

IN THE HEART OF THE COMMUNITY:  
FOUNDATION OF A JUNIOR  
COLLEGE

by

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## ABSTRACT

There has been much written on the topic of higher education in America. All facets from formation to expansion to experimentation to controversial issues in institutions of higher education have been discussed and dissected. However, one of the most compelling higher educational topics is the emergence and development of the junior college. This educational innovation is particularly American and formed in the early years of the twentieth century.

The two-year college is purported to have been founded in 1901, and the institution today shows great variety and responsiveness to its communities. The early versions of the two-year institution sought to provide basic coursework that students could transfer to a university, but over time two-year institutional offerings expanded to include terminal degrees as well as technical education. The two-year college was then and is now, responsive to the social and economic needs of the communities that they served.

The emergence of Snead Junior College is illustrative of the development of two-year institutions. Snead evolved from a private Methodist Episcopal elementary and high school and became a junior college in 1935. The foundation laid by educational missionaries allowed for the institution's early transformation into a two-year college. The challenges that were faced were both local and national in scope, but with planning and determination Snead Junior College was founded. Today, the institution is still providing educational opportunities to the people in northeast Alabama as a community college, operating as Snead State Community College.

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## CHAPTER I:

### INTRODUCTION

The formation of the junior college is taught and discussed in formats from classrooms to conferences, and there are conflicting views as to how and why the junior college was founded. In this study, I show that multiple and unique factors facilitated its formation. Factors of religion and its missionary movements, the evolution from the primary and secondary levels to the college level, and the community support of a rural, farming region do not widely appear in the literature of junior college, but these factors were integral parts of the formation of Snead Junior College.

#### **Background**

When Alabama became a state in 1819, Governor William Wyatt Bibb supported education, but educational movements during this time occurred mostly at the local level. Instruction was from private academies and home schooling through private tutors, which were favored by wealthy planters and other elites. It was not until 1854 that the state allowed each county to tax its citizens to support public education. Not long after the state allowed such taxation, the Civil War forced many academies to close. Throughout the years of war and Reconstruction, education was negatively affected. In the aftermath of these events, the educational system failed within the state. What education that existed was often led by religious entities, who founded several higher institutions at the close of the nineteenth century. By 1895, many of antebellum institutions had reopened for the purpose of training quality teachers. There was also the establishment of more normal schools, where teachers were trained, as well as an

increase in agricultural and mechanical colleges. These latter institutions responded to the new scientific and industrial advancement of the country that was becoming a part of the business world (Rogers, Ward, Atkins, & Flynt, 2018).

In addition to events at the local level, the federal government addressed higher education in 1862 with the passing of the Morrill Act, which supported the formation of state institutions of higher learning. Passed during the Civil War, the act little affected southern institutions, but in the post-Civil War Era, Congress expanded the support for education to include the southern region. In 1887, the Hatch Act funded experimental stations in agriculture at land-grant colleges, and by 1890 the second Morrill Act was passed, which prompted the foundation of more colleges. This 1890 act led to the common practice of extension programs that came directly from colleges and universities to many citizens in their regions. Extension programs used educational seminars, in-person demonstrations, and newsletters which influenced farm and home life. The Morrill Act of 1890 also instituted a racial element in higher education where there were separate White and Black land grant colleges that were founded (Thelin, 2011). The establishment of land grant colleges for Black students was not as helpful as intended, as it entrenched the separation of the races. There was also an underfunding of Black land grant institutions in comparison to the funding available for White institutions. Due to this lack of funding, “black institutions were disproportionately neglected with respect to facilities, salaries, and staffing” (Thelin, 2011, p. 136.) and thus were unable to conduct research to the extent that White institutions were. This differing treatment portended the coming of Jim Crow laws in the south in the late nineteenth century. Since land grant funding came from the federal government, it could be interpreted as an acceptance of segregation. From 1887 through 1914, multiple acts of legislation focused on expanding education into engineering, agriculture, and military training.

There was also an increased focus on governmental and university cooperation in the forms of research and technology (Thelin, 2011). Although this activity was focused on four-year colleges and universities, the emphasis on innovation and technology speaks to the increasing desire for expanded higher education. It was during this time that Snead Seminary came into being.

The Alabama State Legislature affirmed that Boaz was a school district in December of 1894 and was entitled to some of the funds from county educational funding for the city to establish a high school. Before state funding had been approved, a building had been built with the support of local businessmen to be used as a school. This building was property of the stockholders who had given the funding and any new educational institution would be held in this structure. When a high school was established, it charged a nominal tuition and fees that would offset incurred costs. Unfortunately, the school was never stable due to a shortage of funds. The tuition and fees from students were not enough of a replacement for the money the school was supposed to receive from local and state governments and was continually in need of funding. The disbursement of promised funds was slow in appearing and there were also internal issues that had to do with the faculty. Teachers who were employed often left due to more lucrative opportunities elsewhere or because of marriage. Married women, in this era, usually were not eligible to be teachers, as a woman was required to be single to be hired as a teacher (Allen & Allen, 1898).

The public high school also suffered from a lack of regular student attendance. In September of 1897, all children were kept home to gather crops within the farm-based community. This was a point at which the first high school would close. While the gathering of crops in a rural region was not unusual, it was too much for Miss Eddie Moseley, the only

remaining teacher. Miss Moseley left the school, and with this action, the high school found itself with no teacher. By 1898, the original Boaz High School, dependent on tuition and in a building that it did not own, was closed. The building was then given by the stockholders, who owned the facility, to be run by the Methodist Episcopal Church. This new school was named the Boaz Academy. For the next four years, Boaz did not have a public school, and some citizens were not pleased at the lack of educational options. One issue was that non-local people, who might be of a differing faith, were educating local children at the Academy. However, after four years of the Methodist Episcopal Church running the Academy, it seemed to be a permanent situation. Since over half of those who owned businesses in Boaz were members of the local Methodist Episcopal Church, there was enough local support for the institution to continue in operation (Allen & Allen, 1998). From this small beginning came the Boaz Seminary, which would evolve into Snead Junior College.

The Boaz community allowed the founding of a new educational system by the Methodist Episcopal Church, who encouraged missionaries to come south and teach in the region (Norris, 1971). The Alabama Conference of the Methodist Episcopal church met in December of 1898 and recommended the establishment of a conference school in Boaz. They also appointed trustees and a minister to be over the local church and school.



*Figure 1.* Rev. E. B. L. Elder and his wife Anna (Boaz Legacy Foundation)

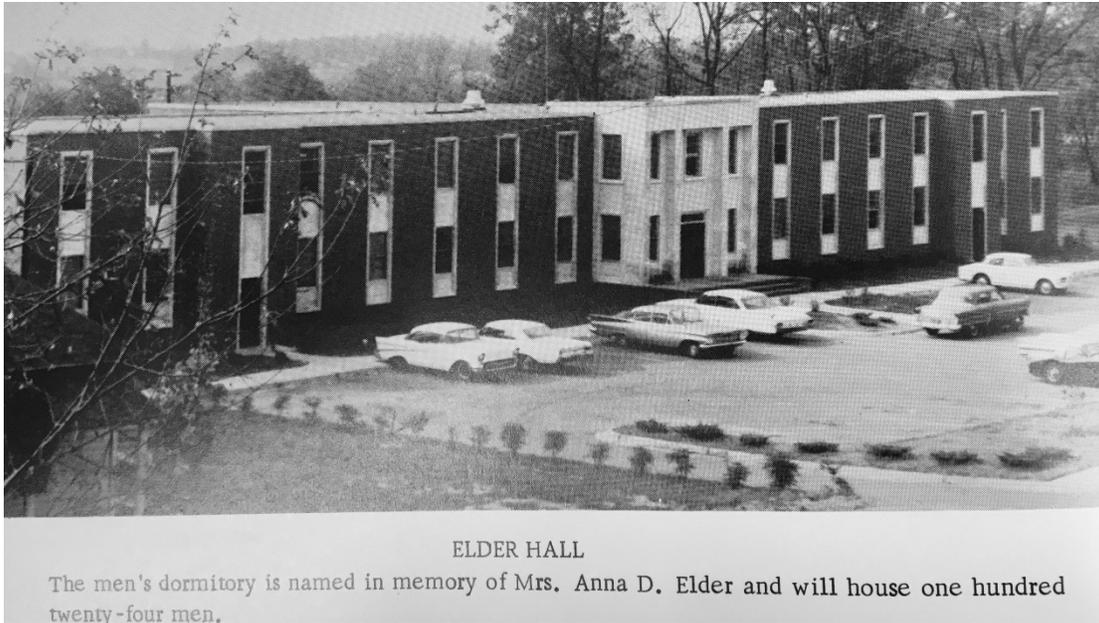


*Figure 2.* Anna Elder (Boaz Legacy Foundation)



*Figure 3.* Original home of Elders and first housing for female students (Snead Archives)

E. B. L. Elder and his wife were appointed and came to Boaz from Kansas and brought with them a background in education (Millican, 1948). Rev. Elder's wife, Anna D. Elder, was active in recruiting financial support for the new school and traveled to the mid-western and northern states to make contacts and recruit funding under the auspices of the Women's Home Missionary Society. Within the first years of the school's formation, the girl's dormitory burned, and again, Elder campaigned for funding as a part of the missionary society (Norris, 1971).



*Figure 4.* Elder Hall named after Anna Elder early 1960s (Boaz Legacy Foundation)

The actions of the Elders in moving to the area, being appointed, and soliciting funds all suggest that the school at Boaz was an endeavor of missionary zeal. This missionary ideal was further stated in meetings where Elder requested support and funding. In the distant cities of Chicago and New York City, she made contacts and in the New York City she spoke on behalf of the school to the assembled missionary convention (Allen & Allen, 1998). Over time, the institutions evolved from a Methodist seminary to a junior college, then a state junior college, and eventually to a community college. This evolution provides a unique view of a local junior college's formation and further adds to the story of junior college formation in the United States.

This research focuses on the formation of an educational institution by the example of Snead Junior College and the transformation that it experienced. Snead has been an integral part of education, in not only Boaz, but also in its immediate region since 1898. Without Snead, there would have been no high school options for education for a period of time, and without quality high school graduates, there would be no need for a junior college (Allen & Allen, 1988). This

need for education immediately gives importance to the institution, but it furthers the questions of how and why the college was founded and later survived and prospered. The answers to these questions are important additions to the literature of the two-year college movement, not only in Alabama, but throughout the United States.

Through its formation and early evolution, what is now Snead State Community College became part of the national movement of junior college innovation and history. From its origins as a seminary and high school, to its change to a junior college, its integration into a state system, and its ultimate development as a true community college, Snead State has a unique story. Its story has elements of religion, secondary education, and evolution into a junior college, and it is still an educational force within the Boaz community in the present day. The changing focus and growth of Snead are also important as to the beginnings of the junior college movement in general. The story of a small, southern town that founded and kept an institution of higher learning through the changes of the world, is worthy of note. With its formation in the Great Depression and continuing its mission to the present day, this individual story is a part of the national narrative of junior college formation.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Based upon the historic information of Snead Junior College, the formation of the institution is an issue that merits scholarly consideration. This issue specifically involves the unique nature of formation of Snead into a junior college. Snead's formation includes the origination where a religion, and its missionary zeal, formed the backbone of education for a rural community, and then transitions itself into a junior college. This change takes place when the origin and advancement of the two-year institution was in its beginnings. The transition of a high school institution to a junior college can be found in the literature (Cohen & Brawer, 2014;

Dougherty, 2001; Pedersen, 2000), but not typically where the region is as rural as the area around Boaz. Although there are some examples of medium and small towns that desired a junior college, the very small community of Boaz, an extensive farming region, is far from any metropolitan area. This study is a contribution because it shows the local evolution of a small institution into a regional junior college that was not tied to influence of larger universities.

The broader history of the college and university movements are well documented (Brint & Karabel, 1989; Cohen & Brawer, 2014; Dougherty, 2001; Thelin, 2011), as are, to some extent, the broad histories of the junior/community college movement. However, it is also enlightening to understand specific cases as well as generalities. Specifics and detailed occurrences in formation, expansion, and relevance can be found through individual institutional histories (Pedersen, 2000). The literature on the junior college movement is not complete. The literature covers a variety of influences, from universities that wanted to focus only on upper level classes, to states that created a widespread system all at once, and from small towns to large cities that wanted an institution of higher learning in their community. However, there is little scholarship on private institutions, and only specific instances of secondary schools that turn into a two-year college. Further, only brief sections found in the general literature deal with schools that were sponsored by organizations of faith (Pedersen, 2000).

It is necessary to have historic research, since history can have multiple effects on those who study it and there may be many reasons why individuals investigate historic topics (Gilderhus, 2010). For the student, history is often a subject to take as a course but one of the benefits is that historians can make a historic phenomenon understandable to others. Another benefit is that the findings of historic research bring a sense of predictability and order to the world. When an example of change can be examined and explained, then it can be applied to

current and future decision making by the use of historic precedent (Gilderhus, 2010). Historic precedent helps decision makers calculate better the consequences of current actions, in that it allows them to view past decisions and outcomes within the framework of history and, extrapolate possible outcomes from present decision making. These effects may be initially seen after the event or may take time to show the benefits or problems that came from that event. One of the most important parts of historic research is to study the human identity or condition with groups and individuals and how their actions shape the current and future identity of the people affected by those actions (Gilderhus, 2010).

Historians look at the cause and effect of actions and events and have three main steps that they take to understand a historic phenomenon. The first step is considering what the event itself was. The researcher considers what happened, what those involved did, and how those involved acted. The second step is digging deeper and asking why something happened. This question allows the researcher to view the participants as rational and attempts to determine what the main goals were, for themselves as participants and for others affected by the event. The questions depend on the use logic and reason and attempts to find such reason in the actor's intentions. The last step is that historians want to evaluate what the outcome or consequences of the event were. Were the outcomes negative or positive or mixed? Did the outcomes change over time? Who were the beneficiaries of the event, and was the outcome worth the change (Gilderhus, 2010)?

## **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this historical case study approach to research was to explain and investigate the formation of Snead Junior College and to expand the understanding of the unique factors in the establishment of junior colleges through the lens of this individual college. It specifically focused on this one institution that showed historic significance in its transition from secondary school to junior college, and its reflection of the region in which it resides. The study of this institution merits scholarly consideration in that it adds to the literature on the formation of the junior college model nationwide.

## **Research Questions**

This study addressed the main research question of what prompted the creation of a junior college, out of a high school, that was religiously based and situated in a rural farming region of north Alabama in the mid-1930s? In order to develop a holistic response to the main research question this study also investigated the following questions:

- 1) What were the foundations of Snead Junior College;
- 2) Who were the people involved in creating Snead Junior College; and
- 3) What were the reasons for founding Snead Junior College?

The major factors found in the literature provide few answers to these specific questions, so a thorough analysis would add to the literature.

## **Significance**

Snead State Community College is now a part of the state system of two-year colleges in the state of Alabama, and the mission and purpose of the institution is tied to its history and formation. The history of Snead State Community College is not only a form of genealogy of an individual school, but it is also a wider description of the formation of the junior college

movement. The more that the individual histories of junior college formation are understood, the more a diversity of founding stories can be placed within the history of secondary education in America. This research project has significance for the following three groups of individuals: researchers, policy makers, and practitioners.

For researchers, the information identifies another facet of the formation of the two-year college institution. This information will provide comparisons to other institutions, and these will both contrast and complement the research on the establishment of junior colleges. The invention of the junior college is not a singular event where each institution followed the same path but is more a tapestry of unique histories that provide a more diverse view of origination.

For policy makers, the information in the research provides a view of the historic foundations of two-year institutions in general, and Snead in particular. The knowledge of the formation is helpful in understanding the culture of the institution, and this understanding can lead to better decision making within the institution itself. With information on a variety of institutions there can be a better understanding of general formation. Mark T. Gilderhus (2010) teaches at Texas Christian University, and in his book *History and Historians: A Historiographical Introduction* discusses one reason for studying history. Gilderhus (2010) stated that the understanding of the outcome of decisions that were made in the past and their influence on the current institution allows leaders to view historic decisions. The historic view of decision making and outcomes can affect decisions made in the present.

For practitioners in the field of education, the establishment of the two-year college model affects research and understanding in several ways. One way that the formation of the junior college is important for practitioners is if they are researching on issues specifically tied to the junior college. There could also be research on multiple issues that would include both four-

year and two-year institutions, such as, first-generation college students, Pell Grants, matriculation, faculty, or administrative activity. This research on the innovation of the junior college will add to the scholarship on the topic of two-year colleges and more fully explain the reasons of their formation. The individual case of Snead State will also add to the collective stories of junior colleges and provide more depth to the topic of formation. With the introduction of more origin histories, the literature will offer a clearer view of the junior college movement.

### **Philosophical Assumptions**

This qualitative inquiry was informed by the philosophical assumptions of pragmatism which is focused on the outcome of research and includes the consequences of the inquiry as well as the situations and consequences. The pragmatic finding is one that is “concerned with practical results” (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013, p. 170), and this definition points to the assembly and understanding of the data, consummating in results that have merit. The focus of pragmatism is using methods that work and through those methods find solutions to the problem presented (Creswell, 2009; 2013). It is the method that uses the most practical methods to fully understand an event or phenomenon (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). Although, initially, pragmatists looked for the practical consequences, Cherryholmes (1992) stated that pragmatism searches to clarify the meanings of action taken and focus on the consequences. The human activity of vision and values, along with the politics and social preferences of people, are at the forefront of research. Pragmatists such as Rossman and Wilson (1985) believe that there can be an integration of various forms of research, even the integration of qualitative and quantitative methods, and such a view would also lead to the use of whatever method or methods most meet the needs of the study. The integrating of these methods would produce a more thorough outcome. Integration is focused on individual experience and involves an examination that is

both descriptive and in-depth. Moreover, it requires using approaches to data collection that allow the investigator to cull information that help to explain an event (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). The qualities of pragmatism can be summarized according to the following three propositions: 1) researchers can use techniques and methods that best meets the research needs; 2) researchers can look at different approaches used to collect and analyze data; and 3) researchers can consider that the context of research includes historical contexts (Creswell, 2009; 2013). All three qualities are appropriate for this historic study in that historic data dictated the research and analysis.

