Joan Clark Mann, former Campus School teacher and librarian, revealed that Dr. Mary Tom Berry, the Chair of the MTSU Elementary Education Department,

developed a program whereby we classroom teachers would be considered adjunct faculty. So, our supplement would continue. Classroom teachers would go and teach university students in an existing university classroom at the time. ... And graduate assistants would come in and take our students, and they would carry on whatever lessons we had for them to do. And then, of course, when I went into the library, I would try to do my courses at a time I didn't have classes. But in the classroom the faculty would have to have that graduate assistant, and they worked very closely with them. The graduate assistant would be an elementary major, an elementary education major. But anyway, Dr. Berry worked so that we could continue.⁹⁵

As the librarian, Mrs. Mann arranged for MTSU's library to supply money to purchase various periodicals and books for Campus School. She said that the university spent a

⁹⁴ Bennett, interview.

⁹⁵ Mann, interview.

considerable amount of money for periodicals. “For a time, they ordered a set amount. And I don’t remember the amount, but they would allow me so much money to buy books for the library.”⁹⁶

Funding also came to the forefront in 1956 when area teachers petitioned local school boards to supplement their salaries beyond the small pay raise expected from the state. Cannon County and the Murfreesboro City Schools approved the supplemental pay. The Rutherford Education Association asked the presiding judge of the Rutherford County Quarterly Court, Shelton Edwards, to convene the court to consider the issue. Edwards rejected the REA’s request and “insisted that the teachers should wait for further help from the next session of the state legislature.” When the county court met next on October 8, its members voted down a “magistrate-proposed compromise” pay proposal.⁹⁷ On October 9, 1956, the *Daily News Journal* reported that the county’s white schools could expect a 100% teacher walkout, the first in county history.⁹⁸ The following day, 22 white schools closed when 211 teachers and principals walked out in protest, affecting almost 5,500 schoolchildren. Black schools were not affected.⁹⁹ The Murfreesboro City school system issued a statement indicating that it could not accommodate county students because of what superintendent Baxter Hobgood described as “crowded

⁹⁶ Ibid.

⁹⁷ Greg Tucker, “Teachers Strike, County Court Overwhelmed,” Rutherford County Tennessee Historical Society, June 26, 2011, accessed April 30, 2016, <http://rutherfordtnhistory.org/teachers-strike-county-court-overwhelmed/>.

⁹⁸ Douglas Sparks, “Officials Expect Schools To Close,” *Daily News Journal*, October 9, 1956.

⁹⁹ Douglas Sparks, “5495 Students Affected By Walkout,” *Daily News Journal*, October 10, 1956.

conditions in city schools.”¹⁰⁰ On October 15, the *Daily News Journal* reported that Judge Shelton Edwards, in a dramatic reversal of his views, had spoken directly to the school board, stating “I believe you men have the authority and the legal power to open these schools and we owe it to the parents and the children to reopen the schools immediately.”¹⁰¹ Judge Edwards further urged the members of the school board to “take the necessary action to open our schools.”¹⁰² On October 16, the matter was resolved with an increase in the school tax rate, thereby increasing the pay for the white teachers.¹⁰³ All twenty-two affected schools re-opened the following day.¹⁰⁴

While the Rutherford County school system struggled to pay teachers, the walkout did not affect Campus School. Campus School, along with African American schools, remained open as its teachers and principal continued to educate all 263 students.¹⁰⁵ Although not explicitly stated, evidence suggests that when the walkout occurred, MTSU funding may have played a role in keeping the school open. Since 1942 the Rutherford County School Board’s agreement with the State Board of concerning the operation and maintenance of Campus School had stated that elementary teachers would be paid based on “the state salary schedule... [for] only eight months.”¹⁰⁶ In 1963, a

¹⁰⁰ Ibid.

¹⁰¹ Douglas Sparks, “Judge Edward Urges Board Action,” *Daily News Journal*, October 15, 1956.

¹⁰² Ibid.

¹⁰³ Douglas Sparks, “Teachers Vote On Opening Schools,” *Daily News Journal*, October 16, 1956.

¹⁰⁴ Douglas Sparks, “Teachers Return Here; Schools Are Re-Opened,” *Daily News Journal*, October 17, 1956.

¹⁰⁵ Sparks, “5495 Students Affected By Walkout.”

¹⁰⁶ Ibid.

Daily News Journal article concerning the history of Campus School reported that MTSU “supplements the county salary paid to the Campus School staff members.”¹⁰⁷ Thus it appears likely that Campus School managed to remain open during the teacher walkout because of salary supplements paid by MTSU. More importantly, the university had a duty to keep the school open for the student teachers who needed to obtain their teaching credits. When the walkout occurred, efforts were made to keep Central High School open, albeit unsuccessfully.¹⁰⁸ The *Daily News Journal* reported that the teachers rejected any “overtures” that would keep CHS open because it would be unfair to the teachers already affected.¹⁰⁹ At the time, Central High School served as the secondary education placement for MTSU’s laboratory teaching requirement. However, neither MTSU nor the state owned Central High School, and could not leverage their teacher education responsibilities into keeping the school operating during the walkout.

Another way that its relationship with MTSU benefitted Campus School has been through summer academic enrichment programs for schoolchildren that also provided student teaching experience for university students. Beginning in the 1960s, MTSU instituted an “Aerospace Workshop” that offered public lectures. The *Daily News Journal* reported in the summer of 1963 that Campus School “has been a constant visitor” to the Aerospace Workshop, with eight first and second grade students engaged in learning about geography, geometry, Spanish, and “space progress.”¹¹⁰ According to Campus

¹⁰⁷ “Campus School Student Aid.”

¹⁰⁸ Sparks, “5495 Students Affected By Walkout.”

¹⁰⁹ Ibid.

¹¹⁰ “Campus Tots Study Space,” *Daily News Journal*, June 30, 1963.

School teacher Mrs. Boutwell, “during summer school we would have the aerospace people come over and that was lots of fun. One summer we went out to the airport and all the [summer school] children got to take a ride in the airplane.”¹¹¹

In the summer of 1965, Campus School offered an enrichment program that was open to any student, offering subjects such as typing, science, math, language arts, reading, social studies, and art.¹¹² The enrichment program continued to take students to MTSU’s Aerospace Workshop and used the University’s swimming pool for swimming instruction, while the agricultural department offered instruction in horsemanship.¹¹³ Drama and speech classes were also offered during the enrichment program and utilized MTSU’s resources.¹¹⁴ The enrichment program offered student teachers an additional opportunity to obtain teaching credits, with a total of 1,220 hours completed under the direction of Dr. Mary Tom Berry.¹¹⁵ Both of these summer opportunities allowed Campus School to fulfill its mission in providing practice teaching for MTSU student teachers, while at the same time offering an exclusive use of MTSU resources for the betterment of schoolchildren’s academic progress.

Additionally, Campus School served as a pilot for other educational opportunities that made their way into the American education system. The concept of kindergarten

¹¹¹ Boutwell, interview.

¹¹² “Campus School Added Enrichment Program,” *Daily News Journal*, July 29, 1965.

¹¹³ “Applications For Summer Program At Campus School,” *Daily News Journal*, April 19, 1965.

¹¹⁴ “Campus School Added Enrichment Program.”

¹¹⁵ *Ibid.*

originally began in Germany under the direction of Friedrich Froebel, who established a school in Blankenburg in 1837. Froebel perceived education as “leading man, as a thinking intelligent being, growing into self consciousness [sic], to a pure and unsullied, conscious and free representation of the inner law of Divine Unity and in teaching him ways and means thereto.” He felt that young children’s (*kinder*) skills and abilities should be cultivated like plants in a garden (*garten*), hence the term *kindergarten*. Further, he called upon women to teach kindergarten children in their earliest years, emphasizing games that transitioned into complex puzzles. Kindergarten made its way to the United States in 1848, first in Wisconsin, and later in Boston in 1860.¹¹⁶ America’s first state-run kindergarten began in 1873 in St. Louis, Missouri, via a collaboration between School Superintendent William Torrey Harris and Susan Blow, a member of one of the city’s well-to-do families who was trained in Froebel’s teaching techniques.¹¹⁷ Their initial effort was so successful that by 1884, kindergarten classes were available in all of St. Louis’ schools and had served 9,000 children in the process.¹¹⁸ Not until the late nineteenth and early twentieth century was kindergarten introduced to other school systems, drawing inspiration from the ideals of John Dewey and the curriculum for first

¹¹⁶ Christina More Muelle, “The History of Kindergarten: From Germany to the United States,” Florida International University: 88, accessed April 30, 2016, <http://digitalcommons.fiu.edu/viewcontent.cgi?article=1110&context=sferc>.