### **Operational Definitions**

Academy - “A private college-preparatory school” (Morehead, 1995), which is reflective of the first incarnation of the educational institution prior to Snead Junior College.

Community college- “The comprehensive, publicly supported institution” (Cohen & Brawer, 2014) and “Any not-for-profit institution regionally accredited to award the associate in arts or the associate in science as its highest degree” (Cohen & Brawer, 2014).

Junior college- “An institution offering two year of instruction of strictly collegiate grade...and is likely to, develop a different curriculum suited to the larger and ever-changing civic, social, religious, and vocational need of the entire community in which the college is located” (Cohen & Brawer, 2014).

Methodist Episcopal Church-A protestant denomination that is the forerunner of the current United Methodist Church based on the missionary movement and preaching of John Wesley.

Seminary- “A school of religious study” (Morehead, 1995), reflective of the early era of Snead when it was under the control of a religious authority.

Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS)- “the regional body for the accreditation of degree-granting higher education institutions in the Southern states. It serves as the common denominator of shared values and practices among the diverse institutions in Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia and Latin America and other international sites approved by the SACSCOC Board of Trustees that award associate, baccalaureate, master’s, or doctoral degrees. The Commission also accepts applications from other international institutions of higher education” (Southern Association of Colleges and Schools Commission on Colleges).

Two-year college- An institution comprised of freshman and sophomore levels of collegiate education.

### **Conclusion**

The two-year college movement has various origination stories that share some similarities and many differences. In this study, I show that there was not one single factor that led to the origination but instead a variety of influences that led to the formation of Snead Junior College from its religious and secondary school origins. Education in Alabama was slow to evolve, but a junior college still came to Boaz. To study this topic requires an understanding of the history of not only Snead, but also of the formation of the two-year college in the United States. This research is significant in that it not only focuses on one institution, but also it will add to the story of the two-year college movement by providing alternative reasons of formation. It will not only provide information to the school that is studied but will also provide researchers with another example of junior college formation. For policy makers, it will lead to better understanding and decisions making due to an understanding of the origination of the two-year college and its history. The research is qualitative in nature and based in a historical context.

CHAPTER II:  
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

**Introduction**

The purpose of this research is to better understand how Snead Junior College came into existence in Boaz in 1935. The overall historical context of the junior college movement will be described in this chapter. The information will focus on the following issues: literature on the junior college movement, including its origins, development, community involvement, types of colleges, locational information, and missions of the junior colleges. The overarching themes that guide the work include the influence and innovation of religious institutions that were founded due to missionary zeal, individuals that created and sustained these institutions, and reaction of both internal and external stimuli. All of these factors culminated in the creation of Snead Junior College.

The study uses a qualitative, historical approach. This approach answers the questions of how and why and focuses on events that are followed over time (Yin, 2009). This approach looks at a specific organization's development, in this case the formation of a junior college in Boaz over time (Merriam, 2009). There is not a specific or singular way to approach the qualitative method but it in essence is "the way in which people make sense of their ideas and experiences" (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013, p. 11). In this research, the focus is on the experience of the formation of a specific two-year college within the larger junior college movement. The difference in a pure case study and a qualitative historical approach is that case studies often

focus on a contemporary event, while the historical approach will use historic records from the institution. This type of historic research is descriptive and often merges with the case study method (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009).

Also, when reviewing the literature, there are often multiple sources that continue to cite each other, and a good foundation of the scholarship is found through the leaders in the field and what they have written over time and in multiple publications. In this chapter, I will take the reader through a journey that helps to explain the world in which the junior college was born including its influences and attributes. I will also discuss the factors that strengthened and weakened it. To create a full picture, there first needs to be a broad, historic overview. In this historic overview I will discuss the origin of the junior college movement, including people, educational and cultural changes, as well as economic changes.

The junior college model originated with Joliet, in Illinois in 1901 (Cohen & Brawer, 2014). Joliet is generally considered to be the first junior college, although there are alternate opinions (Pedersen, 2000). Nonetheless, the origins of the two-year movement are encircled by the era in which it forms. Changes in society from increased graduation rates and higher educational expansion all worked together, along with a public appreciation and desire for higher education, to provide a new era of diverse educational options (Pedersen, 2000).

This discussion will further explain physical and psychological influences within environments where two-year colleges grew. It is also necessary to address the gaps in the literature, such as rural and religious institutional information, which specifically describe Snead Junior College's environment upon its formation. The literature, however, is not complete as there is not a large amount of material that deals with religious institutions (Pedersen, 2000) or those that are in extremely rural farming regions such as Boaz. This gap shows that Snead Junior

College is the type of institution that is seldom found in the literature other than in a very specific, regional research. With more research such as this, a fuller picture will come forth as to the foundation of the junior college in Boaz, Alabama. Last, the study was guided by the overarching themes of the influence and innovation of religious institutions that were founded due to missionary zeal, individuals that created and sustained these institutions, and reaction of both internal and external stimuli. All of these factors culminated in the creation of Snead Junior College.

The literature I examined to understand the formation of Snead as individual college is inherently tied to the history of the community college movement. It is imperative to create a narrative of the history of the national movement of junior college formation. Telling the history gives the reader the building blocks necessary to formulate understanding of current trends, missions, and ideals within higher education. The history also creates a narrative of what has occurred and begins the journey to explaining the findings of this research in the specific case of Snead Junior College.

With the review of literature, I will take the reader through the historic environment and culture of the era, to the examples of formation, and through the factors that influenced the formation of the junior college. The first step is to look at the educational history in a broad aspect then view the historic environment when the junior college came into being. The innovation of the two-year college comes from theories of education, the role of foundational courses, and the concerns of universities.

The discussion will continue with reasons why the junior college would be desired. Things such as community interests and why communities would want a two-year institution as well as concerns by the parents of prospective students. The parental concern for morality might

also lead families to opt for a religious institution and those types of colleges will also be addressed as that is the history held by Snead Junior College. Although the parents may be concerned about morality they are also concerned with the economic prospects of their children. Will the education available meet the needs of the modern work environment and will the student rise in social status? Governmental actions will also be discussed and they will not be as much of a part of educational direction as is seen today. The federal government has little to no role in education in the early history of the junior college and state governments might help or hinder the movement.

The next section will concern how the two-year movement grew and prospered. Through the geographic spread of the idea of the two-year institution in a variety of locations and unique stories of formation, the reader will see the depth and breadth of the movement. Of course, where there is change, there is also support and resistance and the junior college idea was not immune to either. This will show the issues and complexity of the formation story of the two-year movement. All of the information that the reader will see will lead to the gap in literature that this work is meant to help fill. Last, the overarching themes will be explained as the best fit for this study.

### **Educational History**

The junior college formation story is now one of history and “where there has been history there is certain to be legend” (Casey, 2012, p.1). Legend is certainly one of the most obvious attributes of history. Legend is also found when researching most any topic including higher education, and especially in the formation of the junior college. The reason that there often are legends, or even false information, is that the preservation of historic records has not been a priority of the two-year educational institutions (Smith, 2012; Pedersen, 2000; Whitt &

Wattenbarger, 1994). One example of this occurrence is where the papers of a former community college president were thrown in the trash and were lost (Smith, 2012). Pedersen also states that “reluctance to pursue other source of reliable evidence has left them unable to ascertain the most basic facts about the vast majority of early junior colleges” (Pedersen, 2000, p. 32). Thus, the reasons behind the founding of the junior college system, and individual colleges themselves, are often hidden in the mist of time and legend (Pedersen, 2000). Over one hundred years after their formation, there are still questions as to the true nature of the origins of many institutions, and especially two-year institutions.

All education holds a place in history for a myriad of reasons. Intentions may not reflect the eventual realities and there are depths and breadths of opinions, innovations, and changes in educational models. Although the realities and opinions are a part of the story, historically, the origin is one of the most pivotal topics. The origin of two-year colleges and specifically how institutions, such as Snead, came into being gives an insight into the unique formation of the junior college in general. The journey of investigation may uncover both truth and legend, and the two may not always coincide. This lack of coincidence is also true in the search for founding stories of two-year institutions in America. Some scholars state one origin story, and others state it a shade differently, or they offer a differing theory all together. The story that is the modern formation of the junior college, and today the community college, and its unique place in educational history is a story worth telling. The formation of the two-year college movement changed the landscape of American higher education in a way that has very little parallel (Seymour, 1988). The story of the junior college is told in both in broad, overreaching history, and in specific regional and institutional history. America itself is unique in the support of voluntary organizations and other social services, such as educational institutions. This fact was

noted as far back as in the Americas colonial times by Alexis de Tocqueville (Thelin, 2011). The support also is true in the formation, evolution, and growth of all levels of education, including the junior college.

The study of educational history in American society is not complete unless higher education is addressed. Even today, there is the study of the colonial model, the town and gown struggles, the antebellum model, the German influence in research institutions, the effect of industrialization, and opportunities such as the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 (Dougherty, 2001; Thelin, 2011). All of these are worthy of study. Along with this investigation comes the Baby Boom, in post-World War II America, where masses of new college students are the reason for the construction of thousands of educational structures throughout the United States. It is in this era where the subject of the junior college itself emerges in great numbers and how these expanding number of institutions met the needs of those students (Pedersen, 2000; Vaughn, 2006). The model of the junior college predates the Baby Boom era in American history (Thelin, 2011) and has its own origin stories and legends. Both fact and fallacy interweave to form an exciting, confusing, and sometimes forgotten story of the junior college. Snead State Community College is today a product of this variety of stories. It has transitioned, changed, and evolved through over one hundred years as an institution of learning to be what it is today. Cohen states, "The advent of the community college as a neighborhood institution did more to open higher education to a broader population than did its policy of accepting even students who had not done well in high school" (Cohen & Brawer, 2014, p. 17). This statement speaks to the true nature of Snead State Community College today, as well as to the Snead Junior College of the mid-1930s (Allen & Allen, 1998).

## **Influences Prior to Formation of the Junior College**

### **The Historic Environment**

The historic era in which the junior college was formed reflected a changing society and a new century. At the turn of the twentieth century, change was in the air. There were changes in the need for education from technical to traditional universities. Due to increased high school graduation rates and calls for more democratic or open education, there were larger number of students desirous of higher education (Cohen & Brawer, 2014; Pedersen, 2000). When added to the changes in traditional society and increased technology in the workplace, educational culture was in a state of flux. In the midst of this activity, education took a significant turn with the junior college movement. There is an interest that universities wanted to expand their graduate and research programs and not focus as much on the first two years of college. The first two years were more preparatory in their minds, and they stated that graduate programs and research were more important (Brint & Karabel, 1989; Dougherty, 2001, Pedersen, 2000). Also, since most universities were primarily available for the elite, the junior college provided an opportunity for those below the elite level in society to gain an education. This education also entailed perceived values and opportunities within the lower levels of society to rise above their immediate station (Cohen & Brawer, 2014). The world had also begun to change with the coming of industrialization and need for a more technically trained workforce. This movement, tied to technical innovation and expansion, based its origins in business and industry. New methods of business and industry had the need for a more modern education that would train the workforce it required for the newest technology (Cohen & Brawer, 2014; Pedersen, 2000). The need for more education had even created an increase of high school graduation numbers that had pushed adolescence to the upper teen years (Cohen & Brawer, 2014; Pedersen, 2000). These

factors of an increased need for, and interest in, education manifested in new varieties of educational delivery that reflected the historic time in which they arose. These factors were the historic environment that led to origins of the two-year college movement. The evolution within the modern community not only created a desire for a local college that primarily focused on education, but it also created a culture within the region where the two-year college was founded.

The early twentieth century, with the expansion of adolescence years, the desire for social equality, and the need for modern industrial skills, drew its inspiration from legislation from half a century earlier. The educational opportunity that helped to inspire educational interest was the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890. This legislation had provided for a university in every state in the union (Thelin, 2011). This growth provided educational options to students who might only be able to attend higher priced, private institutions. Since the jobs of the modern era required more technical training and knowledge, there needed to be a new form of education to respond to this innovation. Although there were existing colleges and universities, not all of them were able to respond to this trend in business and industry. Soon, junior colleges would be viewed as instruments of the education that was needed to work and be successful in the modern world (Cohen & Brawer, 2014). The junior college provided upward educational mobility for those in the 1920s who felt that an education brought economic opportunity. This new form of higher education was aimed particularly at those who were not in the elite classes. Lower social classes for the first time had the chance to get ahead in American society and business (Brint & Karabel, 1989). This period, through the 1940s, saw junior colleges come into their own and become a home grown or “indigenous American institution” (Thelin, 2011, p. 206). What would be known as the junior college reflected the diversity and hopes of those who were desirous of higher

education and the hope for economic success. With that success would come social class improvement where these hopes could be fulfilled with the opportunity of higher education.

In the pre-World War, I era, there was a movement toward the German model of university education. The four-year and graduate level of this model focused on higher education and research: primarily the junior and senior college levels (senior college being the last two years) and graduate level functions. The focus on the first two years of basics, in America, would then take the form of a so called “junior college,” which would later be known also as the community college (Dougherty, 2001). The topics found in the literature include a variety of origin stories that are somewhat similar and yet also diverse according to the region and influence. With the introduction of the German model of higher education that focused on graduate studies and scholarship, there was a desire to separate the first two years of higher education from the more serious upper levels (Brint & Karabel, 1989; Cohen & Brawer, 2014, Dougherty, 2001).

There was discussion among leaders in education that the American educational system should follow the model of Europe where “Universities would be responsible for the higher-order scholarship, while the lower schools would provide general and vocational education” (Cohen & Brawer, 2014, p. 7). Also, in spite of having issues in common with America such as an increase in technology, workforce preparation, and increasing of population, Europe did not establish what Americans called the junior college. They established vocational schools and educational centers for adults but did not create them as institutions that included transfer credits (Cohen & Brawer, 2014) and did not focus on a wide swath of educational interests, but instead focused on specific vocational goals. These would not be defined in any way as a community college.

Furthermore, there were issues of an increased population of high school graduates who were flooding into higher education. The fear of overcrowding in colleges and universities was a real one and, in conjunction with this was the fear that academics would be watered down to allow the masses to matriculate through the educational system. According to some elite educators, the alternative to allowing marginally educated graduates was for them to attend a different type of institution, and that would become the junior college. Although two-year colleges originally saw themselves as preparing students to enter the four-year institution as transfer students, by the 1920s many public junior colleges began to see terminal degrees, the trades, and other skills-based programs as providing educational opportunities (Brint & Karabel, 1989). For those who could not afford, were not equipped, or were not desiring to move past the two-year college, the junior college would be the best fit. Some began to see the merits of the junior college system to even be more democratic (Brint & Karabel, 1989), in that it allowed an access to education that the general population had not previously had an opportunity to experience. When the junior college was first being recognized, around 1918, there were eighty-five institutions that made up 2% of college undergraduates, but by the mid-1920s, there were 196 institutions, and by 1938, enrollment had increased so dramatically that 18% of the college and university students nationwide were in the junior college system (Lucas, 2006).

### **University Influences**

University presidents at such institutions as the University of Michigan, the University of Minnesota, and the University of Chicago believed that universities should focus on excellence in academics and concentrate on the upper level student, while allowing the less prepared and younger students to be diverted into the junior college setting (Dougherty, 2001). Often, first ideas are attributed to great theorists or thinkers, and the origins of the junior college model is no

exception. By 1903, there was a belief within the higher education community that a university would mirror the German model and focus on scholarship and graduate functions and not on entry level subject matter. Those colleges that did not evolve into a university and focus on higher learning were destined to either not exist or should change function. There was also a belief that the secondary schools would continue to improve so that students might even enter a university at a higher level (Dougherty, 2001). Some discussion included the idea that higher education might focus on three or even two years plus graduate programs and would not need to worry with liberal arts and basic learning but would focus more on professional education. Educational leaders such as William Rainey Harper, president of the University of Chicago, and David Star Jordan, president of Indiana University, both saw the future of colleges as evolving to a higher level of education and that lower level courses should be provided by other types of educational institutions (Dougherty, 2001).

William Rainey Harper saw the high school as an eventual six-year model with the last two years being of junior college grade instruction. The six-year model would prepare students for university or allow them to graduate with a collegiate degree that would provide greater opportunity than high school. However, this degree would not have the same prestige as the university level education. He saw that, in the future, some higher educational institutions might go away, change, or evolve, and this model was the best use of resources. There would be a place for the university at the top, then the junior college, and then assorted schools that focused on trade, industry, and business (Diener, 1986).

Harper, when speaking to the National Education Association, stated, “The work of the freshman and sophomore years is only a confirmation of the academy or high school work” (Brint, 1989, p. 24). He was one of the first to separate the senior and junior classes into an

upper level, and the sophomore and freshman classes in a lower level of the university. He also began to use the terms senior and junior colleges respectively. He believed that there was something he termed an associate degree that documented the finishing of the first two years of college. He had hoped that high schools would understand this need and would offer the courses that culminated in the associate degree in post-high school offerings. He first discussed the idea of an associate degree in 1899 in his presidential report. He stated that for the first time a two-year degree was being awarded and hoped that those who completed it would continue into the senior college level (Diener, 1986).

Harper's statements and actions were a reflection of the success of the German model of universities, whose specialization was technology and science. The application of this model of higher education produced research universities that specialized in specific areas instead of teaching broad-based, or survey courses. The model of German universities had two main attributes: 1) they were pure universities that did not receive tuition monies from the lower level college courses, or what are considered now survey courses; and 2) they were complete as universities and had the experienced faculty, research methods, and facilities that define a university. The German student could not enter the university system if they have not earned the opportunity (Diener, 1986). In comparison, the English systems of colleges were not as strict in matriculation as the German Universities. Higher education in America was originally modeled on the English system. In this way, both colleges and universities took on many of the same elements, but in structure the traditional university assumed that there is a foundational and fundamental knowledge that came from the college level of instruction. This college level was more equal to the first two years of foundational courses that a student would take at junior or community college, or the first two years of instruction that are offered at a university

(Brubacher & Rudy, 1958; Diener, 1986). In other words, a college included the basic courses that may or may not be a part of the university (Diener, 1986).