¹¹⁷ William J. Reese, *America's Public Schools: From the Common Schools to "No Child Left Behind,"* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2011), 95-97.

¹¹⁸ Carol Ferring Shepley, “Women in History: Susan Blow, Founder of U.S. Kindergartens,” The Missouri History Museum's Blog, March 8, 2011, accessed April 30, 2016, <http://historyhappenshere.org/node/6931>.

grade students. By 1914, a number of cities had established kindergarten as part of their public school systems.¹¹⁹

Tennessee did not add a statewide kindergarten program until the 1960s, but Campus School briefly had a kindergarten program during the 1920s. According to the 1926 edition of MTSU's student yearbook *The Midlander*, Campus School, then known as Training School, offered kindergarten through seventh grades and critic teacher Addie Eggleston served as a "kindergarten" teacher.¹²⁰ However, it appears that kindergarten was eliminated at the school because subsequent volumes of *The Midlander* do not reference it after 1926.¹²¹ Not until the 1960s when Tennessee established a permanent state-sponsored program did kindergarten re-emerge at Campus School. According to former teacher Marguerite Boutwell, who taught at Campus School between 1962 and 1972, Miss Mary Hall was responsible for lobbying the Tennessee General Assembly to have MTSU start training kindergarten teachers.¹²² In a speech entitled "Women's Responsibility in Improving Education," Miss Hall passionately stated:

We hear a lot about "educating all the children" and within the last decade we have, in all of our states, developed excellent programs for the homebound, the retarded, the handicapped, and most of our states are working on programs for the gifted. Yet seven states do not have kindergartens as part of the state educational

¹¹⁹ Muelle, 8.

¹²⁰ *The Midlander* Volume I, 1926, *The Midlander* Collection, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee, 67.

¹²¹ The copies of *The Midlander* at the Albert Gore Research Center at MTSU and the digital copies located at <http://digital.mtsu.edu/cdm/landingpage/collection/p15838coll3> have no listing of any kindergarten teacher or reference to "kindergarten" at Campus School after 1926. Furthermore, Addie Eggleston is not listed in *The Midlander* as a teacher at Campus School after 1926.

¹²² Boutwell, interview.

program. Tennessee has a law prohibiting the use of state funds for kindergartens.¹²³

Apparently, officials heard Miss Hall. For the 1965-66 academic year, Campus School served as the pilot for the kindergarten program for MTSU, which began in 1966 under the sponsorship of the Tennessee Department of Education, along with eight other programs around the state.¹²⁴ Campus School's kindergarten class began on January 24, 1966 under Mrs. Boutwell, who happened to be one of the few kindergarten-credentialed teachers in the state. Principal Mary Frances Spencer hailed the program as "an important addition to our overall teacher education program."¹²⁵ When the kindergarten program at Campus School started, so did the Early Childhood Program for teacher training at MTSU.¹²⁶ Mrs. Boutwell explained that "we educated all those teachers who wanted to become kindergarten teachers in Middle Tennessee. They came here to get their training. So we had the kindergarten program and kindergarten practicum at Campus School."¹²⁷ In September 1966, Education Commissioner J. Howard Warf notified MTSU President Quill E. Cope that Campus School would continue to offer a kindergarten class for the

¹²³ Mary Hall, "Women's Responsibility In Improving Education," quoted in Rita Schaerer King, "Mary Hall: A 20th-Century Pioneer for Educational Progress in Tennessee" (PhD diss., Peabody College of Vanderbilt University, 1993), 84. The precise date and location of this speech is unknown.

¹²⁴ Boutwell, interview.

¹²⁵ "Pilot Program For Teachers To Start Here," *Daily News Journal*, Vol. January 7, 1966.

¹²⁶ King, 72.

¹²⁷ Boutwell, interview.

next two academic years. According to Warf's letter, Campus School and the other centers that offered kindergarten would honor the following arrangements:

1. The local school system will receive payment for the salary, state salary schedule, of one teacher per pilot kindergarten classroom in the approved center.
2. The local school system will receive payment for instructional materials and equipment at the rate of \$12.00 per child in maximum class membership, not to exceed twenty-five students.
3. The local school system will provide the necessary classroom space, facilities, furniture, transportation (if necessary), and other physical arrangements necessary for a successful program.
4. The local school system will have the responsibility for the employment of a certified teacher with endorsement for primary grades (K-3) for each pilot kindergarten classroom.
5. The local school system should establish a local pilot kindergarten committee to work with the local school system.¹²⁸

The pilot kindergarten programs at Campus School and other selected locations proved their worth. In 1967, Commissioner Warf informed all Tennessee school superintendents that the funding that the state legislature allocated for kindergarten classrooms for the years 1967-1969 was insufficient for a program for all of the state's school districts despite the excitement generated for kindergartens across the state. So many school systems applied for the limited kindergarten monies that those approved could only offer one classroom per system. The state paid the teachers' salaries as well as \$20 per child the first year (1967-68) and \$12 per child the second year (1968-69) "for instructional materials and equipment."¹²⁹ The classrooms were limited to twenty-five

¹²⁸ Letter to Tennessee School Superintendents from Tennessee Commissioner of Education J. Howard Warf, September 29, 1966, Series 5, Record Group 92, Box 329, Folder 4, Department of Education Commissioners' Papers, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee.

¹²⁹ Memorandum to Tennessee School Superintendents from Tennessee Commissioner of Education J. Howard Warf, August 28, 1967, Series 5, Record Group 92, Box 329, File 4, Department of Education Commissioners' Papers, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee.

children. The application requirements included not only assurance of sufficient room size and a properly credentialed teacher, but also “a plan for the active participation of parents or guardian in the education of the kindergarten child.” Further, the schools guaranteed the Commissioner that they would continue the class in subsequent years.¹³⁰ Campus School’s kindergarten not only continued, but expanded to two classrooms following the reorganization of schools and grades within Rutherford County in 1972. The new kindergarten classroom moved into some of the additional space created when Campus School lost its seventh and eighth grades to the reorganization. To this day, each kindergarten classroom at Campus School is larger than the other classrooms at the school, and contains its own bathroom facilities.¹³¹ As intended, Campus School’s kindergarten program became a model for the rest of Rutherford County schools. By 1973, there were open positions for kindergarten teachers at John Colemon, Lascassas, McFadden, Walter Hill, and McFadden, with the Rutherford County School Board recommending seven additional kindergarten programs in the county.¹³²

Likewise, Campus School’s association with MTSU enabled it to offer services for its students with learning challenges prior to the passage of the federal Education of All Handicapped Children Act (Public Law 94-142) in 1975. This legislation mandated that children with any disability that negatively impacted their classroom performance

¹³⁰ Ibid.

¹³¹ Author’s recollection.

¹³² Minutes of the July 19, 1973 Meeting, Volume 8, Rutherford County School Board Minutes, Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

must receive appropriate educational services to help them improve.¹³³ This was a landmark law because all schools that received federal monies had to provide formal diagnostic evaluations, involve the child's parents and other stakeholders in the development of the education plan, and regularly monitor the child's educational progress. However, Campus School had initiated support services for its students several years earlier. According to teacher Elizabeth Bennett, in the 1960s and 1970s, Campus School faculty contacted MTSU College of Education professors who sent university students to assist Campus School students with learning needs. She specifically recalled, "Now, prior to that [passage of the Education of All Handicapped Children Act], the classroom teacher would know... this kid needs a little more attention. And we would call on the university, and they would provide students...we would provide for those student's needs."¹³⁴ She emphasized the importance of this collaboration and its impact on Campus School students:

At the time I began my teaching career, we did not have special education teachers. You did not identify students and pull them out as special needs to provide special services. All those services were provided within the classroom. But during the 70s, I'm going to guess the mid-70s, while I was at the Campus School, the act passed that provided money for special education teachers, and the Campus School got their first special education teacher, and we went through that process of identifying students with special needs who needed additional attention. The Campus School was like a family environment. It was such a small group that it was just like a family. The kids were like your kids, your own kids. And you kind of recognized if they needed a little more help. Now that was the wonderful thing about the Campus School relationship with the university. You could call the university, and you could get help to come over and help you with those kids, whether it be the kids that needed additional attention because of some

¹³³ David Carlton, *Student's Guide to Landmark Congressional Laws On Education* (Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 2002), 182.

¹³⁴ Bennett, interview.

learning disability or whether it be a kid at the top of the spectrum who was very advanced and needed more attention. So even before the law was passed that allowed for us to employ a special education teacher, the Campus School was able to take care of those students' needs through some of the resources provided by the university.¹³⁵

Access to university faculty and teachers-in-training to assist its students with disabilities was one of many opportunities for innovative educational practices made possible by Campus School's connection to MTSU.

Middle Tennessee State University's strong relationship with Campus School is evident throughout much of the school's history. Since its beginning, the university leaders saw the need for Campus School teachers to possess advanced education skills in order to train and coach university students as well as provide an enriching school experience for the school's pupils. What is more, the university had a significant role in establishing and maintaining new forms of educational technology, kindergarten, and special educational programs intended to aid students who showed signs of learning disabilities.

¹³⁵ Ibid.

CONCLUSION

For the people who fought for the establishment of a public school system and a state-sponsored teacher-training program, the passage of the General Education Bill of 1909 answered their hopes. As a result of the new law, the state established a fund for public education in order to alleviate the deficiencies in public schools and also created four normal schools to improve the state's professional training of public school teachers. When established, each normal school was required to have a demonstration school attached to it, thereby allowing the students of the normal school to participate in practice teaching before they acquired their teaching certification and entered the work force as full time teacher. These provisions allowed Tennessee to finally have a comprehensive education system for both public school students and their teachers, who now had access to proper training and practice facilities.

The City of Murfreesboro and Rutherford County worked together to secure the location of Middle Tennessee State Normal School, now Middle Tennessee State University, and established the required demonstration school as part of the county school system. The demonstration school operated both on-campus and off-campus for eighteen years prior to moving in 1929 to its current location across the street from MTSU on Lytle Street in Murfreesboro. Now known as the Homer Pittard Campus School, this school has been a center for progressive ideals about education as a result of its connection to MTSU.

When Campus School started classes, its location appears to have been less than ideal, for it was based off-campus on Maple Street and then in two other locations. When

the Campus School's own building was constructed in the late 1920s, its overall architectural style and layout embodied the ideals of progressive education thinkers of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. Reforms in school building design, the expansion of the school curriculum, and school consolidation led to the creation of a multi-use, permanent structure that served the needs of the school students as well as the meeting requirements of the normal school and later the university. MTSU's influence on the school's status as a university building also appears to have resulted in Campus School's periodic upgrades, overall care, and continuous maintenance. Furthermore, MTSU's impact is evident in how the school handled events that directly affected education. Campus School managed to remain operating as well as add courses and field trips during the Great Depression despite Tennessee's dire financial situation, which caused other schools to close early in their school term and cancel non-essential courses. Campus School handled integration by adjusting its enrollment plan as a university-connected school drawing upon Murfreesboro and Rutherford County for its students. While schools in the South grudgingly enrolled African American students, sometimes amid violence, and even after *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* and the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Rutherford County and Murfreesboro City Schools integrated their schools smoothly but through a lengthy process. Being a university laboratory school with a waiting list, Campus School initially hired an African American teacher and then recruited African American families to register their children to attend Campus School. A less well-known issue in twentieth-century public education, overcrowding, appears to have been a problem that Campus School avoided because the school's enrollment was by application only, allowing the school to set a limit on the

quantity of enrollees. As a result, Campus School did not suffer from overcrowding as much as other schools in Rutherford County.

MTSU's influence is also evident when examining the benefits it provided to Campus School. Campus School required its teachers to have at least a bachelor's degree, and later required a master's degree, as well as more teaching experience. Campus School also served as a pilot program for kindergarten and television-based education and was one of the first schools in the county to have computers in the school and later in each classroom. As a line item in MTSU's budget prior to the 1980s, Campus School drew upon the university to supplement or completely cover teachers' salaries.¹

These factors appear to have softened the impact of economic and political factors on Campus School's history. The school not only complied with the requirements of the university whose students it served, but accessed the university resources to fashion itself as a distinctive center of education where a progressive form of academic instruction could be achieved. This is not to say that Campus School was a center of elitism; it was more so an education center that used its status as a laboratory school to insure that the teachers-in-training could apply innovative teaching theories and strategies in a receptive educational environment to the benefit of students. Moreover, their undertakings as student teachers had to be performed in a substantial building that could be adapted with the introduction of new teaching methods and tools as well as regulations for public school buildings.

¹ Joan Clark Mann, interview by Matthew Norwood, digital recording, 5 May 2016, Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Campus School's history is one of a distinctive learning environment as a result of its association with MTSU. As Campus School Principal Dr. J.C. Waller stated in 1933, Campus School served as a model school for Murfreesboro and Rutherford County. As such, a model school is charged with fulfilling a mission of teaching students, whether they are students of the model school or students of a normal school that use the model school to complete their practice teaching requirement. Although the normal school has blossomed into a full-fledged university complete with a large number of different colleges and departments, Campus School still remains a part of the MTSU College of Education and endures as part of the Murfreesboro and Rutherford County communities. Former students and staff still recognize Campus School as a center of learning and a reminder of how a school should be administered.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Primary Sources:

Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations. *The Federal Role in the Federal System: The Dynamics of Growth. Volume V: Intergovernmentalizing the Classroom: Federal Involvement in Elementary and Secondary Education*. March 1981. Accessed June 12, 2016.

<http://www.library.unt.edu/gpo/acir/Reports/policy/a-81-Vol-V.pdf>.

The Americans with Disabilities Act. "The Americans with Disabilities Act." Accessed January 4, 2016. <http://www.ada.gov/taman2.html>.

Anderson, Robert H. "The Principal Faces: Overcrowding." *Educational Leadership* 13, no. 1 (October 1955): 18-23.

Brister, J.W., ed. "General Education Bill." *Public School Laws of Tennessee to June Thirtieth 1911*. Nashville: State Printer, 1911, 76-87. Accessed June 12, 2016. <https://ia801400.us.archive.org/9/items/publicschoolaw00tenngoog/publicschoolaw00tnngoog.pdf>.

Bulletin of the State Teachers College, Murfreesboro. Volume 7, Number 1. June 1931. Albert Gore Research Center. Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee

Bulletin of the State Teachers College, Murfreesboro. Volume 8, Number 1. July 1932. Albert Gore Research Center. Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee

Bulletin of the State Teachers College, Murfreesboro. Volume 11, Number 2. June 1938. Albert Gore Research Center. Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Compute!. Atari Sponsors Research Efforts in Education. October 1981, 171. Accessed April 30, 2016. http://www.atarimagazines.com/compute/issue17/228_1_NEW_PRODUCTS_ARI_SPONSRS_RESEARCH EffORTS_IN_EDUCATION.php.