The success of the German model and its integration into the larger universities were seen to lead to their success in technology and science. The application of this model of higher education produced research universities that specialized in specific areas of knowledge instead of teaching broad-based or survey courses. This model would be imported and integrated into universities within the United States. With this integration, Harper and others felt that the first two years of education that the universities were providing would be better taught in a reorganized high school format. This would be a higher level of instruction than the student would receive in secondary education and would divert the average student to the lower level institutions. Then, the august institutions could focus on professional training and research with the caliber of prepared students that they preferred (Brint, 1989).

Another leader in education was Henry Philip Tappan who became the president of the University of Michigan in 1852. He also greatly admired the German model of universities. He made a distinction in the university and the college. In his view, the university was focused on research and had all of the facilities necessary, such as libraries, structures, laboratories and faculty, to facilitate that function. Colleges, on the other hand, were based in teaching and not research. The teaching concept was needed as the base of education that would provide the general knowledge needed for the university level but yet, that focus should not be a part of the university (Diener, 1986). There was also a fear that “universities would not become true research and professional development centers until they relinquish their lower division preparatory work” (Cohen & Brawer, 2014, pp. 24-25). Thus, the teaching model would be one

that the junior college would embrace and differentiate itself as an institution of general knowledge coursework.

## **The Junior College Emerges**

### **The First Example of the Junior College**

According to Steven Brit and Jerome Karabel (1989), the first junior college was established in 1901 in Joliet, Illinois (Read, 1982; Vaughn, 2006) and while this experiment and its success were not assured, in less than 50 years, it was a staple of education in the nation. Although junior colleges have not been wholly copied in the world, their positive attributes of low cost, openness, and flexibility have drawn attention.

Here, is it necessary to discuss the primary legend of the foundation of the junior college. The date of establishment and place is refuted by Pedersen (2000), who takes primary source information and states that there are other institutions beside Joliet that have some sort of interest in post high school courses. A couple of experiments seem to have been closed after a very few years. The extant records indicated that the board of Joliet did not become a junior college until 1915 when the term was actual used in minutes of a meeting. Other schools, such as Lasell College, which was formerly Auburndale Female Seminary, claimed to be founded in 1856 (Witt, 1994). The reasoning behind the discrepancy is that individual school records are sparse and often not archived, and the history must be filled in by local libraries, archives, and state documents. The use of external sources for information again points out that two-year colleges often do not retain their history. This further makes writing about junior colleges challenging (Smith, 2012). In particular, the term “junior college” did not attain wide use as a description of an institution until 1916 (Pedersen, 2000). Among early junior colleges, many had their roots in the high schools of the day. Cohen and Brawer (2014) stated that most of these institutions

developed as extensions of high schools within the local community. This would also be the case with Snead Junior College, as it grew out of an elementary and high school tradition (Allen & Allen, 1998). Although there is disagreement among historians as to where the original junior college was, there has been acceptance that the movement itself started with Joliet in 1901 (Ammons, 2016).

The next question is, where did the initial interest in the founding of something called a junior college emerge and by who? What ideas or person caused this to occur and bring a new form of educational institution into being? Although university presidents did not agree on specific strategies and goals, there was a concern by them during the early twentieth century for better academics in American schools (Pedersen, 2000). Around the turn of the twentieth century, there was a great deal of what Pedersen terms “curricular experimentation” occurring within sizeable public high schools (Pedersen, 2000.) But were these true junior colleges?

Joliet’s high school began to offer classes that were considered equal to college classes in 1884 and these courses including Latin and chemistry were accredited by the University of Michigan. By the time that Joliet Junior College was established, there were 22 students enrolled in these approved courses. Even during this period, the term “junior college” was not used and was not noted until 1913 in private school records and was not seen in broad public use until 1916. In the next year, Joliet moved into its own facilities (Pedersen, 2000). This evolution of one of the earliest junior college models provides some reason as to the guessing that occurs of official founding dates, reasons for founding, and goals of the infant institutions. It is further easy to see how original letters, classes taught, and the first buildings used specifically for the college, could all be interpreted as individual starting dates. Whatever the first example was, the reasoning

behind it is found in a variety of factors of including those within and external to the local community.

### **Community Interest in The Junior College**

The interest of the community could be varied and might include a higher interest in sports as well as cultural changes that increased a desire for more local education. These new interests reflected a recognition of both the institutions and their events. From 1890 to 1910, well established colleges were expanding and beginning to build increasing number of football stadiums. In the post-World War, I era the interest in sports had expanded into regions via the high schools, but often these smaller cities had little higher education (Thelin, 2011). While the first thought may be that athletics was expanding, and that may be true, the building of stadiums showed that there was a great interest in sports, especially at the collegiate level. More people were seeing colleges and universities as normal and expected sectors of American life. With the increased number of high school graduates came a fivefold increase in college enrollment. Between World War I and World War II, college enrollment grew from 250,000 students to 1.3 million students (Thelin, 2001). The idea that there was benefit to higher education is shown in the monies spent on extra-curricular activities and the variety of options, such as sports, which were available. Academically, besides the university model, there were technical colleges, teaching colleges (normal schools), regional colleges, women's colleges, and then the junior college, that was slowly becoming commonplace. Also, by the 1930s, guides published by the Works Progress Administration considered universities and colleges important enough that they were included as tourist stops. This importance was further shown by the increase of women attending college and by 1937, 80% of colleges were co-educational (Thelin, 2011). The co-educational model of college was increasingly popular; however, women tended to be urged into

traditional fields and were discouraged from others (Thelin, 2011). The attendance of women taking traditional courses would also prove true at Snead where historic photographs show that teaching, music, and home economics were the primary fields for women (Snead Bulletin, 1935-1936).



*Figure 5.* Home economics courses for women (Snead Archives)

Not until the early 1900s were there were large numbers of students who were actually graduating from high schools, and the number of students who were high school graduates might also encourage educational leaders to consider adding two additional years of optional education. These courses would be decidedly post-high school education and could show interest for the idea of a junior college type model. By the 1920s and 1930s, there was discussion of whether expanded high school was the goal, or whether there would be a new form of college that should be established (Cohen & Brawer, 2014). This issue would of course, be tied to the growth of the community in which the institution was established. Especially with the numbers of high school graduates increasing there would be a discussion of educational options and opportunities. In the case of Snead Junior College, the year 1935 is most probably its most unique in operation and the one that historically would foster a junior college model, as well as the upper levels of high school at the same time, per its catalogue of 1935-1936 (Snead Bulletin, 1935-1936). This is also

an example of the expansion of adolescence (Pedersen, 2000), as those who were in the Snead Seminary would see evidence of higher education on their own campus. The existence of post-high school options on their own campus arguably could lead them to consider college, via a junior college, as an educational option. The increased availability of higher education was more than only the merits of a broad-based curriculum, but also was tied to success in future occupations and expansion of job opportunities. These opportunities were now available due to increased industrialization and the need of a differently educated workforce (Brint & Karabel, 1989; Cohen & Brawer, 2014; Dougherty, 2001; Pedersen, 2000).

Community interest and the desire for more education were not the only factors that affected the interest in a junior college. There was also interest within business and industry. The local chambers of commerce often supported these new colleges along with community leaders and businesses. Local businessmen appreciated an institution within their community, as they felt that it would have sound business practices. Since it was local, it would be overseen in ways that were more visible and that these institutions were better stewards of funds than larger, distant institutions (Pedersen, 2000). The initial interest was not only in an educated and available workforce, as is seen in modern higher educational discussions, but was primarily based in local and civic pride. One argument was that a college would bring money into the coffers of the city or county, but that was not realistic. Although the establishment of a junior college might bring some commercial activity to the economy of the area, this small increase in business did not constitute enough money to be a reason to support the founding of a junior college. The idea of having a two-year school did not bring windfalls to local merchants but was more based on the pride of having a college (Brint & Karabel, 1989). While pride was an intangible factor another factor that we evident was having a higher educational institution that was close geographically.

Even though some university administrators felt that their institution was responsive to the needs of the whole state or held a presence that was important within the state, smaller regions and smaller communities did not share this view. The idea of a local university being miles away did not seem “local” to local residents. Unless they were physically adjoining higher educational institutions, those colleges and universities were not affecting them. Those residents of smaller cities and towns preferred an institution that was closer to them and particularly, in their immediate vicinity (Dougherty, 2001; Pedersen, 2000; Vaughn, 2006).

The university might have status and image, but did it really serve the whole state? The answer to this question came from the well-worn adage: “necessity is the mother of invention,” and this invention came in the form of the local junior college. This was an invention that was truly an American one and offered education to a smaller locality. The education offered consisted of liberal arts options with basic survey education that provided the first two years of collegiate instruction (Thelin, 2011). The establishment of a local college allowed an institution to be near the student and their home. This proximity was often reflective of the initiative from within the local community. The initiative to form a junior college might respond in a variety of forms. It might not only be for the transfer of two years of studies from a junior college to a four-year institution (Thelin, 2011). It might also include locally established vocational and technical colleges. These vocational and technical colleges were responsive to the rise in industrialization and could immediately respond to the needs of local business and industry (Thelin, 2011). This variety of institutional types provided local education that was also affordable. This type of delivery proved so popular that by 1940 there were 456 junior colleges that had an enrollment total of 149,584 students (Thelin, 2011).

One example of formation due to local influence is that of Kansas City Junior College. This college came into being due to several factors. The Missouri city had many positive attributes in the early 1900s. It was a metropolitan area, due to be a rail hub, and with this came the largest grain elevator in the nation. There was also an early skyscraper, a major league baseball team, a radio station, several shopping centers, and a Federal Reserve Bank branch. The diversity of industry and recreation was supported by the community and its youth often finished secondary school and were academically prepared for college (Pedersen, 2000). Local educational leaders were mystified that a city with a stable upper class, and with such high graduation rates, had students that were not interested in furthering their education from high school into the realm of college. Although it had many positives, the one thing that it lacked was higher educational opportunities. The establishment of a junior college would give local high school graduates an educational option they had not previously been afforded (Pedersen, 2000).

### **Parental Concerns**

There was not a college or university that was close enough to Kansas City to encourage students to attend without moving their place of residence. The distance itself did not provide an economic hardship, since many of these families could afford for their students to attend and live in a faraway college town. However, hesitation lay in the idea that once on their own and without parental guidance, students would not have the moral influence of their families and might fall into depravity. This was especially true in that the realization that the university faculty was no longer *in loco parentis* (in the place of the parents). The more researched-based universities were more concerned about their individual subjects and research than in the moral development of the young people attending their institutions (Pedersen, 2000). In some cases, as in Kansas City, students were graduating as early as age 15, and throughout the country graduation ages might

vary from state to state. While most college freshman were around 18 years old, different areas of the country had students in school for differing lengths of time. Some students graduated high school at 14 or 15 and the idea of sending such young students away to college was a moral dilemma for parents. Sending younger students to universities where the faculty were not protective and where they would come in contact with more mature students was an issue (Pedersen, 2000). Legally, adolescence had now been extended, so it was required of parents to have a longer period of custodial care for younger children (Cohen & Brawer, 2014). In cases of younger high school graduates, parents might decide to hold their students out of school until they were traditional college age, and there was always the chance the student would no longer be interested in college when they were older. They may have found more immediate satisfaction in a job or married and had children. These impediments might discourage prospective students from entering into collegiate education. These types of issues caused educational leaders in Kansas City to form a junior college. The reasons behind this were not based on theories or educational innovations but were practical for their citizens and parents of college aged students (Pedersen, 2000). One major concern of parents was the liberalism perceived within the modern college. The wanton and wayward ways of current students tied to the fear of the big cities, loose women, alcohol, and lack of religious authorities or parental rules were very much on the mind of the average parent. Just a quick paging through a magazine showed flappers, jazz music, and headlines of bootleggers and mobsters. Along with magazines and newspapers there were movies, and of course unfounded gossip, which could cause parents to pause at sending their students into the immoral world (Thelin, 2011).

Many small towns that had little or no industry, much like Boaz, also desired a junior college. Pedersen (2000) stated that factors that led to this decision, in a national sense, were

parents, economics, and the desire to increase status as a community. Parents were the most important factor in educational choice and were concerned with the moral development of their children. There was a special focus on the fear that their young people might follow immoral examples, once they moved away to college (Pedersen, 2000).

The desire for parents to keep a short rein on their children, and to not allow hedonistic and immoral behavior to grow, also supplied some opposition to sending students out in the world. There was a concern for student morals, and this only increased over time. In the late nineteenth century, a man who was in college was elite and a gentleman, but between World War I and World War II that view changed. With prohibition the law of the land and college alumni enjoying homecoming celebrations with bathtub gin, gambling, and dancing, there were fears of how these activities would influence the current students. These students were away from home and their parents influence was not at close proximity (Thelin, 2011). Students seemed to come home with clothing, and language that they learned at college, and the literature of the day also gave a parent pause. The writings of F. Scott Fitzgerald in *The Far Side of Paradise* (1951) and *The Great Gatsby* (1925) showed a wild side of life as did movies of the day. *Horse Feathers* (1932), starring the Marx Brothers, showed a college that no parent would want their child to attend. Loose women, incompetent administrators, and campus hijinks showed a frivolous side of education that, while entertaining, was not educational (Thelin, 2011).

Often, and more realistically, the movies and music of the time were for entertainment, but these might cause a parent to question if they wanted to send their students to institutions that might not reflect their family's morality. The presentation of college life could also be shown as positive. Those attributes included the proliferation of athletics and their broadcasts on radio, as well as other media. Publications, such as *Life* magazine, touted the upward mobility of college

graduates. Out in the world these graduates would find respectability in their adult lives because of educational and social opportunities that college could provide. This education would lead to better job prospects and a higher status in society (Thelin, 2011). The media of the day gave a mixed message of hope and fear for parents and forced them to weigh the pros and cons carefully. The choice of whether to move off to college was one concern. But what if they did choose that option? There was then concern as to which college the student would attend. Would it be the one that gave them upward mobility and respectability, or would it be the college of madcap musicals and debauchery (Thelin, 2011)?

Yet another concern that parents had was that of a political nature. There was a perceived increase of socialist ideology in the world. There was a fear that liberal college faculty might fill student's heads with political rhetoric, and not American ideology. The newer ideas, such as socialism and communism, were evident in Europe, and in the newspapers that daily brought the outside world to much of the population. Parents feared that their children might be indoctrinated to such radical thought. The college of the day, many parents thought, should perpetuate the social strata of society by publicly funding education that would continue society as it was, and not bring about social and political change (Daugherty, 2001). Colleges should make sure that children that came from the working class would be educated for occupations that kept them in the lower levels of industry, thus continuing their status as workers and not managers or owners. This would keep the working classes as working classes and not give them ideas of social change (Daugherty, 2001). The establishment of the junior college, to some extent, and the technical college in particular, allowed the lower levels of society to be siphoned off into their own social ranks. This in turn would keep the lower classes in the two-year systems and not allow them into the elite ranks that served the august, university systems. If the working classes were allowed to

enter the elite educational institutions, they might have the opportunity to break out of their working-class status and alter societal structure. However, being enticed into the vocational type school would keep them from following a path of upward mobility and keep them in their lower social rank (Daugherty, 2001).

### **Religious Institutions**

A religiously-based institution might be welcomed by some but could have had opposition to its establishment. Opposition could come from private, secular institutions or other private, religious based institutions that might not want further competition. Private colleges would be more common in southern states (Cohen & Brawer, 2014) such as Alabama. By 1949, there were 288 private colleges in the nation and of those 180 were religiously affiliated (Cohen & Brawer, 2014) such as the Methodist Episcopal Church and its administration of Snead Junior College. By 1934, there were 302 private nonprofit junior colleges. By the time Snead joined the Alabama public community college system in 1967, the number of colleges had dropped to 254 (Cohen & Brawer, 2014). There was also some opposition from four-year institutions which felt that the junior college should be focused more on vocational and terminal degrees and not transfer courses. In an interesting turn of events, some educational leaders that had once touted the junior college as a benefit had a change of mind. These leaders saw the two-year college become so popular that the movement was affecting the universities themselves (Thelin, 2011).

Institutions that started via religious organization were often poorly documented and little information remained about them. The religious zeal for the founding of institutions of higher education was very strong in the Midwest and the South, but there was evidence of them throughout the nation. More than half of junior colleges between the years 1900 and 1916 were supervised by religious denominations, and most of them were by Catholics, Methodists, and

Baptists. These colleges tended to be smaller and had issues staying open due to low enrollment. These colleges might also be transformed from four-year institutions into two-year institutions (Brint & Karabel, 1989). Private institutions were not always religious in nature, and often statistics focused on private and public, but not religious schools. Using the private/public designations, the number of private institutions was greater than that of public colleges by the time that Snead Junior College was formed in 1935.

Table 1

*Percentages of Private and Public Higher Educational Institutions*

Years	Private	Public
1915-1916	74%	26%
1921-1922	66%	34%
1926-1926	58%	42%
1938-1939	55%	45%

(Cohen, & Brawer, 2014)

From the table, there is the fact that private junior colleges were greater in number than those that were publicly supported, but unfortunately there was little literature on these institutions.

The exceptions lie where there are individual, local, or institutional histories that were done for specific locales or intuitions.

While some leading educators and university presidents encouraged the formation of the junior college, there was also a populist movement in local communities. These citizens desired that their children have the opportunity of a liberal arts education that would allow for social and cultural mobility. Many of these factory workers, farmers, and small shop owners wanted their children to have what they did not possess, which was a well-rounded and higher education.

However, this education might not be secular in nature and might be from a religiously based institution. Although, by 1929, there were only six states that had ten or more public two-year

institutions, there was still a movement for private and religious based education. Within the Midwest and South, denominational colleges founded by Catholics, Baptists, and Methodist were growing to reflect the desire for education. These institutions met the need for more moral education and for locations that were closer to home (Brint & Karabel, 1989).