Daily News Journal Collection. Murfreesboro, Tennessee, 1931-1999. Microfilm. Linebaugh Public Library. Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

- Eastern Tennessee State University School 2014 Accreditation Report Executive Summary, Nashville: AdvancED. Accessed January 31, 2016, http://www.etsu.edu/uschool/accreditation/documents/advanced_report_04_02_14_executive_summary.pdf.
- Eisenhower, Dwight David. "Annual Message to the Congress on the State of the Union." Speech, Washington, D.C., January 5, 1956. Dwight D. Eisenhower Presidential Library, Museum, and Boyhood Home, https://www.eisenhower.archives.gov/all_about_ike/speeches/1956_state_of_the_union.pdf.
- Fechner, Robert. "The Civilian Conservation Corps Program." *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 194 (November 1937): 129-140.
- "Federal School Construction Aid Defeated." In *CQ Almanac 1957*, 13th ed., 04-588-04593. Washington, DC: Congressional Quarterly, 1958. <http://library.cqpress.com/cqalmanac/cqal57-1345328>.
- Fitch, Harry N. *An Analysis of the Supervisory Activities and Techniques of the Elementary School Training Supervisor in State Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges*. 1931. Reprint, New York: AMS Press, 1972.
- Hamon, Ray L. *School-Plant and Consolidation Survey of the Schools of Rutherford County, Tennessee*. Nashville, 1935.
- Homer Pittard Campus School Papers. Albert Gore Research Center. Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
- The Midlander* Collection. Albert Gore Research Center. Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
- National Park Service. "Rehabilitation Standards and Guidelines." Accessed January 4, 2016. <http://www.nps.gov/tps/standards/rehabilitation.htm>.
- Oxley, Howard W. "Educational Activities in the CCC Camps." *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* 10, no. 3 (November 1935): 139-144.
- "Rehabilitation Standards and Guidelines." National Park Service. Accessed January 4, 2016. <http://www.nps.gov/tps/standards/rehabilitation.htm>.
- Rutherford County School Board Minutes. Volume 1. Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Rutherford County School Board Minutes. Volume 2. Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Rutherford County School Board Minutes. Volume 3. Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Rutherford County School Board Minutes. Volume 4. Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Rutherford County School Board Minutes. Volume 5. Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Rutherford County School Board Minutes. Volume 6. Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Rutherford County School Board Minutes. Volume 8. Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Rutherford County School Board Minutes. Volume 13. Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Rutherford County School Board Minutes. Volume 10. Rutherford County School Board Central Office, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Sevier, Mary Catherine. "Campus School Turns 80—come to the Party Nov. 6!." *The Record*. October 19, 2009. Accessed January 4, 2016.
http://www.mtsu.edu/news/Record/Rec_v18/rec1808.pdf.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1923*. 1923.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1928*. Nashville, 1928.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1929*. Nashville, 1929.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1931*. Jackson, 1931.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1932*. Jackson, 1932.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1933*. Nashville, 1933.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1934*. Nashville, 1934.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1935*. Nashville, 1935.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1936*. Clarksville, 1936.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1937*. Clarksville, 1937.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1938*. 1938.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1939*. 1939.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1940*. 1940.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1941 Part 2*. 1941.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1942*. 1942.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1943*. 1943.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1944*. 1944.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1945*. 1945.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1946*. 1946.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1947*. 1947.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1948*. 1948.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1949*. 1949.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1950*. 1950.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1951*. 1951.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1952*. 1952.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1953*. 1953.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1954*. 1954.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1955*. 1955.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1956*. 1956.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1957*. 1957.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1958*. 1958.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1959*. 1959.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1960*. 1960.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1961*. 1961.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1962*. 1962.

Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1963*. 1963.

- Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1964*. 1964.
- Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1965*. 1965.
- Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1966*. 1966.
- Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1968*. 1968.
- Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1969*. 1969.
- Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1970*. 1970.
- Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1972*. 1972.
- Tennessee Department of Education, *Annual Statistical Report of the Department of Education for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1973*. 1973.
- Tennessee Department of Education Commissioners' Papers. Record Group 92. Microfilm. Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee.
- Tennessee Department of Education Records, 1874-1974. Record Group 273. Division of Research and Statistics Reports. Microfilm. Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee.
- Tennessee Department of Public Instruction, *Annual Report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Tennessee for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1921*. 1921.
- Tennessee Department of Public Instruction, *Annual Report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Tennessee for the Scholastic Year Ending June 30, 1922*. 1922.
- United States Department of Education, National Commission on Excellence in Education, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*. Washington, D.C.: Government Publishing Office, 1983.
- United States Department of Health, Education & Welfare, National Science Foundation, *Computer Innovations in Education*. January 1972.

U.S. Department of the Interior. National Park Service. NPS Form 10-900. *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form*.

Willard, Michelle. "MTSU and Christy-Houston Foundation Fund Campus School Renovations." *Murfreesboro Post*. August 28, 2007. Accessed January 4, 2016, <http://www.murfreesboropost.com/mtsu-and-christy-houston-foundation-fund-campus-school-renovations-cms-6151>.

Secondary Sources:

Baker, John Milnes. *American House Styles: A Concise Guide*. New York: W.W. Norton & Company, 2002.

Bell, Theresa, Janet Clodfelter, Jim Coddington, Bruce Davis, Kyle Ellis, Randy Hurt, Charles Lutin, Philip Mintz, Barbara Pearl, Julie Reichman, Ann Schoggen, and Hilda Wilsdorf. *The Past Is Prologue: Peabody Demonstration School, 1915-1970*. Nashville: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1970.

Bentley, H. Blair. "Pedagogy in Peril: Education in the Volunteer State During the Depression." *Tennessee Historical Quarterly* 43, no. 2 (Summer 1984): 173-88.

Besser, Howard. "Education as Marketplace." In *Computers in Education: Social, Political*. 1993, edited by Nancy Nelson Knupfer and Robert Muffoletto, 37-69. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press, Inc., 1995.

Bourne, Lyle E., Bruce R. Ekstrand and Roger L. Dominowski. *The Psychology of Thinking*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1971.

Brand, Stewart. *How Buildings Learn: What Happens After They're Built*. New York: Penguin Books, 1995.

Burkholder, Zoe. *Color in the Classroom: How American Schools Taught Race, 1900-1954*. New York: Oxford University Press, 2011.

Carlton, David. *Student's Guide to Landmark Congressional Laws On Education*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 2002.

Cutler, William W. III. "Cathedral of Culture: The Schoolhouse in American Educational Thought and Practice Since 1820." *History of Education Quarterly* 29, no. 1 (Spring 1989): 1-40.

Eastern Kentucky University Model Laboratory School. "About Model." Accessed April 16, 2016. <http://model.eku.edu/about-model>.

- East Tennessee State University. "University School: About Our School." Accessed January 31, 2016. <http://www.etsu.edu/uschool/about/history.aspx>.
- Epstein, Gail M. "Desegregation of Public Institutions of Higher Education: Merger as a Remedy." *Chicago-Kent Law Review* 56, no. 2 (June 1980): 701-3.
- Hansot, Elizabeth, and David Tyack. *Managers of Virtue: Public School Leadership in America, 1820-1980*. New York City: Basic Books, 1982.
- Hansot, Elisabeth, Robert Lowe, and David Tyack. *Public Schools in Hard Times: The Great Depression and Recent Years*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1984.
- Hines, Laurie Moses and Robert A. Levin. "Educational Television, Fred Rogers, and the History of Education." *History of Education Quarterly* 43, no. 2 (Summer 2003): 262-275.
- Horace Mann Laboratory School. "Horace Mann Laboratory School About Us." Accessed April 16, 2016. http://spshmann.salemk12.org/pages/SPS_HmannWebDocs/Aboutus.
- Kaestle, Carl F. *The Evolution of an Urban School System: New York City, 1750-1850*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1973.
- Kennedy, David M. *Freedom from Fear: The American People in Depression and War*. New York: Oxford University Press, 2005.
- Marion, Kristi. "Local Architecture." MyWinston-Salem.com. October 14, 2014. Accessed January 4, 2016. <http://www.mywinston-salem.com/local-architecture/>.
- McWatters, D. Lorne. "A History of Place." In *MTSU: A Centennial Legacy*, edited by Janice M. Leone. Murfreesboro, TN: Twin Oaks Press, 2011.
- Middle Tennessee State University. "Jennings A. Jones." November 5, 2015. Accessed February 14, 2016. <http://www.mtsu.edu/business/jonesbio.php>.
- Mondale, Sarah, and Sarah B. Patton, eds. *School: The Story of American Public Education*. Boston: Beacon Press, 2001.
- Morrow, Daniel. "Excerpts from an Oral History Interview with Steve Jobs." Smithsonian Institution Oral and Video Histories. April 20, 1995. Accessed April 30, 2016. <http://americanhistory.si.edu/comphist/sj1.html>.
- Muelle, Christina More. "The History of Kindergarten: From Germany to the United States." Florida International University. Accessed April 30, 2016. <http://digitalcommons.fiu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1110&context=sferc>.

- Oakland High School. "Oakland High School: An International Baccalaureate School." 2014. Accessed January 18, 2016.
<http://www.ohs.rcschools.net/guidance/documents/SchoolProfile.pdf>.
- Pride, Richard A., and J. David Woodard. *The Burden of Busing: The Politics of Desegregation in Nashville, Tennessee*. Knoxville: The University of Tennessee Press, 1985.
- Reese, William J. *America's Public Schools: From the Common Schools to "No Child Left Behind."* Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2011.
- Rippa, S. Alexander. *Education in a Free Society: An American History*. White Plains, NY: Longman, 1997.
- Rowe, David L. "A Remarkable Legacy." In *MTSU: A Centennial Legacy*, edited by Janice M. Leone. Murfreesboro, TN: Twin Oaks Press, 2011.
- Rury, John L. *Education and Social Change: Themes in the History of American Schooling*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., 2005.
- Shepley, Carol Ferring. "Women in History: Susan Blow, Founder of U.S. Kindergartens." The Missouri History Museum's Blog. March 8, 2011. Accessed April 30, 2016. <http://historyhappenshere.org/node/6931>.
- Smith, Melissa. *The Education Improvement Act: A Progress Report*. Nashville: State of Tennessee, Office of the Comptroller of the Treasury, April 2004.
- Tucker, Greg. "Teachers Strike, County Court Overwhelmed." Rutherford County Tennessee Historical Society, June 26, 2011. Accessed April 30, 2016.
<http://rutherfordtnhistory.org/teachers-strike-county-court-overwhelmed/>.
- University of Tennessee Knoxville. "Celebrating 50 Years of African American Achievement." 2011. Accessed February 28, 2016.
<http://www.achieve.utk.edu/timeline.shtml>.
- U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, *National Register of Historic Places Inventory-Marr and Holman Buildings in Downtown Nashville*, by James Draeger and Philip Thomason. Nashville, Tennessee, 1984.
- U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, *National Register of Historic Places Inventory Nomination Form-Public Schools of Memphis 1902-1915 Thematic Resources*, by Lloyd Otsby. Memphis, Tennessee, 1982.

- U.S. Department of the Interior. National Park Service. *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form-(former) Atkins High School*, by Langdon Edmunds Oppermann. Winston-Salem, North Carolina, 1997.
- U.S. Department of the Interior. National Park Service. *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form-Cliffside Public School*, by Davyd Foard Hood. Cliffside, North Carolina, 1997.
- U.S. Department of the Interior. National Park Service. *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form-(former) Reidsville High School*, by Laura A.W. Phillips. Reidsville, North Carolina, 1993.
- U.S. Department of the Interior. National Park Service. *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form-Woodland-Olney School*, by Beth W. Keane. Woodland, North Carolina, 1993.
- Wagner, William J. "Giving with a Plan: The Training Component of the IBM Secondary Education Program." *Teacher Education Quarterly* 10, no. 4 (Autumn 1983): 43.
- Watters, Audrey. "How Steve Jobs Brought the Apple II to the Classroom." Hack Education, February 25, 2015. Accessed May 3, 2015.
<http://hackededucation.com/2015/02/25/kids-cant-wait-apple>.
- Webb, L. Dean. *The History of American Education: A Great American Experiment*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson, 2005.
- Weiler, Randy. "Older MTSU Science Facilities Await \$20m Renovations." *mtsunews.com*. July 30, 2015. Accessed January 3, 2016.
[http://www.mtsunews.com/davis-wiser-patten-await renovations/](http://www.mtsunews.com/davis-wiser-patten-await-renoivations/).
- West, Mike. "Bradley Academy Dates Back to 1811." *Murfreesboro Post*, January 24, 2010. Accessed May 25, 2016. <http://www.murfreesboropost.com/bradley-academy-dates-back-to1811-cms-21514>.

Oral Histories:

- Bennett, Elizabeth. Interview by Matthew Norwood. 13 October 2015. Digital recording. Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
- Boutwell, Marguerite. Interview by Regina Forsythe. 30 August 1995. Tape recording. Quintin Miller Smith Collection, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

- Bradley, Elizabeth. Interview by Regina Forsythe. 5 November 1995. Tape recording. Quintin Miller Smith Collection, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
- Jolly, Ella. Interview by Regina Forsythe. 17 August 1995. Tape recording. Quintin Miller Smith Collection, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
- King, Rita. Interview by Matthew Norwood. 16 February 2016. Digital recording. Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
- Mann, Joan Clark. Interview by Matthew Norwood. 5 May 2016. Digital recording. Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
- McNabb, Oma. Interview by Matthew Norwood. 15 September 2015. Digital recording. Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
- Moser, Jean. Interview by Regina Forsythe. 21 September 1995. Tape recording. Quintin Miller Smith Collection, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
- Nelson, Pat. Interview by Matthew Norwood. 7 December 2015. Digital recording. Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
- O'Gwynne, Suzanne. Interview by Matthew Norwood. 17 December 2015. Digital recording. Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
- Parker, Hilary. Interview by Regina Forsythe. 26 August 1995. Tape Recording. Quintin Miller Smith Collection, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
- Smotherman, Charlotte. Interview by Regina Forsythe. 29 September 1995. Tape recording. Quintin Miller Smith Collection, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
- Womack, John. Interview by Matthew Norwood. 10 November 2015. Digital recording. Homer Pittard Campus School Papers, Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Theses and Dissertations:

- Allen, Cecil H. "Legal Principles Governing Practice Teaching in State Teachers Colleges, Normal Schools, and Public Schools." PhD diss., George Peabody College for Teachers, 1937.
- Clough, Dick Bryan. "A History of Teachers' Institutes in Tennessee, 1875-1915." EdD diss., Memphis State University, 1972.
- Gentry, Abby Anne. "1920's North Carolina High Schools Adapting to Twenty-First Century Needs." Master's thesis, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 2012.
- Holt, Andrew David. "The Struggle for a State System of Public Schools in Tennessee, 1903-1936." PhD diss., Columbia University, 1938.
- Irwin, Edward Franklin Williams. "The Actual and Potential Use of Laboratory Schools: In State Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges." PhD diss., Columbia University, 1942.
- King, Rita Schaerer. "Mary Hall: A 20th-Century Pioneer for Educational Progress in Tennessee." PhD diss., Peabody College of Vanderbilt University, 1993.
- Lickiss, Melinda Johnson. "Integration of Schools in Murfreesboro, Tennessee: A Community Study." Master's thesis, Middle Tennessee State University, 1997.
- Slater, Margaret. "The Evolution of Schoolhouse Architecture in Tennessee." Master's thesis, Middle Tennessee State University, 1987.
- Williams, Edward Franklin Irwin. "The Actual and Potential Use of Laboratory Schools: In State Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges." PhD diss., Columbia University, 1942.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PHOTOGRAPHS



A 1. Homer Pittard Campus School, Marr & Holman, architects, Murfreesboro, Tennessee. Photograph by Matthew T. Norwood, 2014.



A 2. Homer Pittard Campus School, Marr & Holman, architects, Murfreesboro, Tennessee. Photograph by Matthew T. Norwood, 2014.



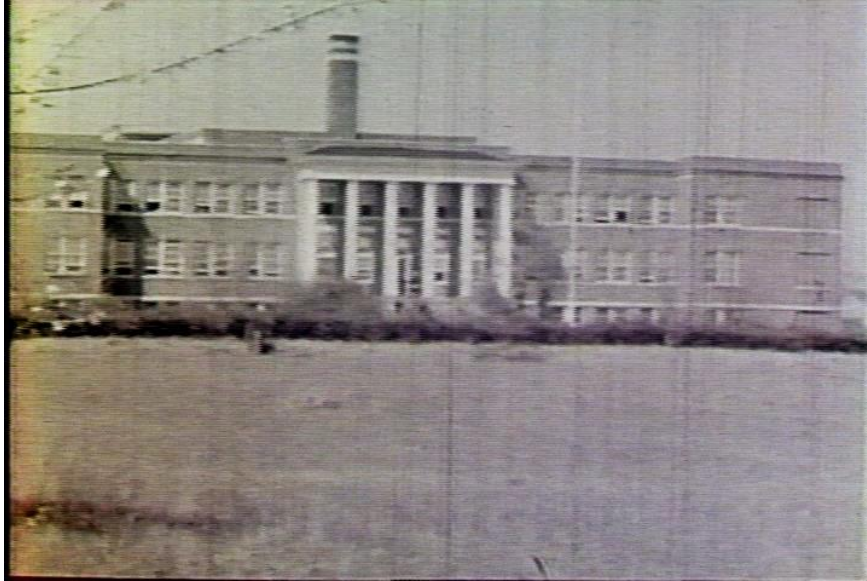
A 3. Homer Pittard Campus School (formerly Training School) under construction, ca. 1928, Marr & Holman, architects, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Courtesy: Shackletts Photography Collection, Rutherford County Archives, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.