The denominational colleges often had small populations and were sometimes targeted by universities and the federal government on both educational and monetary grounds. There were questions as to the worthiness of their degrees and the quality of courses that they offered. Some of their teacher education courses were in danger of not being accepted by local boards of education and individual states, which could close such programs in these colleges (Pedersen, 2000). There were also cases where denominational colleges became junior colleges in name but did not uphold the academic rigor that was expected. Increasingly, with attacks and changes in requirements for educational professionals, students began to fear the private junior college as risky. What happened if the four-year institution later became a public junior college? What if these private institutions ceased to exist? How then would a previous degree granted from these institutions be viewed? These questions drove many to choose the option of the more stable and acceptable public junior college (Pedersen, 2000). Some of these issues also occurred with Snead Junior College, as the institution once offered teaching certificates, but with increased education required for teacher certification, they were not able to continue to offer that curriculum. It was not uncommon for private and religious institutions to struggle for financing as they were nearly wholly dependent on tuition and received no state money. This forced them to depend on donations and gifts of funding to bridge the gap between tuition and costs (Thelin, 2011). The interest of a community could also make or break an institution due to monetary support and even physical presence on the campus. Since junior colleges were now becoming social entities

with athletics, drama, and even the opportunity for women to be more present in the classroom, the community ties became even stronger (Thelin, 2011). Two-year institutions, both public and private, also felt some pressure from the business sector.

### **Areas of Impact on the Junior College Movement**

#### **Economic Issues**

Economically, smaller towns had more interest in the hosts of young people who might leave the community and would then spend their disposable income in distant college towns. This was an unfounded claim but, was made by business leaders and city officials who overstated what the exiting students actually spent in their communities. These same leaders and businessmen also tended to understate how much educating students, who stayed at home, would cost. Prospective numbers were presented to prove that it was cheaper to educate students than to lose them, and seldom did such numbers prove accurate (Pedersen, 2000). Another ephemeral idea was the issue of status of the local community among its peers. Traditionally, many of the small towns became very important in their region by attaining county seats and small centralized business districts. By the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, due to improved transportation and communication, these local successes held little significance. As the towns lessened in economic importance and influence, the youth tended to migrate to more populous areas. Some small towns were lucky to hold on to a less attended educational institution or academy, but attendance was often very low (Pedersen, 2000). These institutions might not continue to operate, as they could easily be encouraged to move to another area that held a larger population. The institution might even close completely, due to finances, lack of attending students, decrease in religious denominational support, or any number of other specific or general reasons. The loss of even a

small part of the fabric of the community hit the pride of the residents. To reclaim honor and show their importance they sometimes wanted to create a public junior college (Pedersen, 2000).

### **Governmental Issues**

There was some influence from the federal government with the first Commissioner of Education, Henry Barnard, who served from 1867 until 1870. He was very interested in the German model of university education and was asked by Congress to address the educational system in the District of Columbia. He responded with the suggestion that there should be established schools which focused on the general education, professional, vocational or more specifically the first two years of collegiate courses (Barnard, 1871). Although this was not a directive or regulation that was set forth from the federal government, due to his response this becomes an official governmental presentation or communication. It gave gravity to the idea of a junior college model and made that model something that was not considered as radical, since it came from a governmental office.

All levels of government had some influence on increased educational opportunities and were desirous of a positive effect on society. There was both governmental action and inaction, but the interest in education by the federal government culminated several years after the formation of the junior college in the Truman Commission (Thelin, 2011). The federal government would play an important role when President Harry Truman established the Commission on Higher Education in 1946. One of the main foci of its 1947 report was to have an expansion of educational opportunities with an eye toward international affairs and working within society. This showed the interest in education from the President of the United States, and that he felt there was a need to focus on education that included a concern for national defense. The views from the executive branch became known as the Truman Commission (Thelin, 2011).

There was, however, the fear of expense and incursion of the federal government into state and local concerns which caused the report to be an enduring statement of desires and not a decisive, rules and regulation document. Whatever the action, or even lack of action, this does show that there was widespread interest in education. Later, many of the recommendations by the Commission were implemented by states and localities, and trends were established all over the country in a place by place method, but were not tied to national policy (Thelin, 2011).

When junior colleges were emerging, the influence from the individual states where they were created was varied and unequal across the nation. The credentials that teachers should hold were often not spelled out nor was the method of how the institution was formed in the eyes of the individual state. Schools were sometimes formed without governmental approval. The organization of a junior college, both in administration and legality, might not only vary between states but also within a state. There was very little conformity in organization, approval, or even how these institutions were administratively run. One distinguishing factor is where funding for such entities emanated. Among streams of financing there were those that were funded by a university and those that were non-profit in their foundation (Pedersen, 2000).

### **Places of Formation of the Junior College**

#### **Geographic Spread of the Junior College**

The geographic spread of the two-year college movement came from a variety of regions, from urban to rural settings, and with various reasons given for their founding. Some who defend the community college, as it would presently be termed, posit that parents and students are at the core of the reason that the system came into being. In the industrial era that came to America after the Civil War, there was a need for more technical, business, and industrial training. This need would draw attention from business and industry, and they would also have an increased

interest in higher education that reflected their needs. Although they might be interested in education in general, they were most interested in the workers that would enter the workforce and be their employees. On an individual level, there was an increased interest in education due the opportunity that such training would give to increase both personal wealth and social status.

The first place to start was that of the great city that held a large population. Although a great city may have had a university it also had need of more institutions of higher education that could serve various functions. The larger institution might not be able to accept all the students that wanted to attend so there should be other educational opportunities for them. There would also be technical jobs that did not require a full four-year degree and could benefit from graduates of a two-year college. Another reason was that some educational leaders felt that not all students were prepared or able to attend a major university (Diener, 1986).

The classification of early junior colleges becomes more diverse when geography and population density is considered. While Kansas City and Joliet were founded in growing and prosperous communities there were some institutions, founded in smaller cities and rural towns, that were more distance from cities and their artistic culture (Pedersen, 2000). The categories set forth by Pedersen are set up in three types. The first is the “great city,” which held a population of more than 250,000. The next is “the municipality or small city,” that included a population of more than 12,500, and third the “small town,” which included a population of 12,500 or less as listed in the United States Census of 1930 (Pedersen, 2000). These rather large parameters provide a loose sorting model for the junior colleges that emerge in the early twentieth century. Despite this method of separation, some schools were inevitably not included in the listing that Pedersen used. The focus in his listing is that of public junior colleges and does not include private or religiously affiliated institutions (Pedersen, 2000) such as Snead Junior College.

On one end of the spectrum are the great cities, with populations of at least 250,000. These great cities numbered 25 by 1920. These areas became centers of industrial production, and drew populations to them, due to their size and various amenities. To serve these masses of people the leaders of the city wanted to have all of the cultural opportunities that one would expect, such as an opera, museums, a symphony, and great libraries. By the turn of the twentieth century public education was a part of this formula as well (Pedersen, 2000). Although some great cities did open junior colleges they did so for strategic reasons, from protecting their high school systems to trying to protect the city from immigrants who were feared to be socialist and radicals. Some of the arguments were for junior colleges to be extensions of the public high schools, but on this topic many business leaders disagreed due to financial reasons. It was felt that the cost outlays for education would increase if more years of instruction were added. Also, with more funds spent on buildings and teachers, the increased amount of money going out of the tax base would require more money to come in. The prudent question was from where would that money come? Those that were for the foundation of a college often had specific motives in mind, such as training for specific industries. On the other hand, those who opposed the formation of a college felt that local money was better spent on the public education that was already in place (Pedersen, 2000) and feared that money would be taken from the current institutions to fund new ones. Great cities did not have a monopoly on the desire for higher education, medium sized cities also had some interest as well.

Medium-sized cities had leaders with big ideas, and part of their thinking was a local college. These cities wanted an infrastructure that included not only homes and churches, but libraries, hospitals, newspapers, and urban centers. This urban ideal would also include all levels of education, including higher education. Civic pride was important, and though not often at the

top of the list, a college was something of which to be proud. There was also an economic argument. A college would not only keep students in town, but might also keep them from moving away permanently, and would bring students from surrounding communities who would then live in town, pay rent, spend money. Both the students that stayed at home and those who came to the city for an education would add to the local economy (Pedersen, 2000).

A college also showed the world that a community that offered an institution of higher learning was progressive and cultured. This would attract new citizens to locate there and further add to the local economic structure. These small to medium sized cities found that universities were not interested in putting branches in their regions, nor were they agreeable to more four-year colleges being established. With lack of cooperation from universities the best path for the local community was to establish a junior college. A locally run institution would keep their youth at home, bring in residents in the form of students, and encourage people to immigrate to their local area (Pedersen, 2000).

Pedersen (2000) questions whether or not the forces that led to the development of the junior college in municipalities, or medium cities, could be transferred to other sections of the country, such as small towns, and concludes that they cannot. These factors would seem to be evident and possible in most any setting, but those metropolitan cities did not have anything to prove as great cities often did. They were secure in who they were as a city, and what they had to offer, and a small junior college was not of great interest to them. With lesser populations compared to larger cities, smaller towns struggled to maintain fledgling junior colleges, and compared to the facilities and opportunities from larger cities, they struggled to even have the resources to adequately fund and house such institutions. They were often in regions of the

country that were not substantial participants in the Industrial Revolution (Pedersen, 2000) and may not have had a great call from local industry for students to be taught industrial methods.

The new methods of industry included emerging fields, such as progressive farming and engineering were provided by the agricultural and mechanical institutions of the day that were already established. Agricultural and mechanical institutions had increased in number the in the era of the Morrill Acts. Logically, it could be said that towns, both small and medium sized, would not be as interested in technical, higher education. But there was also interest in these regions since towns were often distant from established higher educational institutions. Although the costs of establishment and maintaining colleges was often a struggle, there were those in the smaller communities that saw a college as a huge asset. The idea of a city or municipal junior college is one way these institutions came into being, and these were not as apt to fail or be discontinued as those in very small towns or great cities of the day (Pedersen, 2000). Also, medium-sized towns had a few factors that encouraged the foundation of a junior college. One factor was the physical distance that the city was from an institution of higher learning. Another was that there had to be a decision made, by someone or some entity, that such an institution was needed or desired in the local area (Pedersen, 2000). The factor of distance is extremely important, and while one might look at a smaller town and not see how it could support a two-year college, the distance to other higher educational opportunities might have been a larger impediment (Pedersen, 2000).

The desire to attend a college or university might not be possible to fulfill due to distance, but if an institution were to be established in a location that could be centrally located, it could attract students from the surrounding area. Another deciding factor was the increase in the number of high school graduates due, in part, to the number of high schools that were created

and graduating students after 1900 (Pedersen, 2000). This increase in high schools and graduates would create a large pool of students for a local institution and graduation rates showed a large increase in the first part of the twentieth century (Simon, 1965).

Table 2

*Digest of Educational Statistics*

Year	Percentage of Students Who Were High School Graduates
1899-1900	6.4%
1909-1910	8.8%
1919-1920	16.8%
1929-1930	29.0%
1939-1940	50.8%

(Simon; 1965)

The table shows the percentage of high school graduates for the corresponding year, and every ten years the number increases exponentially. Logically, with an increase in numbers of high school graduates, there is an increase in the numbers of those who want to take advantage of higher education. This pool of available and desirous students was a major factor in the establishment of the two-year college within a local community. Towns were adding high schools, due in part to the increase in student numbers, especially in medium-sized cities. These regions were seeing an increase in population and a growing economy that required more educational opportunities and options (Cohen & Brawer, 2014). The diversity of work opportunities would establish the need for a more educated work force that was specific in aim. However, the increase of high schools and their graduation numbers might have the most direct effect on the founding of junior colleges (Cohen & Brawer, 2014, Pedersen, 2000; Thelin, 2011).

The increase in the number of high school graduates and need for a modern workforce may be factors in the transformation of Snead Seminary to Snead Junior College. Pedersen

argues that these institutions came from an environment that included families, individuals, and cities that were interested in the educational development of their youth (Pedersen, 2000).

Cohen, Brawer and Kisker (2014) posited that there was desire for increased access to higher education, and that this also included an increased desire for social equality. The ability to attend an institution of higher learning would not only benefit the individual, but it would also benefit society as a whole. It would give graduates the opportunity to be upwardly mobile and increase the wealth of the community in the process (Cohen & Brawer, 2014). The early founding of two-year institutions often reflected their region and the needs of the community surrounding them and were founded in unique ways that reflected these factors.

### **Unique Formations of Junior Colleges**

Within the state of California, there was a movement to establish junior colleges under the auspices of the secondary systems that were already in place. They were often organized by the school districts within a specific area. Furthermore, there were proponents of the junior college system that seemed to do so to maintain the more elite status of the four-year institutions that were present. Alexis F. Lange of the University of California at Berkeley and the president of Stanford, David Star Jordan, both wanted to allow the current universities to focus on higher level scholarship and research (Brint & Karabel, 1989). Other states focused on formation of the junior college model which would allow their institutions to be free of as much foundational education as possible. These include S. D. Brooks of Missouri, who encouraged eighteen colleges to have connections to the University of Missouri, and the University of Michigan's President Clarence Cook Little, who in the 1920s helped to establish seven junior colleges. The latter praised the fact that the junior college movement was so active in his state and saw it as a benefit for his institution (Brint & Karabel, 1989).

## **Impediments to Formation of the Junior College**

Although it is undeniable that educational leaders did assist in some formation and verbal support of the junior college system, this support seems to be in certain specific locations of higher education growth. Areas such as Chicago, Minnesota and the area around Stanford University. However, “The university presidents of this era were much more guarded in their reaction to, and support for the junior college” (Pedersen, 2000, p.406). According to Pedersen (2000), these presidents were much more interested in the well-being of their own institutions than in education for the masses. The presidents of liberal art colleges were very much against these new colleges as their formation might affect the enrollment of their institutions. Further murmurings were heard when at the American Association of Colleges met in 1921. President David MacKenzie, of the Detroit Junior College, suggested a three-year baccalaureate degree on the two-year level. This had a profoundly negative influence on the attendees, who were then relieved to hear from Augustus Downing, of the New York State Department of Education. Downing stated that the department would not recognize a junior college for such an action due to the junior college movement being so young. Although it is hard to determine if this was the actual cause, the areas where there were large numbers of private colleges, such as New York, Connecticut, and Indiana, saw junior college formation that was often difficult and delayed. In the end, the opposition was not successful and junior colleges emerged despite some negative voices of private colleges who were not open to the junior college innovation (Pedersen, 2000). Not only were there regional influences in the junior college movement, but also various sizes of communities had immense influence as well as demands on the emerging two-year colleges. As the movement grew, the classification of the colleges began to emerge into three main types.

## **Classifications, Names, and Missions of Two-Year Colleges**

### **Junior College Classification Types**

The three main types of junior colleges that formed are based on the size of the city in which they originate. They are as follows: the urban institution, the municipal institution, and the one where Snead State would be placed, being the small-town junior college. The latter institutions enrolled less students than the other two types, often having less than 75 per college. The facilities compared to the two other groups were usually not as expansive or elaborate as the other institutions that were mentioned. Those more prosperous localities, with diverse businesses and work opportunities, often had more modern educational facilities. They might also have their own facilities as compared to some small-town colleges, who might borrow a few classrooms from a local high school (Pedersen, 2000). The curriculum might also vary as these institutions might not offer more advanced courses and would focus on the basic courses such as English, mathematics, and history. While the institutions of urban and municipal entities might have full time faculty, the small town might have to borrow teachers from the local high school. Another difference is that local tax revenue was often enough to assist in the running of the larger institutions, however, the small towns colleges often had to charge a higher tuition. The higher tuition might be the only funding on which they could depend and the cost charged per pupil was higher (Pedersen, 2000). The general economic situation also was much different in the smaller towns, as they normally had much slower growth and were not increasing in population. They were also different economically, as the wealth of the citizenry and the levels of industry that were locally available were not as wide as in larger cities. Job prospects might be limited and were often locally owned, so the opportunities, both in advancement and salary, might be limited. The industrialization of America often bypassed the small communities, and there were

increasing numbers of small commuter urban areas that began to grow outside of major cities in states such as California, Michigan, and Texas. These areas became populated and had a tax base that allowed support for growing junior colleges. Small towns were often not beneficiaries of new growth or expansion that came from a nearby larger city as they were out of the geographic reach of the suburban areas. The survival of institutions in small towns was often a struggle, so the question then comes, why did over 150 small towns begin a junior college (Pedersen, 2000)? This is the position in which Snead Junior College found itself. Being in the small northeastern town of Boaz, Alabama, why was it important to found and continue such an institution? This is a question that was investigated in exploring why Snead Junior College found success and longevity in a small town.

Pedersen gives three main reasons for these types of institutions. Parents were concerned for their children, the establishment of a college would help the local economy, and that civic leaders wanted to maintain or increase the status of their communities by having an institution of higher learning located within their region (Pedersen, 2000). The two-year college could be known by several different names according to the locality where it was established as there was not a specific standard to measure each institution.

### **Terms for the Two-Year College**

The two main terms for a two-year higher educational institution are the junior college and the community college. From the origination of the movement until the 1940s the term junior college is more commonly used. By the early 1920s, a junior college was considered a college that offers two year of collegiate grade instruction but, by the mid-1920s, the definition expands to include curriculum that is reflective of the educational and vocational needs of the local community where it resides. In the 1950s and 1960s the same term was used to denote

independent or private two-year colleges, as well as lower divisions of four-year institutions. Around the same time, the term community college was used to describe those two-year institutions that were supported by the public, and by the 1970s, the term community college was broadly used to portray all public two-year institutions (Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014). There are other names which may be more specific to a region or to a type, but the term community college has become the catch all term used. From their origins through the 1940s, the term junior college was used for everything from branches of four-year institutions, to two-year entities that were supported by the state, to organizations that developed higher education external to state control (Cohen & Brawer, 2014).

The original definition of the term comes from the American Association of Junior Colleges who, in 1922, state that it is “an institution offering two years of instruction of strictly collegiate grade” (Cohen & Brawer, 2014, p. 4). By 1925, there was verbiage that adjusted the definition to include the “Ever-changing civic, social, religious, and vocational needs of the entire community in which the college is located” (Cohen & Brawer, 2014 p. 4). This definition speaks to the idea that, from 1922 to 1925, there was a change in the perception of what a junior college was. The junior college increasingly came to be known as not just a center for learning but also a center for responding to the needs of the community.