A 4. Homer Pittard Campus School (formerly Training School) under construction, ca 1928, Marr & Holman, architects, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Courtesy: Shackletts Photography Collection, Rutherford County Archives, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.



A 5. Still image from a newsreel about the Training School, ca. 1930s, Marr & Holman, architects, Murfreesboro, Tennessee. Courtesy: Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.



A 6. Homer Pittard Campus School (formerly Training School), Marr & Holman, architects, Murfreesboro, Tennessee. Courtesy: Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.



A 7. Homer Pittard Campus School (formerly Training School), Marr & Holman, architects, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
Courtesy: Albert Gore Research Center, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.



A 8. Kirksey Old Main (formerly the Middle Tennessee State Normal School's Administration Building), C. K. Colley, architect, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
Photograph by Matthew T. Norwood, 2014.



A 9. Federal Reserve Bank of Atlanta building, Marr & Holman, architects, Nashville, Tennessee. Photograph by Matthew T. Norwood, 2015.



A 10. Frist Center for the Visual Arts (formerly the U.S. Post Office building), Marr & Holman, architects, Nashville, Tennessee. Photograph by Matthew T. Norwood, 2015.



A 11. James Robertson Hotel,
Marr & Holman, architects,
Nashville, Tennessee. Photograph
by Matthew T. Norwood, 2015.



A 12. Entrance to the
Tennessee Supreme Court
building, Marr & Holman,
architects, Nashville,
Tennessee. Photograph by
Matthew T. Norwood, 2015.



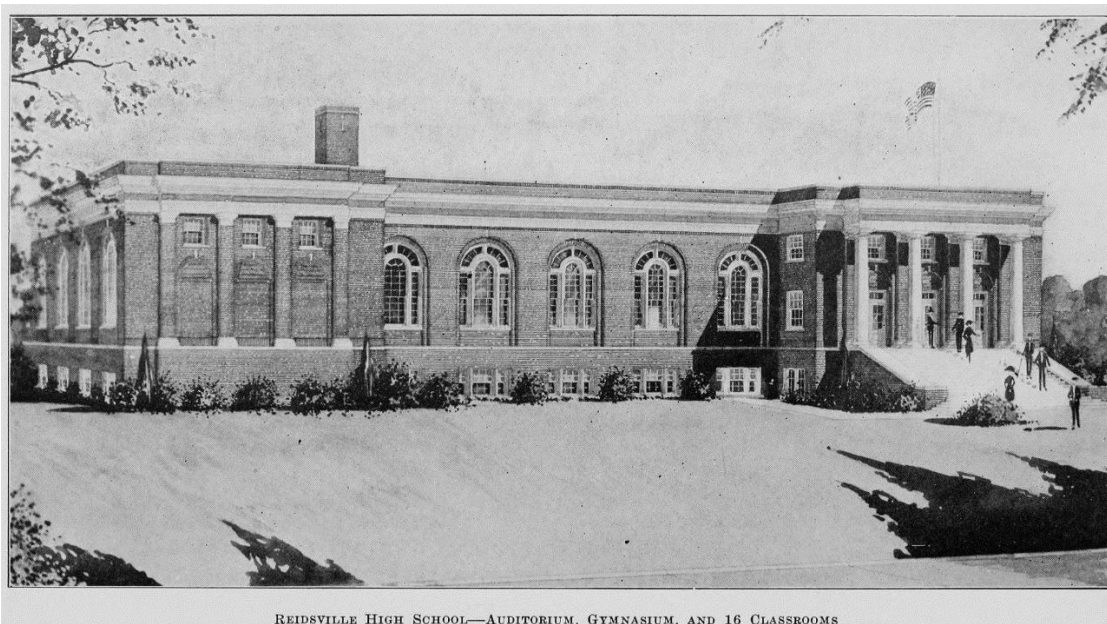
A 13. University School – East Tennessee State University, Johnson City, Tennessee.

Courtesy: East Tennessee State University website,
http://www.etsu.edu/news/2015/01_jan/pictures/universitychool_alexanderhall_newsitemsize.jpg.



A 14. Central High School, Memphis, Tennessee, B.C. Alsup, architect, Memphis, Tennessee.

Courtesy: Central High School 1969 website,
http://www.memphiscentral1969.com/clients/865565/4554515_org.jpg.



REIDSVILLE HIGH SCHOOL—AUDITORIUM, GYMNASIUM, AND 16 CLASSROOMS

A 15. (Former) Reidsville High School, Willard C. Northup, architect, Reidsville, North Carolina, ca. 1920.

Courtesy: North Carolina Department of Public Instruction.



A 16. Henrietta-Caroleen High School (now Thomas Jefferson Classical Academy), Leslie Boney, architect, Mooresboro, North Carolina.

Digital image by herdintheupstate, Wikimedia Commons, July 11, 2013,
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Former_Henrietta-Caroleen_High_School.jpg.



A 17. Cliffside Public School, Louis Humbert Asbury, architect
Cliffside, North Carolina.

Digital image by Upstateherd, Wikimedia Commons, June 3, 2013,
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Cliffside_School.jpg.



A 18. Woodland-Olney School, Eric Flanagan, architect, Woodland, North
Carolina. Photograph by Beth Keane, ca. 1997-2002.
Courtesy: State Archives of North Carolina.



A 19. (Former) Sanford High School (now a public arts center), Wilson, Berryman & Kennedy, architects, Sanford, North Carolina. Digital image by Jerrye & Roy Klotz, MD, Wikimedia Commons, March 9, 2007,

https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:SANFORD_HIGH_SCHOOL,_FORMER;_LEE_COUNTY.jpg.



A 20. (Former) Atkins High School (now Winston-Salem Preparatory Academy), Harold Macklin, architect, Winston-Salem, North Carolina.

Photograph obtained from the Atkins High School National Register of Historic Places Registration Form.

APPENDIX B

LENGTH OF SCHOOL TERM 1928-1938

Year	County		City		Average	
	White	Colored	White	Colored	County	City
1928	158	140	172	170	155	179
1929	157	141	174	171	155	174
1931	156	149	171	172	152	172
1932	156	137	167	173	153	169
1933	155	137	151	164	152	154
1934	159	149	167	173	157	169
1935	157	144	177	179	155	177
1936	160	142	176	176	157	176
1937	157	140	175	176	154	176
1938	160	155	176	178	159	176

Table B.1.

Source: State of Tennessee Department of Education Annual Report for the scholastic years ending June 30, 1928-1938. Figures are from “Average Length of School Term” section of the Elementary Schools portion of each report.

Note: The 1930 report is unavailable.

Year	County		City		Average	
	White	Colored	White	Colored	County	City
1928	158	144	175	175	151	175
1929	158	139	178	173	153	177
1931	150	134	178	178	147	178
1932	158	123	178	178	150	178
1933	157	124	179	172	150	176
1934	159	155	179	179	158	179
1935	161	118	179	180	153	180
1936	159	116	179	180	151	179
1937	157	114	177	179	152	178
1938	160	155	178	180	159	179

Table B.2.

Source: State of Tennessee Department of Education Annual Report for the scholastic years ending June 30, 1928-1938. Figures are from “Average Length of School Term” section of the Elementary Schools portion of each report.

Note: The 1930 report is unavailable.

APPENDIX C

EDUCATION EXPENDITURES IN TENNESSEE 1928-1938

Table C.1. Total Education Expenditures for the State of Tennessee 1928-1938	
Year	Total
1928	\$31,263,534.72
1929	\$30,286,375.47
1931	\$31,689,969.53
1932	\$31,681,902.41
1933	\$23,932,123.37
1934	\$31,003,643.08
1935	\$27,469,358.67
1936	\$24,779,541.26
1937	\$24,473,390.40
1938	\$25,009,296.48

Table C.1.

Source: State of Tennessee Department of Education annual report from between 1928 and 1938. Each figure calculated by adding the dollar amount labeled “Grand Total Expenditures” for the County and City Elementary and High Schools.

Note: The 1930 report is unavailable.

APPENDIX D

TEACHER TRAINING IN THE (WHITE) COUNTY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF
TENNESSEE 1928-1937

Table D.1. Teacher Training in the (White) County Elementary Schools of Tennessee 1928-1937												
Year	5+ years	Coll. Gr.	3 Yrs Co.	2 Yrs Co.	1 Yr Co.	H.S. Grd.	3 Yrs HS	2 Yrs HS	1 Yr HS	Elem.	Less than H.S. totals	
1928	No Data	384	379	1,159	1,855	4,488	618	520	202	581	1,921	
1929	No Data	485	413	1,292	2,555	3,871	443	445	159	269	1,316	
1931	No Data	740	481	1,494	4,006	2,336	289	278	91	217	875	
1932	No Data	786	575	1,901	4,363	1,779	244	205	57	196	702	
1933	No Data	952	639	2,290	4,363	1,400	213	147	55	182	597	
1934	No Data	1,202	693	2,566	4,245	1,024	148	97	43	98	386	
1935	No Data	1,263	749	3,047	4,149	827	103	77	33	70	283	
1936	No Data	1353	811	3,514	3,755	694	57	46	20	65	188	
1937	103	1,387	1,014	3,928	3,247	604	No Data	No Data	No Data	No Data	156	

Table D.1.

Source: The Tennessee Department of Education annual reports from between 1928 and 1937. Each figure obtained from the "Training of County Elementary Teachers - White" section of the "Elementary Schools, Statistical Tables" of each report.

Note: The 1930 report is unavailable.

APPENDIX E

TEACHER CERTIFICATION IN THE (WHITE) COUNTY ELEMENTARY
SCHOOLS OF TENNESSEE 1928-1937

Table E.1. Teacher Certification in the (White) County Elementary Schools of Tennessee 1928-1937

Year	Perm. Pro.	4-Year Pro.	Limited Tr. Pro.	Permanent Exam.	4-Year Exam.	5-Year Exam.	2-Year Exam.	Permit
1928	1,266	1,993	3,049	1,171	786	121	834	515
1929	1,642	2,695	2,634	1,158	801	90	632	280
1931	2,185	3,947	1,623	974	687	24	389	99
1932	2,902	4,321	942	910	685	21	292	31
1933	3,430	4,384	698	810	664	No Data	197	58
1934	3,991	4,319	405	740	491	No Data	164	6
1935	4,683	4,140	289	685	372	No Data	142	7
1936	5,324	3,768	224	583	291	No Data	115	10
1937	5,894	3,418	246	533	232	No Data	104	12

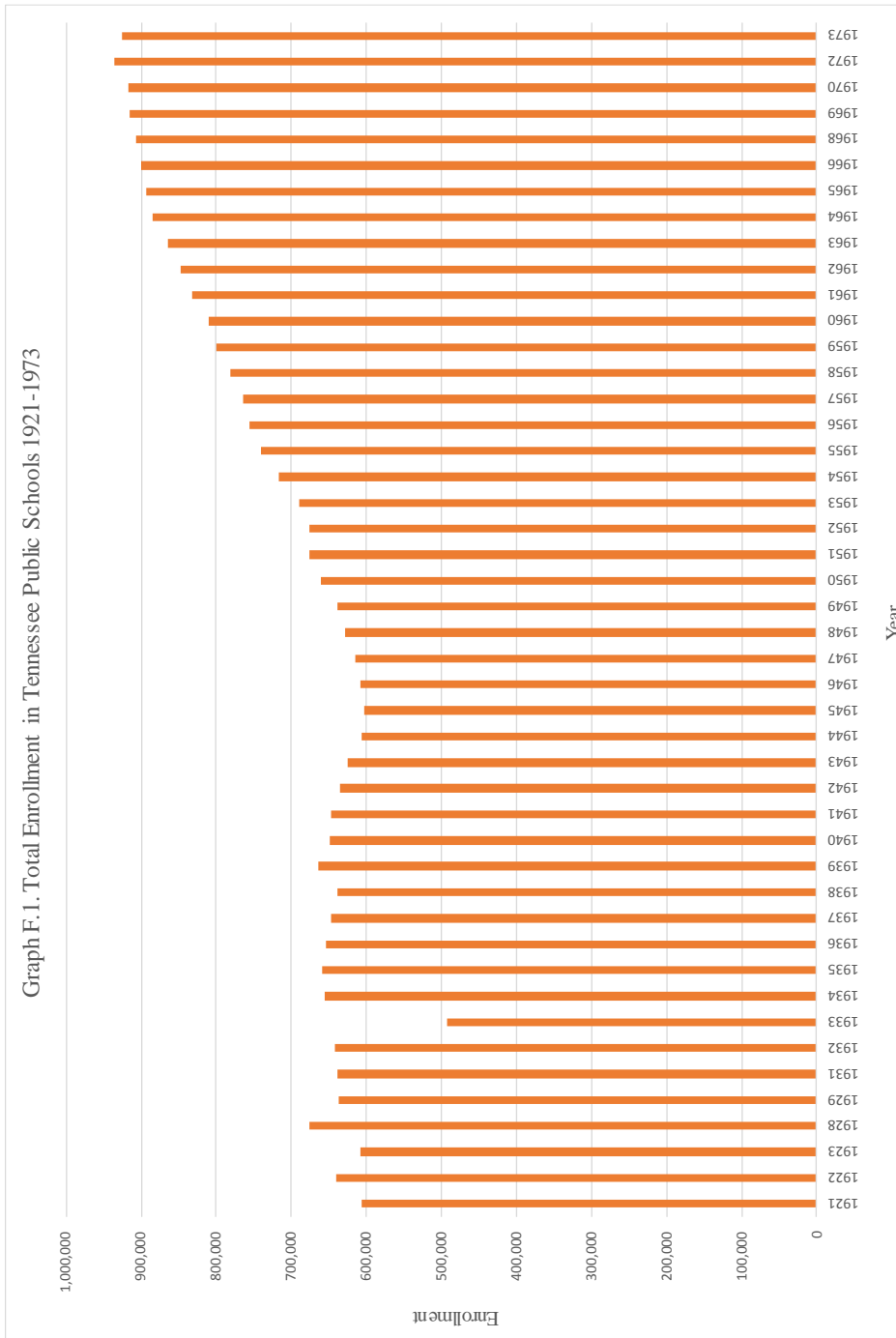
Table E.1.

Source: The Tennessee Department of Education annual reports from between 1928 and 1937. Each figure obtained from the “Certification of Teachers, County Elementary – White” section of the “Elementary Schools, Statistical Tables” of each report.

Note: The 1930 report is unavailable.