The term of community college is defined by George Vaughan (2006) “as a regionally accredited institution of higher education that offers the associate degree as its highest degree, however today, in a number of states community colleges offer the bachelor’s degree as well” (Vaughn, 2006, p. 1). The community college has a culture of its own, and usually serves commuter students of a certain clientele and in a specific geographic region. The colleges are committed to open access, offering programs, and include the building of and inclusion in the

local community. The community college has a mission of providing “Access to postsecondary educational programs and service that lead to stronger, more vital communities” (Vaughn, 2006, p. 3). The mission of each institution may vary but in general they strive to serve all parts of society, provide comprehensive education, serve their respective communities, provide learning and teaching, and encourage lifelong learning (Vaughn, 2006). The word community is pivotal in the name of community college, in that the college is meant to be based within the community. It should serve the needs of a specific geographic area, and, in general, focus on college transfer, and technical and vocational education. This would meet the needs of the community and serve as an institution of higher learning. The focus of this level of education would not be on research and publications but on the teaching of students (Vaughn, 2006). By the 1950s, the term began to be applied to institutional colleges that were comprehensive in educational offerings and were publicly supported by states and localities. The junior college term was still in use, but more by religious, independent and university supported two-year colleges (Cohen & Brawer, 2014). Beyond the two main types there are a few other names for two-year colleges that may be familiar such as technical colleges, technical institutes or colleges, and adult education.

A few other types, though still two-year in nature, include the most common name of technical college. These institutions are also named technical institute, adult education, or vocational (Cohen & Brawer, 2014) and refer to those institutions whose goal is in specific fields that are considered trade or technical in nature. There have also been nicknames for two-year colleges such as democracy college, opportunity college and people’s college (Cohen & Brawer, 2014) that reflect the democratic ideals of these institutions.

## **Missions of the Two-Year College**

The mission is often a public statement from college leaders that lists that the activities of the college are reflective of the needs its community and may come from legislation or the college itself and may change over time (Townsend & Dougherty 2006). The individual institution has a mission statement which often entails how that specific institution will serve the student and the community and how they meet the demands of all stakeholders. In the general formation of the junior college, there were overarching missions that spoke to the needs of students at that time and which still holds forth in spirit. These include, first, the democratization of education which gives opportunity to more socio-economic levels of society and allows all societal levels a way to receive higher education. Secondly, the junior college also helped solve the issues in society including the lack of higher education to more specific education in the proper fields that would help society and the modern world. Third, is the cornerstone of all missions and that is an open-door policy. The open-door policy answered the call for admission of nearly any student to an intuition of higher learning as well as broad educational opportunity for all prospective students (Brit & Karabel, 1989; Vaughn, 2006).

One of the foundational goals of the junior college was a democratization of the educational system that allowed those who were not included, due to financial and societal issues, into the levels of higher education. This ideal further promoted social and economic equity in offering not only general education, but specific technical training, that would be able to meet the needs of the a newly industrialized society (Brint & Karabel, 1989). The American concept of democratization meant that there was plentiful access to colleges, and that these institutions were nearby and not too expensive. Not only this, but they would also offer technical, as well as academic courses, so that their offerings would be available to a wide swath of

individuals. This form of democracy is not political in nature but is defined more the in the availability of educational options and opportunities for the broadest number of people possible. Democratization was also tied to the opportunities for technical education. Since business and industry were increasing in technology there was more of a need for education so graduates could be productive as workers in the modern workplace (Daugherty, 2001).

Another example of that practicality comes from the American Association of Junior Colleges, whose leaders mentioned that the movement of junior colleges mixed social purpose, education, democracy, and Christianity as a part of the reasoning for the success of the junior college (Cohen & Brawer, 2014). This view by the Association would further cement the idea that parents might want to keep their children closer to them and be able to oversee the education that is occurring in their own communities. Under local leadership the values of Christianity and democracy would be positives for students living and learning locally, and these values might not be as evident in an institution that was in a large city. Distant institutions might have more liberal thought and the lifestyle there might have looser morals than the parents would wish for their children to experience. Since the change from being an adolescent to an adult would occur around the late teens (Cohen & Brawer, 2014) parents would be even more apt to want to have their children closer to home to lessen the opportunity for corruption.

Throughout the history of America, there has been a desire for every level of education to help solve the issues that occur in society. Increasingly, there was the idea that it was beneficial to have more education, which would in turn help with unemployment. Those who were not employed were costing society money and production and thus, more education and decreased unemployment would further cure the ills of society. The community college had been responsive to these cries and was able to meet new challenges in that it was new itself. It had no

preconceived notions of what it was and it had no philosophy that kept it in within certain expectations. It was in fact able to respond to modernity because it was itself modern (Cohen & Brawer, 2014). Early public community colleges were an outgrowth of secondary schools, and due to the increase in high school graduates there was a need for a level of education before the university. There were also business people who wanted an educated workforce as well as some community members who desired the prestige of a local college for their community. Both of these goals were important and were factors in the establishment of junior colleges. All of these reasons could be the answer, or it could be a single issue or combination of factors that influenced the establishment of the junior college (Cohen, et al., 2014). These are logical and even historic assumptions. However, Pedersen (2000) takes issue with the outgrowth from the high school, as there is evidence that as early as the 1870s there were high schools, such as the leading academic high school in Baltimore, that added courses that would be considered to be on the college level. Also, the high school in Greeley, Colorado added a fifth year of courses that were equated with collegiate work (Pedersen, 2000). This, places junior college formation in a different location on the timeline of education that is far before the date of Joliet. However, whenever and whatever the true origin or first establishment was, there is a desire to be responsive to society, and to improve education to meet societal issues and problems.

One of the cornerstones of the community college is that of open-door admissions, or that the institution is willing to take students who are not the traditional incoming freshman. These students may be older, in search of technical education, students who have academic issues, or those who may have dropped out of traditional high school. These non-traditional students, as they are termed, are normally not as welcomed within the-four-year setting. The two-year college however, opened their doors to such students. These non-traditional students find that the

community college is closer to home, more inexpensive to attend, and welcomes their attendance (Dougherty, 2001). The mission statements and generalizations of the modern purpose of community colleges often includes open access as a cornerstone of the reason for these entities. Open access is characterized by admission policies that do not block students from applying and show equal and fair treatment to all students. Part of the opportunity is the providing of educational opportunities at low tuition and the offering of a variety of courses. Another part of the opportunity of open access allows for equity. This equity means that, not only is there a curriculum they desire and the cost is lower, but it also means that a college is physically accessed by commuters (Vaughn, 2006).

Both access and equity ensure that diverse sexes, ethnicities, social status, educational levels, and financial conditions are not inhibitors to collegiate success. There is also financial aid, counseling, advising, and student services, which give students the tools to navigate higher education. This does not mean that any student can walk in and attend as they please, since there are restrictions as to entering certain levels of collegiate courses and benchmarks which they have to meet to successfully achieve a degree. If a student arrives at an open access college and is not prepared for collegiate instruction, then the two-year college provides opportunities for foundational work to prepare them for success (Vaughn, 2006). The open access of today has evolved to the ideals mentioned but actual historical record shows that early colleges were more elitist in nature and often charged tuition, which made them at times more exclusive. Open access refutes some theories of formation that include external influences due to the fact that school districts in the early twentieth century were very independent (Pedersen, 2000). The theory that there were motives of origination that were noble or selfish, or even a mixture of both, is a premise that may fit in the establishment of Snead State. Although Pedersen is focused

on the public junior college, the same influences and even more varied reasons, could be evident in private secular and church sponsored junior colleges (Pedersen, 2000).

Open access was not always the case in the early junior colleges. The lack of an open access mentality, in some two-year institutions, is in part due to the ties that these early institutions had with universities. Some universities would only extend transfer credit to those junior colleges that had entrance requirements as stringent as that of their partner university. The tuition to some early junior colleges was even more than that of the regional state universities. Although some comparisons were not applicable, there were some startling figures (Pedersen, 2000). In 1928 the resident tuition and fees charge of the University of Arizona was \$30.00 while same charges at Phoenix Junior College was \$60.00, and while the University of Texas charged \$30.00, Brownsville, South Park, and Temple Junior Colleges charged \$152.00, \$145.00, and \$200.00 respectively (Pedersen, 2000). The students of these institutions reflected the higher tuition and admission status by coming from more affluent homes. Student affluence is another difference between the modern and early junior college and shows how open access was viewed in a different way in the foundation period (Pedersen, 2000). To these early institutions it could be assumed that access to them regarded physical proximity more than equal opportunity.

What extant historic records do show is that the early junior college did not originate as the open access institutions. The modern view that is so evident in community colleges of today does not reflect the founding ideals where admittance was discretionary (Pedersen, 2000). Although open access is one of the terms that is tossed around in the academic community of two-year colleges, there are still other meanings that it has. Although it generally means that most any student can walk into a two-year college and have the opportunity to attend classes, open access can also be defined as having admissions policies that have few entry requirements

(Daugherty, 2001). The idea comes from the founding of the United States of America and, “To the belief that all individuals should have the opportunity to rise to their greatest potential” (Cohen & Brawer 2014, p. 10). There is a belief that talent is found throughout the social structure of society, and even those that struggle and fail should be given more than one chance (Cohen & Brawer, 2014). There are requirements and regulations that deal with entrance or placement exams, conduct, legal status, or academic documentation. However, in general, there is the idea that these institutions are not selective and cull out the unlearned and ill-prepared as a four-year institution would. There is also another view that they take in the uneducated masses and provide a certain basic level of education. (Cohen & Brawer, 2014).

### **Support and Resistance Toward the Junior College**

There was substantial support, both from parents and college officials, for the junior college model. Parents hoped that the junior college would allow their children better futures both in work and in the transition to a university. Junior college presidents stated that the public demand for local educational opportunity was an important reason for the formation and continuance of these institutions. A survey of the time found that 50 % of these presidents felt this was the most important factor while 90 % felt it was an important factor (Brint & Karabel, 1989). The overwhelming percentage of presidents that saw the existence of the junior college as responsive to the needs of its community is a telling fact. These percentages are reflective of the world in which these presidents lived, and further show that within their everyday walk they were aware of the influence and importance of the institutions they led. Some of the areas where junior colleges were founded were in large cities, and those presidents who supported them were in daily contact with the community. This served as a regular support system and further encouraged them in the view that junior colleges were an important entity. This contact also

showed that they saw and talked on a regular basis to business leaders, parents and students, and civic governments. The opinions and views of these stakeholders helped to show the importance of the junior college to the local community and its population. There was no way to make all sectors of society happy with any idea, much less a new one. Such an innovative educational institution was likely to draw questions. These institutions would require funding, as well as land, and other resources and these factors could easily have opposition, especially in areas of low resources (Brint & Karabel, 1989).

While there were reasons for establishment of these institutions that were held by some, there were others who did not see the benefit of another layer of education. Why was there a need to spend money on this institution that could be spent elsewhere? This conflict of pros and cons was one that had merit on each side of the argument and also allowed for testing of the practicality of the establishment of the junior college (Pedersen, 2000). The founding of junior colleges would bring conflict as any new innovation was likely to do. There were those who were not in favor of the foundation of another form of educational institution, and sometimes their opposition was larger in scope than is often acknowledged. When looking in retrospect, the duplication of this model does show its importance though some populations in the time held opposing views. This opposition could be widespread and varied in reason, from financial topics, such as the expenses spent on a college's formation and continuance, to the unneeded extension of public schooling (Pedersen, 2000).

There were valid reasons why money should not be spent on higher education, especially in the early 1900s, when only a small number of young people actually finished high school. Of those graduating high school, less than half of that number actually went to college (Pedersen, 2000). The professed justification of spending money where the most students were, did not bear

out the need for junior colleges. Funding was already disbursed to high schools and the idea of diverting some of that for higher education, that was not compulsory, was seen as wasteful. Also, money from the state that would establish and run a junior college would only do so for some constituents. Since not every high school graduate would attend college was junior college establishment really for the public good? There were also private, sometimes denominational colleges, who felt that state money should not be used to put them out of business. Since they had no state support, as in the case of religious and private institutions, they saw the spending of tax money on a similar form of education as an attack on their existence (Pedersen, 2000).

Another issue was that the formation of colleges was not legislated, and colleges could be formed and run with no state oversight (Pedersen, 2000). This might call into question their legitimacy in providing education for the citizenry. Prior to 1925, state governments had little concern for the formation of junior colleges and actually had no method to make these new institutions comply with their desires, either academically or otherwise. The state courts left education to localities, and if they were compelled to rule, they often did so on the side of local school boards. Governors and attorney's general usually only stepped in if there was a political issue, and the argument was then usually personal or individual in nature. By 1925, states began to address the issues of the local junior college, and some new laws restricted where colleges could go. The prevailing view was that the institution should only be established in areas that could support them financially and would not affect the state by asking for funding (Pedersen, 2000).

There is also the consideration of the public's view and support of these new institutions. According to Pedersen (2000), in some cases, there was little interest or support. The public may not have even been aware of a college's formation. He also argues that the opinion of the public

did not really matter in the decision-making process of forming an institution. When there was opposition it was usually due to a move by the government to increase taxes for the institution. This would affect both those who would attend, and most importantly, those who would not. Once tuition became established and commonplace and support was not seen as a tax issue, the opposition faded. Taxpayers assumed that the previously established public schools had the first choice of funding (Pedersen, 2000), and that the new institutional college should be fully supported by state funding. They would supplement their funding with tuition charged to the student and this would allow the high schools to receive state and local funding from tax action. The new colleges would then live or die on the money it charged as tuition along with other monies that it could raise (Pedersen, 2000). Though the pros and cons are easily found and investigated, the reality is that without the junior college many students would not have such a great access to higher education (Cohen & Brawer, 2014)

### **Gap in the Literature**

Previous literature has investigated reasons for the establishment of two-year colleges and the various forms that they took. However, few scholarly research projects have been devoted to the formation of a junior college from a religiously based secondary institution in a region of Alabama that was a predominantly farming region, and extremely rural. Also, though there have been many attempts to discover the history of two-year colleges, it is usually from a national and not local perspective (Cohen & Brawer, 2014). This dissertation fills this gap in the scholarly literature by bringing to light the story of an institution that does not compare with other similar institutions due to the unique circumstances from which it evolved.

## Overarching Themes

The overarching themes that guide the work include the influence and innovation of religious institutions that were founded due to missionary zeal, individuals that created and sustained these institutions, and reaction of both internal and external stimuli. All of these factors culminated in the creation of Snead Junior College. Systems of higher learning are complex and are affected by various forms of support. They also compete for resources from both traditional and non-traditional sources. Such support may or may not be found in august and larger institutions with long histories. There are religious, social, and voluntary influences which may be the life of an institution but could also mean its death if they cease to support it. An example is that there continued to be an interest in funding institutions in the South and especially the Appalachian region. This area was assumed to need educational opportunities for both Blacks and Whites, and Northerners contributed to a variety of institutions with missionary zeal (Gasman, 2011). Many of the local supporters of the various evolutions of education at Snead were members of the local Methodist Episcopal Church, and there was also community favor for the institution, as well as support that was solicited from outside of the area (Allen & Allen, 1998).

The overarching themes that the guide the work include the influence and innovation of religious institutions that were founded due to missionary zeal, individuals that created and sustained these institutions, and reaction of both internal and external stimuli. All of these reasons culminated in the creation of Snead Junior College and factors that make these themes attractive include: First, they place the college in the non-profit sector, which is not the case in other institutions around the world, Second, each institution is unique in its promotion and

protection of itself. Third individual institutions compete with other organizations and social networks for support (Gasman, 2010).

Unlike institutions in the rest of the world, higher educational institutions in America were set up as non-profit entities. In this respect, though there may be a base of funding, colleges must go out and seek support, both monetarily and emotionally. Financially, funding for athletic enterprises, touring of artistic groups, unique equipment, and scholarships are often supported by foundations or generous donors (Gasman, 2010). Also, the names of buildings, study centers, libraries, and athletic fields often showcase the names of benefactors of the institution, but community and external support speaks to more than structures.

Due to the necessity of incomplete governmental funding each institution must promote itself (Gasman, 2010) in the form of advertisements, athletic and cultural groups, as well as academic honor societies. The use of students to provide campus tours, testimonials, and compete in competitions, such as scholars bowl and business contests, are ways that colleges can show student success. Student organizations that provide service projects in the community are one example of an institution where it can show that it is a part of the community it serves. Such examples provide public relations offices with information they can impart to news organizations, and further promote the name of that institution.



*Figure 6.* Student organizations of Snead Seminary (Snead Archives)



*Figure 7.* Student organizations of Snead Seminary (Snead Archives)

Since students have a choice of where to attend college (Gasman, 2010), individual institutions must vie for their attendance. They are in competition with other institutions to provide the best programs and experiences for the prospective student. The previous two

examples again come into play, since quality programs and scholarships are not available unless there are benefactors who have donated to increase such opportunities

The idea of philanthropy is one that goes back as far as the Renaissance in Italy, where financial records included the words “*Domini Deo*,” which is translated as “Given to God”. This entry denoted donations for the public good or for charity (Gasman, 2010, p. 73). This ideal was not lost on those who founded America, as noted by Alexis de Tocqueville, who noticed the many social services and generosity of Americans when he toured America. He noted that the new Americans felt that problems in society could be solved via the private sector, and that private action was more important than governmental activity. This originally emanated from the English who enacted laws to support endowments and believed in the private nature of funding. This continued the support of private property, integral to English thought. Even in the time of Henry VIII, when the Catholic church was persecuted, many clerical orders that were still active were not taxed, as they provided charity for those who were destitute, and assisted those poor that the government did not help. A legal stamp, in America, was put on the issue with the case of *Dartmouth College v. Woodward* in 1819, where the Supreme Court found that colleges were considered charitable institutions (Gasman, 2010). This definition set the tone for private support of higher education that would be external to the governmental support.

Before World War II, the private college, in general, had two characteristics that helped it. One was that there was longer history of those institutions, and with that the affinity of alumni to help provide a firm foundation in a variety of ways. This longevity gave them a long list of successful alumni who were very supportive of the school and could provide continuous help. Second, the institutions were free from the politics of the state. Legislators and governors could not bother their funding, nor lessen the alumni support they held. After World War II, states

began to increase funding to their institutions and private colleges had to step up fundraising, but still often fell short as tuition at state schools was less than at private institutions (Thelin, 2011). To fully understand the formation of the junior college model, these factors should be considered, and though influence and monies might have come from other areas of the country, there was a receptive nature from those educators who were extant in southern institutions. Without those educators working within the institutions and the community members and alumni to support them, the efforts to stay open would have been in vain.

While individuals were important, over time, institutions needed continual philanthropy to support their work that focused on their specific college. This institutionalization of support was important to the continuance of the mission of higher education. This continuous philanthropy meant more than just work for a specific institution, but also for broad-based support of students regardless of the institution that they attended (Gasman, 2010). This also speaks to the Methodist Episcopal support of Snead in its transition and at its formation.

The American Educational Society (AES) was developed in the 19<sup>th</sup> century to provide scholarships for students at northern, liberal arts universities. These students agreed to serve in sites far from their New England schools as a form of educational missionaries. Those who donated funds to the AES were not building structures or expanding an individual campus, but were giving to a missionary effort. Extensions of this model included the Evangelical Lutheran Board (1885), The Presbyterian Education Board (1886), and the Methodist Episcopal Church Board (1864) (Gasman, 2010), of which the latter was integral in founding of Snead. There was emphasis of northern philanthropy especially in the South for Blacks, who encountered unequal or little educational opportunities, but there was support for Whites as well. The focus on educational opportunities for Whites were those poor and underserved areas of the Appalachia

(Gasman, 2010), including the end of the Appalachian chain where Snead was founded. Snead History had several buildings that had external donors in particular Norton Library and Pfeiffer Hall, a residence hall. Unlike other buildings on campus, these structures were named for people who were not from the local community, but yet these buildings had a great influence on the institution and the education that it would provide. Further investigation will hopefully lead to uncovering their lineage.

### **Conclusion**

What are the true origins of the junior college or today's community college? While there is support, according to Dougherty (2001), for the functional theory referring to students and parental desires (Dougherty, 2001). There are other factors. Under Marxists and socialist theorists there is a focus on economic interests (Cohen, & Brawer, 2014). There are also other theorists that feel that the universities themselves were integral in the formation of the two-year system (Brint, 2001; Diener, 1986; Dougherty, 2001). There seem to be more suppositions than facts and no clear answer among the reasons for the establishment of the junior college model, however, there are other factors that may have also come into play.

Factors such as local educators who wanted to provide more education for their current students and expanded opportunity for administrative and teaching vocations were two factors. Where a college was located might also have played a role in the desire for a junior college, that would bring not only training, but also prestige to a local community. Although state officials did not initially embrace the model, they often came to fund it and use it in reelection campaigns to show how interested they were in state education. Eventually, the national government also created national aid to assist with tuition and costs and other funding options. However, local and state activity cannot be the sole answer for the formation of the junior college as there is a variety

of opportunities for various players to influence the formation and growth of the institution (Daugherty, 2001). These players, with some input from great educators, could also be institutions that desired certain things for themselves. The investigation to help understand the diverse founding story of Snead will best be found using the overarching themes of the importance and innovation of religious institutions that were founded due to missionary zeal, individuals that created and sustained these institutions, and reaction of both internal and external stimuli. All of these factors culminated in the creation of Snead Junior College.

The formation of the junior college model evolved in a changing cultural climate of America during the growth of industry and the change in social climate. It came at a time and was responsive to the needs of a modern world. The historic advances of civilization through industrialization and adaption of new models of education included the German model, which focused on higher education and its research. The elite universities of the day, and some of their leaders, desired to focus on the upper levels of education and leave the survey courses to so-called junior colleges.

The purported, and sometimes disputed, founding of Joliet in 1901 is often mentioned as the starting point but evidence suggest that there were other areas where progress was also being made. The argument here is not as important as the outcome where a variety of factors influenced the formation of the junior college. However, it is important to remember that educational leaders do not did not do the groundwork or establish the junior college as a movement. The founding came through a historic timeline with many influences.

Not only was there a new world in business and industry as well as societal change but also there was a desire from various sized communities such as the great cities, mediums cities and small and medium towns. While great cities saw the community college as more diversity in

its municipal offerings, smaller communities might take pride in having their own institution that supplied their needs, where a distant university did not. States, such as California and Kansas, had their own goals while some regions, such as the northeast were not very interested in a new model of education, due to a proliferation of private and regional institutions. As growth occurred local defining elements came into being such as rural, municipal, and urban, as well as a redefining of the two-year college from junior college to community college to greater reflect its increased opportunities in technical and specified education from more general and survey education.

Arguably the most important element of the junior college movement is that of its overreaching missions. While colleges and universities today have mission statements that reflect their values and influence in their locale, the broader missions of the early two-year college movement include democratization, which allows a larger swath of the population to have the opportunity of advanced education. Another mission is that of societal improvement and making the world, or in this case the community a better place, through education and its responses to the business and industrial needs of the region. The broadest reaching mission is that of open-access which, in essence, throws open the doors of the college to anyone that wishes to come, and allows many more students to enter higher education than elite universities allowed in the past.

While university pressure, innovations, business needs, and societal change all play factors in a new dynamic educational institution, it takes students to make a college. The students might have attended for a variety of reasons. Among the many factors that make a junior college attractive was the increased high school graduation rate, which prepared more students for more education, as well as the need to be educated for modern occupations to respond to the growing technological needs. The junior college was also close to home and being more convenient was

congruent with parental concerns for their children's morality, and further educational instruction. There was also the option of having religious institutions that reflected their personal belief system. Of course, no matter the interest, and even positive elements of the junior college would keep it from its critics. While the positives of being reactive to the needs of the community, providing an educated workforce, and being an important option for the local community, there were concerns. These included those of high schools who used tax dollars, and the monetary needs of a new institution, as well as accountability. Would there be enough funding for public education as well as a new junior college? Is a junior college, considered a public good? Who was in charge of the junior college and how were they policed? There were few state regulations, and no state ones so how dependable is this new junior college? How are their courses verified, and how transferable are these courses? All of these questions swirled around the formation of the junior college movement. At the end, in over one hundred years these questions are still asked and considered and researched and the junior college in the meantime had become an important part of the American educational system.

CHAPTER III:  
RESEARCH METHODS

**Introduction**

The history of education in America has influences from such diverse places as England and Germany, and these influences, along with the unique ideas of America, have brought forth a different form of education than the world had previously seen, that of the junior college (Brint & Karabel, 1989; Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014; Thelin, 2011). The junior college movement has disputed origins, but the fact that it became a major part of the educational system of the United States is not in question (Brint & Karabel, 1989; Vaughn, 2006; Thelin, 2011). Also, through the literature, the diversity of types of colleges and their responses from regions, states, and localities show that formation was widespread and influenced much of the country in various ways.

One of the problems that is found in research on the junior college, in general, is that two-year colleges have not kept good records of their history. Although there are a variety of reasons why this might occur, the effect is that sometimes the origins of these institutions are barely documented, or do not give a full picture of their founding (Pedersen, 2000). Understanding the origin story of these colleges not only answers historic questions based in history but shows reasons that those institutions exist. Within those reasons are often the beginnings of the missions, of not only a specific institution, but of the movement in general (Brint & Karabel, 1989; Dougherty, 2001).

The purpose of this research was to better understand the formation of a junior college in Boaz that became Snead Junior college and is today known as Snead State Community College. The study of the formation of educational institutions is important because understanding the past, and especially the origins can impact current decision making and help to further apply the missions of the college in the modern world (Dougherty, 2001).

The discussion will begin with the research question and appropriate sub questions that will focus on what prompted the formation of Snead Junior College from a local Methodist academy, and who was influential, why did they desire the formation, and what was the process of creation. There will then be a discussion of the setting where the research will occur, and then a reason for the use of qualitative research, and more specifically the historical qualitative approach. This will focus on the use of this method through the lens of an historian, and the importance of this method. Next, will be a discussion of the types of data that will be investigated, and how they will be analyzed along with how these results will be validated. Last, will appear statements on ethical considerations and the positionality of the author.

### **Research Questions**

This research study addressed the main research question of what prompted the creation of a junior college, out of a high school that was religiously based, in a rural farming region of north Alabama, in the mid-1930s. In order to develop a holistic response to the main research question, this study also investigated the following questions:

1. What were the foundations of Snead Junior College;
2. Who were the people involved in creating Snead Junior College?
3. What were the reasons for founding Snead Junior College?

The major factors found in the literature provide few answers to these specific questions so a thorough analysis would add to the literature.

### **Setting**

The setting of the research will be the institution itself, Snead State Community College, as well as the surrounding area of libraries and historical research repositories. Snead State Community College is situated in northeast Alabama, just south of the Tennessee River, and is on a plateau at the end of the Appalachian train of mountains, referred to as Sand Mountain. The founding year was 1898 for the establishment of an educational institution run by the Methodist Episcopal Church and 1935 is recognized as the year of the formation of a junior college. The history of the college includes a foundation through the Methodist Episcopal Church that remained in control until 1967, when the institution joined the newly formed two-year colleges of the state of Alabama. As of the Fall of 2017, the college had 2,220 students with 63.3% female and 36.7% male students. Full time students comprised 56.7% while 43.3% were part-time status. The race and ethnicity makeup include 1,645 white/non-Hispanic, 173 African American/non-Hispanic, and 402 other races of whom 262 were Hispanic. For the 2016-2017 academic year there were 484 graduates with the associate degree (Alabama Commission on Higher Education, 2017).

Boaz Academy was founded in 1898 and by 1935 was formed as Snead Junior College. It is the oldest community college in the state of Alabama to award the associate degree. The mission of Snead State Community College is:

Snead State Community College, a member of the Alabama Community College System, is dedicated to excellence in meeting the educational needs of those we serve through the completion of degree and certificate programs, workforce development, and community engagement. (Snead State website)

The institution has two buildings on the National Register of Historic Places (the Administration Building and the Norton Building) and has a campus of unique structures that are unlike the flat-roofed buildings so common in 1960s construction of many community colleges. The reasons that this institution was of interest included that it is singular in its founding and formation. Because of its unique attributes it is of interest in research and discussion of its founding. There is also access to over one hundred years of documentation available on campus, in the local public library, and from local historians.

### **Methodology**

Methodology is defined as theoretical analysis that is appropriate to a particular field of study (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013), and the appropriate methodology for this study is qualitative. This research is qualitative in that it “is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (Creswell, 2009, p. 4). The use of multiple lenses throughout the process can benefit the researcher in qualitative analysis and can be useful in various forms and stages of the research. Three of the most useful lenses in this study are the lenses of research, data collection, and analysis. The use of a research phenomenon lens allows the researcher to discern what is important to the study. Throughout the process, the researchers may change lenses and focus through the data collection lens that will assist in sifting through the data that is available, and using what is pertinent to the study, and discarding those elements that are not beneficial to the study. Last, the analytic lens provides the researcher with various methods that lead to the best interpretation of the data that is found (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013, p. 46.) These lenses are especially helpful in this study, as it is comprised of a great deal of data that may not be integral to the study itself but is interesting in

general terms. The various lenses will allow the researcher to discern importance of the data and focus on the research questions at hand.

It is also a historic inquiry where the use of qualitative method is necessary. The qualitative method was the most beneficial method for this study, since it is characterized by the five following characteristics:

- 1) Because quantitative inquiry does not answer the problem or is not a good fit;
- 2) A holistic account, where there is the use of multiple perspectives and the gathering of multiple types of data;
- 3) The key to the research is the researcher themselves;
- 4) There is a site that the study occurs in the area that the phenomena occurred; and
- 5) When the use of statistics and quantitative methods do not fit the problem that is being studied because it deals with human actions and activity that cannot be calculated by numbers. (Creswell, 2009)

The elements of the use of multiple perspectives with the researcher having access to the research, and the specific location, are especially valid in the case of the formation of Snead Junior College. This event was not included in major statistics nor is it a part of a group, but it was individualist as to the specific location and institution. The events leading up to this establishment were of human actions and are not quantifiable (Creswell, 2009).

Another reason that qualitative research is necessary is when there are multiple perspectives with multiple factors that create interactions that are complex. These interactions, whether among people or with people as the victims or beneficiaries of the interactions, are complex and thus require a more holistic approach. The establishment of Snead as a junior college came from both inside the institution and from the external community around the

college. Factors and actions occurred both internally and externally to influence the decision-making process, so it is necessary to view the event from various perspectives (Creswell, 2009). The goal of the qualitative research is also to find meaning of the foundation of Snead Junior College and, while finding cause and effect is a part of the process, finding the meaning of the phenomenon is at the heart of the study (Merriam, 2009).

A third reason that qualitative research is applicable is that instead of using only one source of data, there is an analysis of multiple forms of data from multiple sources. The use of multiple forms of data allows an analysis of the data, which provides depth and better understanding of the topics. This view through a variety lenses including the community and institutional lens is necessary (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013), but a part of this research is also using a variety of data types and sources. Not only from the community and educational perspective, but also through the use of newspaper clippings, photographs, scrap books (Gilderhus, 2010) and unofficial and official histories as well as primary sources such as original school documents.

The fourth reason is that the researcher is the one who collects and analyses data and thus is not dependent on a format, form, or instrument that has been developed by another researcher. Thus, the instruments and investigation fit the case that is being studied. This study is focused on one institution and though the external creation of the junior college is considered as a historic backdrop, the main emphasis is on the specific institution and its community. That being the case, there are not specific formats or outlines that fit the specificity of the issue of the formation of a junior college at Snead (Creswell, 2009.)

The fifth characteristic is that the information is collected in the area in which the phenomenon occurred. This characteristic allows the researcher to be in the setting of the event

and have the opportunity to explore up close, the setting of the events, and perhaps, even see the outcome of the events themselves. This is one of the benefits of being in the institution being studied, as the information is held in a small area and is readily available to one who is in the locale. Such an opportunity helps the researcher in time well spent and especially in the case of needing multiple visits to obtain quality data. Since they are in the location in which the phenomenon occurred, it is much easier to visit, search, and compare data (Creswell, 2009).

### **Method**

The method I used was a case study in which I focused specifically on this institution and its transition. According to Yin (2009) the case study model is used “to contribute to our knowledge of individual, group, organizational, social, political, and related phenomena” (Yin, 2009, p. 4; Savin-Badin & Major, 2013). The case study design was that of a holistic, single case design (Yin, 2009; Savin-Badin & Major, 2013). In other words, it was a design where only one case, or in this situation only Snead Junior College, was be investigated. The main rationale of this being the primary mode of investigation is that the case of Snead is what Yin (2009) referred to as a unique case, which refers to the situational uniqueness of an event, such as the transformation to a junior college model. Another rationale can also be attributed and that is the revelatory case where there is the opportunity to analyze such a phenomenon as the transformation of an educational institution (Yin, 2009). A case study is bounded in that it focuses on the lines drawn around the case. In other words, what are the boundaries or lines that the researcher stays within to provide as complete a picture as possible of the phenomenon being studied (Savin-Badin & Major, 2013)? The lines within this study are based around the specific institution and the factors that affected its transition to a junior college and are historic in nature.

I more specifically used the historical case study method in which “the researcher explores in depth a program, event, activity, process...and researchers collect detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures” (Creswell, 2009, p. 13). The case study is informed by historical research methods, specifically institutional history. The topic which this study will explore is the formation of a junior college from a religiously affiliate high school. Case study is bounded by geography (Merriam, 2009; Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). The geographical bounding of this study is Snead State Community College in Boaz, Alabama. The temporal bounding of this study is from 1928 until 1940 with supplementation on the historic formation of Boaz Seminary in 1898.

### **Data Collection**

The procedure for collection of data was researching archival material and documents of historic material, including but not restricted to archived newspapers, hand-written histories, city histories, photographs, memorabilia, yearbooks, and institutional catalogs. This data came from both inside the institution being studied and external to the institution and yielded views of the college through two main lenses. The first is the internal lens. The internal lens shows documents held by the school in their historic and archival collections. These included official documents such as catalogs and yearbooks but also included newspaper clippings and scrapbooks, which showed what the members of the college felt were important. The external lens was provided by research at local libraries that held primary source documentation, such as newspapers and personal memorabilia donated by former students of the college and citizens. The data collection will occur primarily on a single site of Snead State Community College and the community surrounding it. The use of a single site is advantageous in this form of qualitative research in that it allows the researcher to find a depth of information on one specific place (Savin-Badin &

Major, 2013), and for the use of this case study, it is the most applicable place for the most pervasive data collection.

In a qualitative research study, documents are an integral form of data to be collected (Glaser, 1998), and this is especially true in historical analysis where many of the original participants are not available to personally interview. Documents collected in qualitative research are usually categorized as private or public (Holliday, 2016). Private documents consist of letters and privately written histories, as well as correspondence between founders and leaders that are not often officially documents of the institutions. In the case of Snead, the letters have reached public domain status and are in the hands of libraries and local historians, as those who sent and received them are long since deceased. Public documents consist of public relations materials, distributed bulletins, handbooks, year books, and official school scrap books. There were also be other forms of public communications, including as newspaper ads, stories, and other public data, as well as private histories and compilations of historic figures, that may occur external to the institution. As an example, in the case of Snead, is that at one time a regular column in the local newspaper called *Seminary Notes* would report on happenings at the college. In this study I collected the following documents: official publications of the institution such as bulletins, catalogs, and yearbooks as well as private letters, histories, and interviews that were previously taken or published. These items are listed in Appendix A.

The rationale for the use of these data sources is that they are primary source data that is reflective of the time in which the transformation to junior college occurred. These items give detailed accounts of what was both public record and private views and are items that will be housed in a history room of the college, once research is completed, thus recording history for the future.

## **Data Analysis**

Data analysis “is the process of making meaning” (Merriam, 2009, p. 176). The use of making meaning out of the data is interpreting what people have said and written. The researcher is the one who processes this data and makes sense of it by answering the research questions from the study (Merriam, 2009). Analysis was focused on finding reoccurring themes in the data and continued handling of the data to the point that all information pertinent to the study had been found (Merriam, 2009).