APPENDIX F

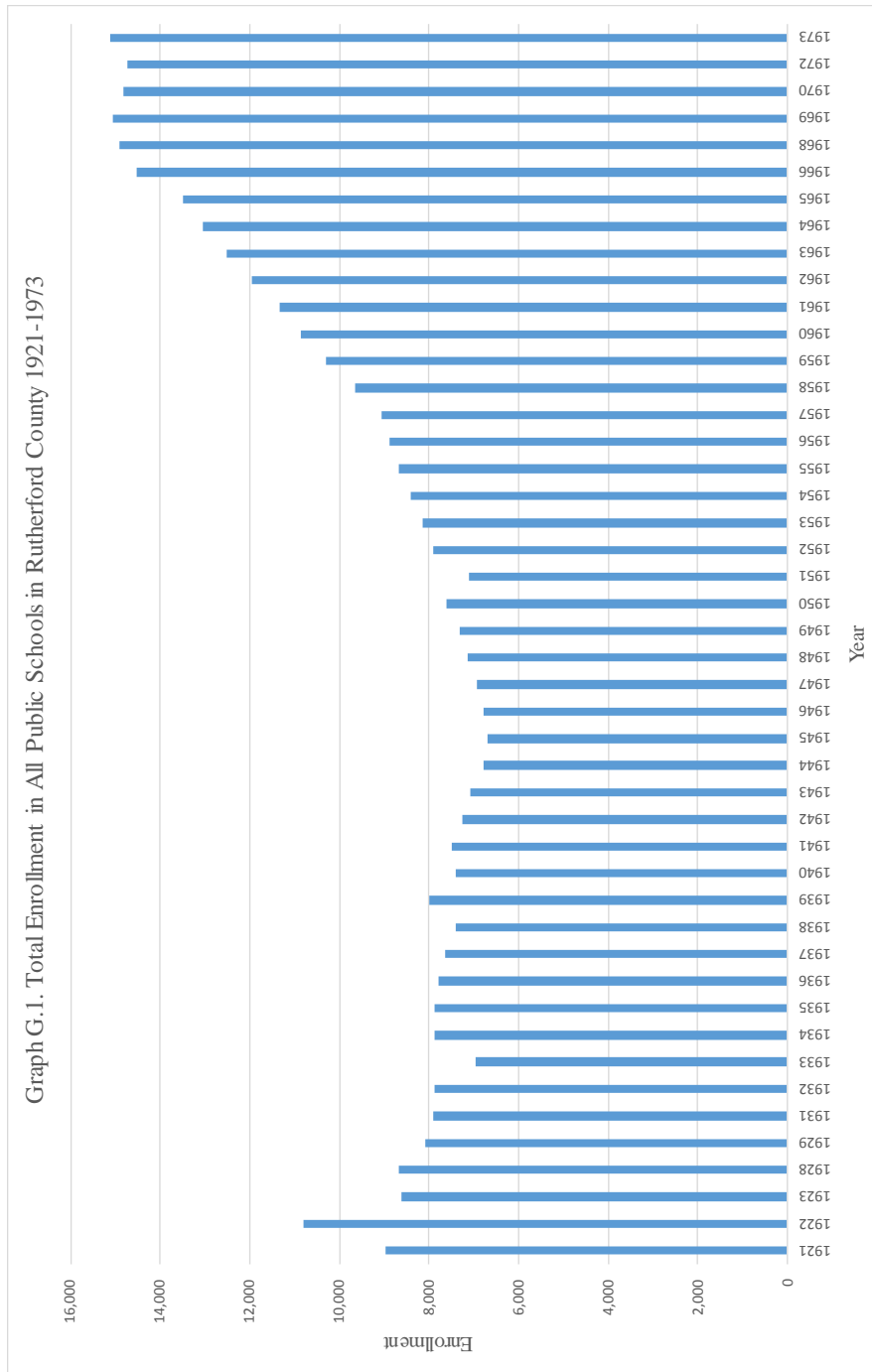
SCHOOL ENROLLMENT IN TENNESSEE 1921-1973



Graph F.1.
 Source: The Tennessee Department of Education annual reports from between 1921 to 1973. Figures are from the "Total enrollment all elementary and high schools" section of each report.
 Note: 1930, 1967, and 1971 are unavailable.

APPENDIX G

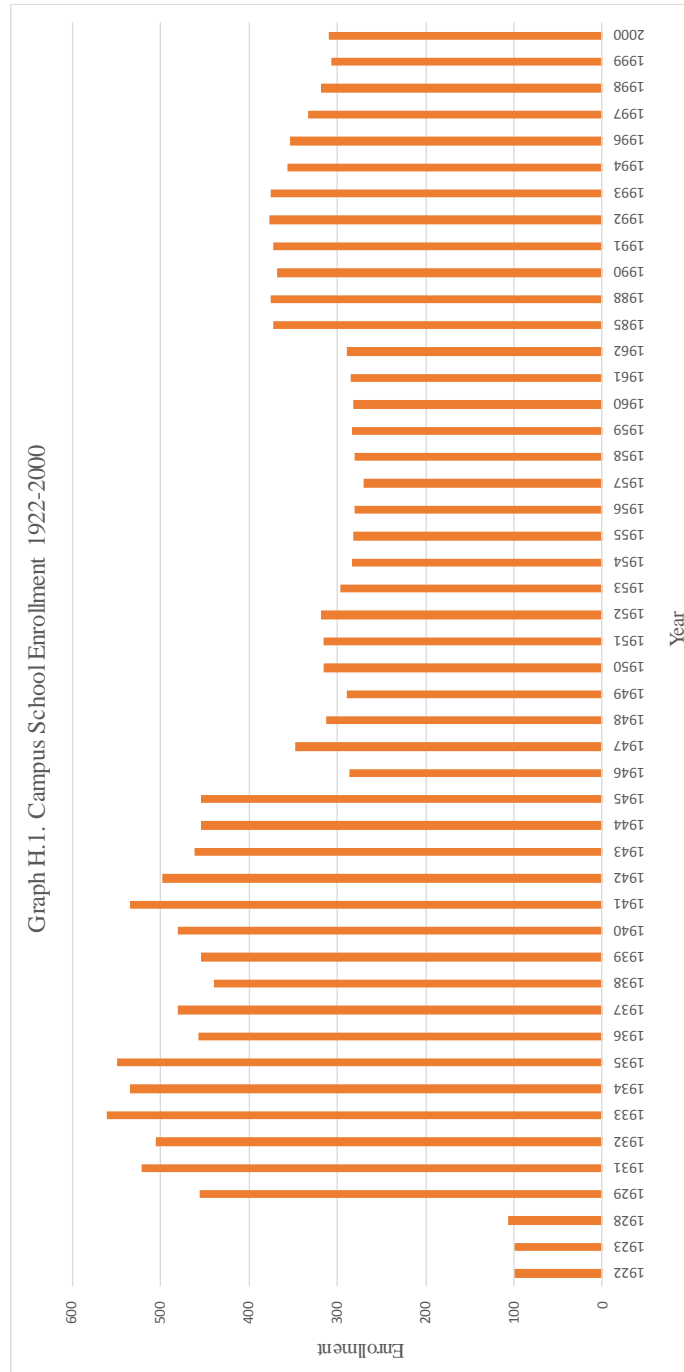
TOTAL ENROLLMENT IN RUTHERFORD COUNTY SCHOOLS 1921-1973



Graph G.1.
 Source: The Tennessee Department of Education annual reports from 1928 to 1972. Figures are from the Rutherford county portion of the "Total enrollment all elementary and high schools" section of each report.
 Note: 1930, 1967, 1971 are unavailable.

APPENDIX H

CAMPUS SCHOOL ENROLLMENT 1922-2000



Graph H.1.
 Source: The Tennessee Department of Education annual reports from between 1922 and 1962; Campus School yearbooks from between 1985 and 2000.
 Note: 1930, 1963-1984, 1986, 1987, 1989, 1995 are unavailable.

APPENDIX I

IRB APPROVAL

IRB

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
Office of Research Compliance,
010A Sam Ingram Building,
2269 Middle Tennessee Blvd
Murfreesboro, TN 37129



PROTOCOL APPROVAL NOTICE

6/30/2015

Investigator(s): Matthew Norwood (PI) and Mary Hoffschwelle
Investigator(s) Email: mtn2j@mtmail.mtsu.edu; mary.hoffschwelle@mtsu.edu
Department: History/Albert Gore Research Center
Protocol Title: "The effects of seminal events of the 20th century on the student body of Homer Pittard Campus School"
Protocol Number: 15-332

Dear Investigator(s),

The MTSU Institutional Review Board, or a representative of the IRB, has reviewed the research proposal identified above. The MTSU IRB or its representative has determined that the study poses minimal risk to participants and qualifies for an expedited review under 45 CFR 46.110 and 21 CFR 56.110. This approval is for one (1) year from the date of this letter for **25 (TWENTY FIVE) participants**. This protocol expires **6/30/2016**.

Any unanticipated harms to participants or adverse events must be reported to the Office of Compliance at (615) 494-8918 within 48 hours of the incident. Any change(s) to the protocol must be approved by the IRB. MTSU HRP defines "researcher" as anyone who works with data or has contact with participants. Anyone meeting this definition needs to be listed on the protocol and needs to complete the required training. New researchers can be amended to this protocol by submitting an Addendum request researchers to the Office of Compliance before they begin to work on the project.

Completion of this protocol MUST be notified to the Office of Compliance. A "completed research" refers to a protocol in which no further data collection or analysis is carried out. This protocol can be continued up to THREE years by submitting annual Progress Reports prior to expiration. Failure to request for continuation will automatically result in cancellation of this protocol and you will not be able to collect or use any new data.

All research materials must be retained by the PI or the faculty advisor (if the PI is a student) for at least three (3) years after study completion. Subsequently, the researcher may destroy the data in a manner that maintains confidentiality and anonymity. IRB reserves the right to modify, change or cancel the terms of this letter without prior notice. Be advised that IRB also reserves the right to inspect or audit your records if needed.

Sincerely,

Institutional Review Board
Middle Tennessee State University

NOTE: All necessary forms can be obtained from www.mtsu.edu/irb.