To approach the data, I used several phases to analyze and understand the information in light of the research questions. The first step was to characterize the data. This entailed finding what data was applicable to the topic. It was necessary to view the data multiple times and find out what topics it represents. The items were characterized so that the information in them could be understood and eventually coded (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). In this case, the information was read through to see if the data were pertinent to the study. Those items found to be on other topics were not included in the next review of data. Those items that were reflective of the research questions were used to move the data into another phase.

The next step was cutting data into chunks, or segments that make sense. This allowed me to more closely examine the information in smaller segments (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). After the cutting process, there was the ability to code the information. In the coding process, topics were recognized, and from that came labels for the various concepts. Coding was using these topics and “makes it easier to search data, make comparisons and identify patterns worthy of further investigation” (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013, p. 422). The coding process can summarize the texts in two ways: 1) descriptive coding, which is finding codes that focus on what the researcher thinks is going on; and 2) analysis coding, which is the best form of coding

for this research as it proposes such topics as what is happening in the data and what the participants are doing and saying (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). These topics are questions that had relevance to the study as material was be searched for interest in the forming of a junior college from the high school that was previously established.

The third step of analysis consisted of categorizing the data. In this step, I was “seeking the general patterns within those codes” (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013, p. 426). In this process, the data may present different codes, or new ways of discerning the information. A part of this tactic was to view all the data that is possible. Once viewed, the data was only placed in one category that most fits the topic of that data. The next step was where the analysis was turned into themes. “A theme is a unifying or dominant idea in the data” (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013, p. 426). Themes allow the researcher to understand the data and find overarching ideas that contribute to the questions posed.

The last step of analysis is to create a visual item that reflects the data. This can come in several forms, but for this study, the use of a descriptive table was the best way to investigate. The table provided a visual representation of the data in which the information is summarized. The overarching themes would be listed along with the categories that apply to those individual themes. This table allows the data to be easily viewed and summarized and allows the integration of new data to be sorted thematically (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). The use of this form of data analysis, including multiple data sources, and several analytic phases, provided trustworthiness to the overall research.

### **Timeline of the Study**

This study adhered to the following time parameters. Data collection began March of 2020 and ended in June of 2020. Data analysis took place during data collection but the bulk of the analysis occurred June of 2020. Write up began in July of 2020 and ended in September of 2020.

### **Trustworthiness**

There are several methods to help enhance trustworthiness and they include peer review, audit trail, and a dense description of context. Peer review, and the use of different phases of the research being reviewed by others, helped assure that a comprehensive view was given of the research and findings. The writer needs to be cognizant of the peer having undue influence on the findings, but overall this approach can be effective. The researcher should discuss the process, emerging findings, and initial interpretations of the data, as well as allow others who may be experts to review the material (Merriam, 2009). Also, as an historic case study, the use of peers who have written historic dissertations or who knowledgeable of historic methods, would be good judges as to the focus and findings of a writing on this topic.

The use of an audit trail shows the reader an account of the procedures and methods that were used in the study. An example is the researcher using a journaling method where they detail what steps they took to research, mine, sort, and analyze data (Merriam, 2009). The next is dense description of context, which allows information on the context of the writing and the culture of the area of research. This description is provided so that the reader has an understanding of the environment surrounding the phenomena. Although there is a concern that the context may unduly influence the outcome due to inferring conclusions that may not be present, the author can keep this in mind to keep from such an error. (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). These

descriptions give the reader a vicarious experience of the phenomenon through a rich, thick description that provide enough context, that the reader has the necessary information to understand the research (Merriam, 2009). As for the dense description, the topic of the institution cannot be fully understood unless there is a rich description of the culture of the college and how that affected the decisions made therein (Savin-Badin & Major, 2013). The description used in a case study should be a full enough that the reader should be able to experience the event through the eyes of the researchers. There should be a thick and rich description that provides details for the reader (Merriam, 2009). However, it is important to also provide quotations or field notes from the research that will the show the reader that good decisions have been made. It is necessary to not wholly depend on thick, rich description in the place of interpretation. The researcher should not only provide a vicarious experience but also should interpret the data thoroughly (Savin-Badin & Major, 2013). These methods to improve trustworthiness were especially pertinent to the study for Snead State Community College, as I used data that was both internal and external to the college.

### **Ethical Considerations**

Ethical considerations include those that are inherent in researching where one is employed. There may be sensitive data that at the time was not considered inappropriate but by today's standards might be racist, sexist, or culturally insensitive. There is also the consideration of writer bias, when one is employed at an institution that is the primary source of income for the author. Another consideration is that there is the possibility of wanting to see uniqueness of one's own institution while ignoring other institutions that may have those same qualities. Last, being within an institution may blind the writer to the fact that the institution is more alike than

different from the historical events that caused the junior college movement. The use of expert analysis and peer review are designed to mitigate such issues (Merriam, 2009).

### **Positionality Statement**

I began my work at Snead State Community College in 1999 in a staff position where I managed the bookstore; I arrived one year after the college had celebrated its 100<sup>th</sup> birthday. There were artifacts in the college which denoted 1898 and also 1935 as dates, so I began to ask questions about the history. I found that it was a compelling history that was mostly from oral tradition but later found that there was a campus museum. That museum held many documents such as college newspapers, catalogs, yearbooks, newspaper clippings, as well as a printing press and an oil lamp slide projector. I was amazed at the history and influence that this small institution of 1,200 students (at the time I arrived) had on the community, and the awe with which it was spoken about in public settings. Upon starting courses at The University of Alabama, I discussed my college and was encouraged by one of my instructors to learn its history, as it was considered a unique institution. As of that time, I was a full-time faculty member who taught history and also presented about the history of the college to local groups and students. This encouraged me to learn even more about the institution and I chose it to be my dissertation topic. The preconceived notions or bias that I may bring would be presenting the history of an institution where I am employed and possibly finding material which might not please my administration. I am also close to my subject matter and may have some personal feelings as to the importance of the institution. However, one of the assets is that as an insider, I have the opportunity to access documents and artifacts, both on campus and in the community, that an outsider may not easily access.

## **Conclusion**

The questions of the foundations of Snead Junior College, the people involved in creating Snead Junior College, and the reasons for founding Snead Junior College are important questions, not only to the specific institution but also for the general literature of junior college formation. These questions will show the depth and breadth of causes for such formations. This study was based in qualitative methods, and further defined as a historic qualitative study. This method focuses on who and how the phenomenon was researched. Looking through a historic lens allows the reader to more fully understand not only the transition, but also the historic founding of such institutions. Data, including primary sources, letters, publications, and handwritten histories, allow the words and intentions of the actual participants, who are long deceased, to speak to the reader. The analysis of the data and the steps taken to validate it, are an attempt to ascertain the true actions and views of those who were active participants in the founding of Snead Junior College. The author has assured, as much as possible, their neutrality and true reporting of the documentation in providing the reader with the truest account possible.

This study holds interest for those who study the establishment of the two-year college institution in America and for those who research a colleges growth and development. There exist monumental historic facts, which have lain dormant for over eighty-five years, and can now be shown and assembled in a fresh narrative. This research will have an effect on those who attend, study, or work within a two-year college setting. The local community is also the beneficiary of this research, as community colleges often are the intellectual, cultural, and social hubs of the community that they serve (Vaughn, 2006). Those who are served by Snead State Community College make up a wide variety of ages, sexes, races, and ethnicities and include

first-generation college students who are those who were the first in their family to attend college (Vaughn, 2006).

This research shines new light on the formation of institutions that historically helped to shape the lives of millions of students and, through institutions like Snead State, students gained a variety of opportunities. The educational offerings of work skills, general knowledge, foundational courses for transfer to four-year institutions, and terminal degrees all meet educational goals. Further the fulfillment of the American dream of improving one's life through education is another factor that the story of Snead explored. The story of Snead is the story of the average student, the forgotten student, and the excelling student, and how these students can make the difference in their lives and the productivity of the community in which they live. The influence that the early proponents of a junior college had in the early part of the twentieth century continues to this day and will continue on into the future. This story is their story, and it should be one that is examined and told.

## CHAPTER IV:

### FINDINGS

#### **Introduction**

The literature revealed several key themes, all of which apply to the development of Snead as a junior college. These themes include the growth in number of high school graduates (Cohen & Brawer, 2014; Pedersen, 2000; Thelin, 2001), the desire of higher education due the needs of a modern workplace, and cultural advancements that put colleges and universities in the media (Cohen & Brawer, 2014; Pedersen, 2000; Thelin, 2011). There are various underlying theories that describe junior college development such as democratization of education and the idea of an open-door policy that would allow a broad swath of students to attain a degree in higher education (Brint & Karabel, 1989; Cohen & Brawer, 2014; Dougherty, 2001). In addition, there are the influencers who encouraged the formation of the junior college model for a variety of academic or personal reasons. The desire for a local junior college often came from the family. Family concerns were tied not only for a desire of improvement of the student but also were dependent on moral issues. The desire of higher education was there, but the financing to attend a university was often lacking. However, a two-year college that would be near home and continue moral instruction, were important to families (Pederson, 2000; Thelin, 2011).

Throughout the story of the establishment of a two-year college format, there were gaps in the literature where religious and private institutions, such as Snead Junior College, had little or no information or history. As noted by Pederson (2000), two-year institutions paid little attention to retaining documents related to their history and formation. One of the main reasons

for this lack was that they were fighting for survival, and retaining history was a luxury of time they did not possess (Pedersen, 2000). Snead Junior College was both a private and religious institution the documents retained by the college help to fill in the gap in literature. Being religious and private this institutional story is one that helps fill the gap in the literature of the greater story of the formation of the two-year college.

Some of the issues and reasons discussed in the literature were present at the formation of Snead Junior College, but the story of the College encompasses religion, struggles, and the establishment of a new type of educational institution. The story is one of missionary zeal, growth despite adversity, and expansion to the culmination of a two-year institution. The story of Snead Junior College began with the educational need in the Appalachian region of the United States by the Methodist Episcopal Church. This region was seen as a missionary field. Those sent to the region saw themselves as doing work for the Lord and fostering needed education opportunities. This historic foundation of Snead Junior College needs to be presented to show the evolution of the first institution, known as Boaz Seminary, into Snead Junior College. The growth of the seminary and its continuance established fertile ground for institution of higher learning that would be Snead Junior College. The desire for a junior college came to the forefront with presidents who wanted to bring a new form of education that would reflect a new world and its needs.

In this chapter, I describe the views of those who wanted to bring education to the area around Boaz. The founding through missionary zeal was a response to a region that was in need. This area was seen as a mission field and the process of establishment was met with cooperation and help from within the local communities. However, there was still adversity. The problems that arose included the need for adequate facilities and staff as well as responses to fire and

epidemics. Thus, the next portion of the story was one of growth through adversity. This growth was a key element to the foundation of the school that would evolve to be a junior college. The institution expanded through various innovations that would further its mission to students and glorify the church and the church groups that were helping to fund it. During this foundational time there were diverse individuals with great determination who were responding to the needs of a new world. The reasons of missionary zeal, growth despite adversity, and expanding to the culmination of a two-year institution are intermingled and dependent on each other. The story of the first junior college in the north Alabama region is both simple and complex. In its simplicity it is the story of educational missionaries who came to a place where there was educational need and provided instruction. This instruction was in both traditional subject matter as well as in moral attributes. The history of Boaz and Snead seminary in its early years however, was one of complexity. This complexity was a response to local conditions that were complicated by panics, diseases, undependable funding sources, and the Great Depression. The story of Snead Junior College is one of independent and community effort, along with denominational support from the Methodist Episcopal church and its missionary zeal.

The innovation that brings the junior college to Boaz is the next section of focus. The idea for a junior college formed within thirty years of the 1898 founding of the Seminary, by the Methodist Episcopal Church. The founding also came only thirty-four years after the purported first junior college in Joliet Illinois in 1901 (Brit & Karabel,1989; Read, 1982; Vaughn, 2006). The second president of the institution, Dr. William Fielder, voiced a desire for a junior college. However, it took planning through new presidential leadership to make the vision a reality. Dr. Conway Boatman prepared for the founding of Snead Junior College through campaigning and presenting reasons for the junior college. He succeeded through involvement in a variety of

sectors to acquire funding and prepare for the junior college. A physically constructed building is dependent on a good foundation, and Snead Junior College had its foundation laid by Dr. Boatman. This foundation included the assistance of fundraising through the Methodist Episcopal Church, private donors, and the community and required detailed planning at all levels.

Next is a discussion of how the establishment of the new junior college secured the future of higher education in Boaz. With the realization of Snead Junior College, there was a well-planned establishment of the new institution and the preparations of facilities, courses, and staff that helped to realize the junior college. This preparation was important to prove that this institution would be of benefit to the students and the region. The explaining of the new form of education was not only public relations for acceptance of a new idea, but it was also answering the question of the regional need. The plans for the college reflected a response to the modern world where new skills were needed, and the college had plans to respond to those needs. Once the argument of why a two-year college was necessary was answered, then the opening of the junior college could occur.

In the closing the section of this chapter, I describe how the college moved past the struggle of formation to the expansion of the campus and its curriculum. The foundation had been laid, and thus the building of the institution began. There were still challenges to overcome after the College was founded, but the College moved from a stage of implementation to a stage of stability and growth.

## **Education Comes to Boaz**

### **Founding Through Missionary Zeal**

An article from *The Christian Advocate* from July of 1921 entitled “Will You Give Us Some Book Larnin” set the stage for the need of education in the area where Snead Junior College was formed. The focus on the entire region of the South was evident when the statement was made that the people in this region had one third of the population of the United States but only one fourth of the wealth. The status of education was even more dire. According to statistics from 1915, 29.9% of Alabama’s population were illiterate, and the number of school days was only 116 per year. Of that time an average student would only attend 69.7 days a year. Trained teachers were hard to find, and of those of who were in evidence, 36% had a temporary or third grade certificates to teach. The average yearly salary for such a teacher was only \$297. The article continued with examples of students who came to the Snead Seminary and begged to work, in place of paying tuition, for their education. The desire for an education was so great that each year two hundred to three hundred students were turned away. This article described the need for education and the mission field at the time, and it indicates that the Methodist Episcopal Church saw such a need in the South (Seaton, 1921).

The Alabama Conference of the Methodist Episcopal church had an interest in establishing a “Conference School” in its north Alabama region. A meeting held in December of 1898 in Anniston appointed a committee to choose a location and a slate of trustees for the endeavor. The location chosen was that of Boaz, and one of the trustees chosen played an integral part in the institution. This man was Mr. J. H. Snead (Harpst, 1955). The community formed a “committee of location” who selected a site where a current academy was situated. The current academy structure was prepared for classes, but a new building had to be built within

the next year (Opening, 1899). The school was opened to 70 students on July 17, 1899 (Harpst, 1955), and the trustees stated that there would be about 100 students in attendance for the term (Opening, 1899). The couple who were tasked with running the school were the Rev. E. B. L. Elder and his wife Anna D. Elder.

The missionary zeal of the Methodist Episcopal Church was answered; the married couple named the Elders were sent by the denomination to Alabama in 1895 and came to Boaz where they founded Boaz Seminary. Anna Amelia Davis (Elder) was born in Ohio in 1853. She was educated and attended Northwestern University where she graduated in 1877. While in college, she met an artist, poet, and minister named Eleazer Ball Lee Elder, who she later married. E.B.L. Elder was born in Kinmundy, Illinois, and also graduated in 1877 from Northwestern. He furthered his education at Northwestern with a master's degree in 1882, and he later earned a divinity degree from Kansas Wesleyan University. From the outset of their marriage in 1880, they served the Methodist Episcopal Church in Wisconsin, Montana, and Kansas in teaching and preaching (Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders, pp 23-26, n.d.). In 1895, the Elders were transferred from Kansas to the Alabama conference in Decatur. The letter sending him to this location, from a Mr. Vincent, was less than optimistic. Mr. Vincent stated that those in the Alabama district should be sending him some funds, but he was not sure and did not recall what had been promised in the way of funding. Vincent's mission statement was "The field which you are to occupy is a difficult one; the pay which you are to receive will be very small, but I have no doubt that if you go to the work in the right spirit you will be able to build up the church and serve the Master" (Vincent, 1895). By 1898, Rev. Elder was appointed to the Methodist Episcopal Church in Boaz (Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders, pp 23-26, n.d.).

Once the Elders were in Boaz, they began to work to establish an institution that would meet the needs of the community both by responding to the need for education and being the instructor at Boaz Seminary (Appendix B). The parents of the Boaz community asked the Elders to take over the educational functions in the town, and in the fall of 1899, the Alabama Conference of the Methodist Episcopal chartered the school. It was called Boaz Academy (but when operation began would be called Boaz Seminary), and Rev. and Mrs. Elder were chosen as principal and assistant principal, respectively. Rev. Elder taught the high school grades; Anna Elder taught the intermediate grades; and their daughter Myra taught the elementary grades. They made a combined salary of \$300 in the 1899-1900 school year. Rev. Elder also was minister of the Saint Paul's Methodist Episcopal Church across the street from the school, and Anna Elder was active in starting chapters of the Women's Christian Temperance Union throughout north Alabama (Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders, pp 23-26, n.d.).

The school began but was immediately troubled due to the lack of funds which required more action by Anna Elder. The need for funding was brought to the attention at the regional conference. Bishop Mallalieu, while speaking before the local conference, pointed at Elder in the audience and said, "Sister Elder, I command you with authority to go North and present this school to the people and to raise ten thousand dollars to establish a school for this Conference" (Harpst, 1955, p. 4). She struggled with going to ask for money, but after the cost of transportation was provided, she traveled to the Methodist Episcopal General Conference that was being held in May of 1900 in Chicago (Harpst, February 25, 1955).

To maintain Boaz Seminary, Elder began to travel and solicit funding at first for the seminary but also for the increased need for female housing. Elder was pivotal in the financing of the new school endeavor and in Chicago at the annual conference in 1900; she was a

Woman's Home Missionary Society representative. In the role of a representative she was able to speak to the educational needs the seminary had. She later attended the missionary society's conference in New York in October of 1900 where she spoke and outlined the need for a school in Boaz. Elder continued her travels to Indiana, Wisconsin, Missouri, and Michigan where she elicited \$10,000 in total pledges for a new school building. In 1904, she went to Cincinnati, Ohio, where she met with the executive Board of the Women's Home Missionary Society. The board gave Elder money to build an industrial home for the girls at the seminary, and that home was opened in 1906 (Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders, pp 23-26, n.d.). With the increase in numbers of female students, it was decided, at the 1902 annual meeting of the Woman's Home Missionary Society held in Kansas City to build a home for girls at the Boaz school. Half of the cost of \$8,000 would have been raised by the school before the Society would give the other half. After fundraising, the school had \$5,000 and went ahead with construction. The land it would occupy was across the street from the current Boaz Seminary building and was given by John. H. Snead. The girl's home was completed by 1905 and housed girls who needed housing while attending Snead Seminary. In 1904, the Reverend W. S. Bovard attended the graduation at the Seminary and also preached in a meeting afterward. He published an article in the *Methodist Advocate Journal* where he extolled the virtue of the institution and its mission. He stated that, "the finest product of Sand Mountain is the large number of splendid boys and girls, in robust health, hungering and thirsting for knowledge. Two hundred and fifty of them have been enrolled in the past year in Boaz Seminary" (*The Boaz Enterprise*, p. 1, 1904). He continued to heap praise upon the Elders, Mr. Snead, and Mr. McCleskey as well as the citizens of Boaz. As he laid the cornerstone for the Girls Home, donations were requested by the Seminary leaders and in a matter of minutes over one thousand dollars was raised (*The Boaz*

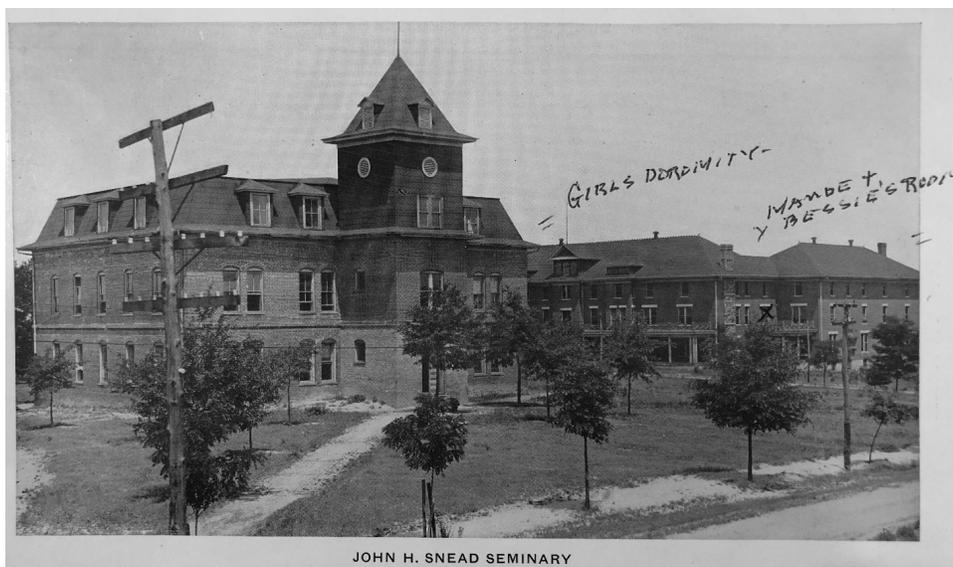
*Enterprise, 1904*). A newspaper article such as this being published in a national Methodist publication drew attention to the general conditions of missionary education and to the specific opportunities in Boaz. The praise of the leadership and the fundraising of the community provided ample consideration of those inclined to donate to the cause of education in the regions. (The Boaz Enterprise, 1904).

### **Growing Through Adversity**

The institution had been the Boaz Seminary at its formation and as the school began to expand, a local businessman, John H. Snead, became a such a pivotal part of the Seminary that the school was named after him. Snead was a charter member of the Board of Trustees of the Boaz Seminary and he found a place for the incoming Elders to live when they moved to Boaz. He owned property in Boaz and sold 2.3 acres of land to the Methodist Episcopal Alabama Conference, for the amount of \$250, to establish the Boaz school. By 1903 the original building had a second story added, along with a new chapel and recitation rooms. The additions to the building were financed by a mortgage that was held by Snead and another local businessman. By 1904, Snead donated three acres of woods to the school, and in 1905, he paid of the debts of the school. Due to his reliving the debt of Boaz Seminary, its name was changed to John H. Snead Seminary (see Appendix B).



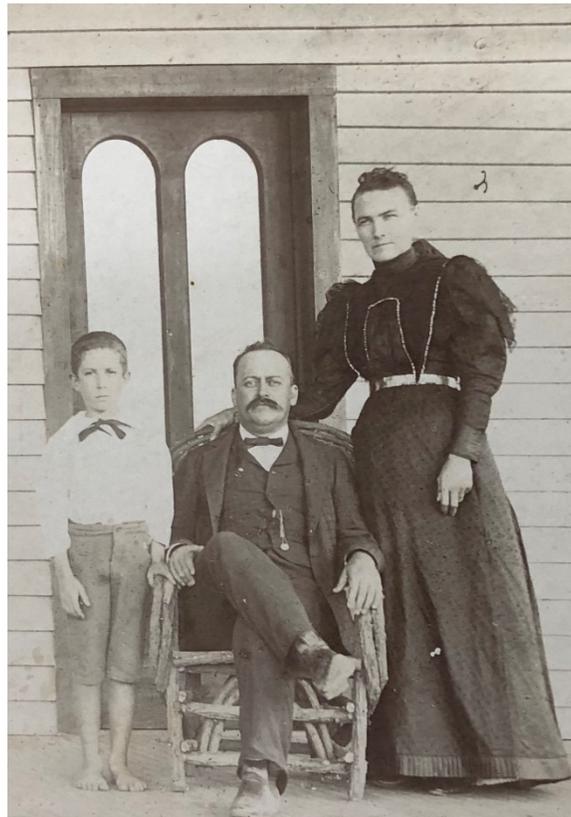
*Figure 8.* Original structure of John H. Snead Seminary (Snead Archives)



*Figure 9.* Snead seminary campus (Boaz Legacy Foundation)

The Seminary expanded more in 1913 when Mr. Snead sold 120 acres of land to Anna Elder, which is often referred to as Snead Farm, and was used to for the benefit of the girl's home to grow food to feed its residents. By 1916, Mr. Snead was president of the Board of Trustees, and he and President William Fielder finished paying off the debt from the building of the boy's home (dormitory). The first endowment at Snead Seminary was begun by Mr. Snead in 1920

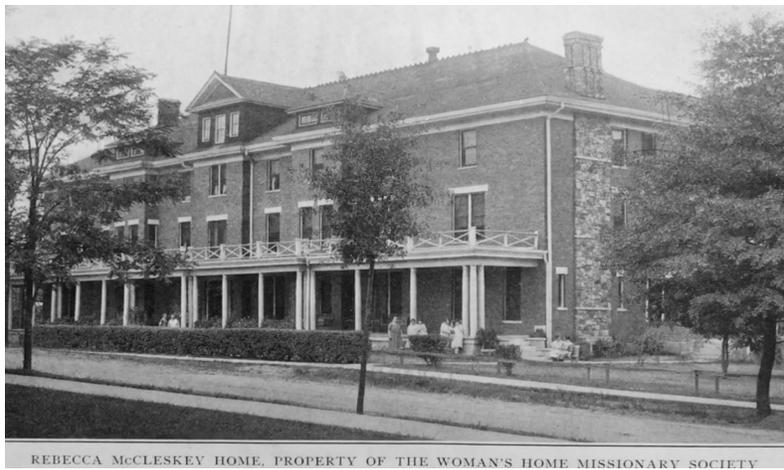
when he and his wife donated \$15,000 to the institution (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 27-28, n.d.). Mr. Snead came to Boaz from Snead, Alabama, and established a business that sold general merchandise. He married Miss Josie McCleskey of the family that the girl's home was named for (*The History of Boaz Alabama*, p 13). Mr. Snead's leadership of the Seminary was unwavering until his death in 1921 (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 27-28, n.d.).



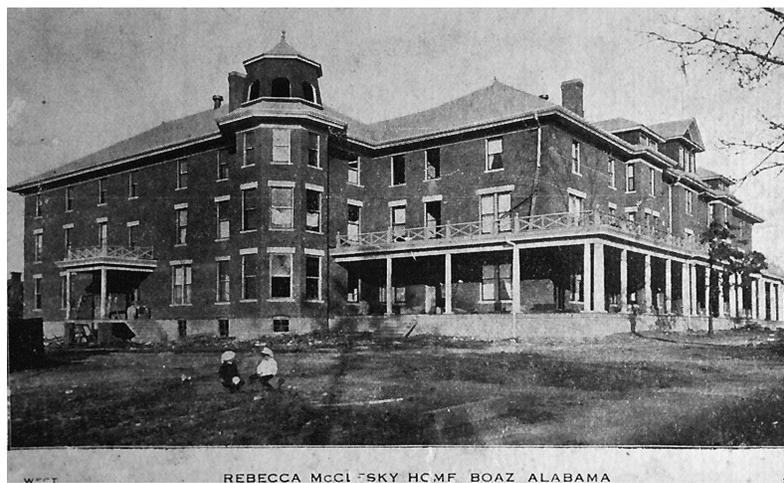
*Figure 10.* Mr. and Mrs. McCleskey and son Lonnie (Boaz Legacy Foundation)

Rebecca McCleskey Home had been supported by various Methodist Episcopal women's missionary groups as safe and moral housing for female students of the Seminary and it would need rebuilding when a fire destroyed it only two years after completion. Elder immediately began to ask for contributions to rebuild. One woman from Baltimore, Maryland, asked every member of the Methodist Episcopal women's auxiliary societies to donate fifteen cents and

every member of the Queen Esther Women’s Circle to donate ten cents. The numbers of donations soon topped \$4,000 and \$5,000 respectively. Even though the Panic of 1907 halted work and caused some donations to not materialize, the rebuilt structure was livable by the fall of 1907. The celebration for the laying of the cornerstone included a speaker from Birmingham, a baseball game, sack races, pig races, and a concert by sacred harp singers. The building was named the Rebecca McCleskey Home for Girls, in honor of one of the settlers in Boaz who was also a strong Methodist (Harpst, February 25, 1955).



*Figure 11.* Rebecca McCleskey Home for Girls (Boaz Legacy Foundation and Snead Archives)



*Figure 12.* Rebecca McCleskey Home for Girls (Boaz Legacy Foundation and Snead Archives)



*Figure 13.* Interior of McCleskey Home for Girls (Boaz Legacy Foundation)



*Figure 14.* McCleskey Dining Hall (Snead Archives)



*Figure 15.* Students in girl's home (Snead Archives)



*Figure 16.* Students in girl's home (Boaz Legacy Foundation)

The next year after the second McCleskey home was built by Elder in 1907, she traveled to solicit support for her mission in Boaz but, would find those who wanted to actually be a part of the institution. When Elder attended the Women's Conference she discussed how work that the Queen Esther Society of Methodist women had been beneficial to the Seminary. She drew a

comparison to the goals of the society and its focus of one girl working to help another girl to that of her work at Snead. One of the women present was Miss Harriet Fink, who felt a call to come to Boaz and work in the educational system. Her first day of class she met over ninety students that were from first through fourth grade. This meeting affected her greatly. Due to the extreme need for education in the region, she went back to her home in Iowa to raise funds to such an end. The desire of Fink and Elder was to have a facility for students and, more importantly, a place where they could train teachers to work in primary schools. Fink encouraged her sister to join her, and along with three other instructors, they conducted a training school for primary (elementary) teachers (Harpst, October 15, 1955).

Much of the coeducational aspect of education in the John. H. Snead Seminary was run by Elder with support of the Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church and provided female students with traditional forms of female education. The society praised Elder and the businessman John. H. Snead for their work in building the Rebecca McCleskey Industrial Home, which was named after a mother of Alabamian Methodism. The focus on this home was that of domestic training, and it had sixty-five girls from thirteen counties in the state of Alabama and from four other states. The curriculum included the domestic sciences, education, and music in both voice and instruments such as the piano, guitar, and mandolin. The students who graduated included those who were teachers, missionaries, and in settlement work. By 1932 the offerings of the industrial home were transferred to Snead Seminary (Mercer, 1940).

The rebuilding of Rebecca McCleskey Home provided Elder an opportunity to replace the structure with a more modern and well-planned dormitory, including a hospital floor, that would be needed in only a couple of years. During the 1909-1910 term, she cared for eighty-five

students who were on campus and stricken with smallpox (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 23-26, n.d.). In the plans for McCleskey, among the 107 rooms, there were hospital rooms on the third floor. Little did anyone know these would be important in a few years. Just after Christmas of 1909, a student claimed to not feel well and was wrongly diagnosed with chicken pox. In reality, as the disease spread, it was found that smallpox had broken out on the campus. The students were instructed to go to the Administration building and get their books and belongings and return to be quarantined.

During quarantine, instruction continued and the 85 cases were held on campus until all had recovered (Harpst, 1955). The city was in fear of the spread of the disease and many citizens were inoculated (*Smallpox*, 1910). The city government also passed Ordinance 29, which stated that anyone one that has been at John H, Snead Seminary in the past ten days or been in contact with anyone who was infected were not to be on the business streets of Boaz (*Ordinance No 29*, 1910). During the epidemic, Elder was interviewed by phone and “stated that there was no manifestation of fear or panic in the Home” (*Mrs. A.D. Elder Tells of Smallpox*, 1910). She assured the editor that there was a quarantine within a quarantine, as the third-floor hospital section was being used. Communication was by phone, no mail was leaving the Home, and doctors were clothed in robes and did not touch the patients for whom they were caring. Elder assured the people of Boaz that the situation was under control and would not be severe (*Mrs. A.D. Elder Tells of Smallpox*, 1910). By February 17, Elder stated that there had been no new cases of small pox in four days and that the students not inflicted had been inoculated. She felt that school could open in the next two weeks (*Home is Safe*, 1910). With only thirteen students still sick Elder had those students moved to another building. Everything in the home and every person was fumigated and school had been reconvened successfully for a week (*Mrs. Elder will*

*have fumigation*, 1910). Once the Home was thoroughly fumigated, to the cost of \$75 (*Smallpox*, 1910), the students had a picnic to celebrate their recovery (Harpst, 1955; *Mrs. Elder will have fumigation*, 1910).

For Elder there was little time to rest as she continued to seek funding to support the girl's home and maintain the mission for women. After the pandemic of small pox subsided, she traveled more than 3,000 miles in seventy-six days and spoke seventy-seven times to solicit funds for the school. An editorial in a church magazine from 1916 stated,

Mrs. A. D. Elder has been toiling away at her heavy task for twenty years. At the very beginning she had a vision of the future. She made large plans. She purchased more than 100 acres of ground. It is now a well cultivated and productive farm from which all the supplies come for the table at the Rebecca McCleskey Home for Girls...(*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 23-26, n.d.)

Elder resigned in 1923 but was still associated with the school and lived to see the change to a junior college. The actions of Elder were not those of the average woman born in the Victorian era. Not only was she college educated and an educational missionary but she was a trailblazer in her activity. Women of her era did not travel, solicit funds, build and manage structures, or have an active voice in society. Elder was a unique and influential woman who made possible the success of Snead Seminary and the future Snead Junior College.

John H. Snead Seminary continued to grow and needed a dedicated president who could lead the institution both in numbers and in reorganization. In 1906 the first chosen president was the Rev. John L. Brasher.

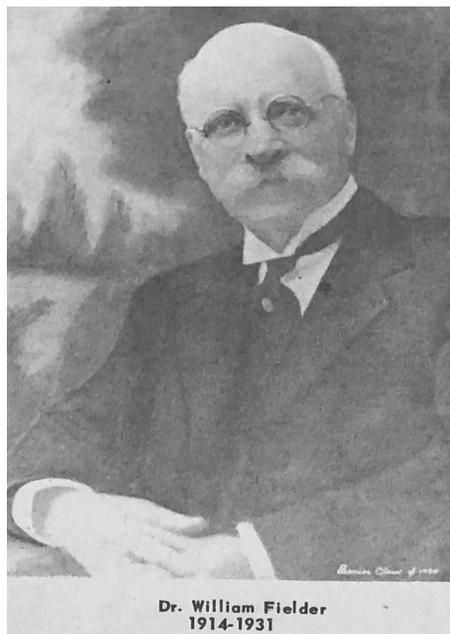


*Figure 17.* President Brasher (Boaz Legacy Foundation)

His salary for the first year was \$400 plus tuition for his children. During his tenure both the girl's and then the boy's dormitories burned (Harpst, 1955). The boy's dorm caught fire between midnight and one in the morning. Pistols and yelling alerted the surrounding area to the fire. The building was two- and one-half stories tall and held 36 rooms but was not occupied at the time. The blaze completely destroyed the building which was valued at \$3,000 and only partly insured. The cause was arson as kindling soaked with oil was found at the point of origin (*Boys Dormitory is Destroyed*, 1908). While the girl's dorm was rebuilt, with donated funds from women's missionary organizations, the boy's dorm was not immediately addressed. The tenure of Rev. Brasher was stable and showed growth in both academic quality and increased numbers of students. During Brasher's tenure, the work in the seminary was organized by grades, and the high school was accredited. The school continued to increase in numbers of students. The largest graduating class of the school's history was in 1911 when sixteen students graduated. Those graduates included two who were missionaries to India, several who became teachers, three who became ministers, and one was a dentist (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 1-2, n.d.).

Growth at the Seminary continued under the leadership of Rev. Brasher and by 1908, it was in need of a dean to help guide the education and work with students. Luther F. Corley was

hired for the position of dean as the school now had more than 400 students and included 15 teachers and workers. The goal presented to Corley was “to advance the students intellectually, morally, and spiritually” (Harpst, p 4, 1955). Corley was from Mississippi and attended the Meridian Male College, the University of Mississippi, and earned a master’s degree at the University of Alabama. He was a faculty member, who taught Latin, physics, and English, as well as the principle and dean of Snead Seminary until 1935 (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 31-32, n.d.). Julius Brasher, a student of the seminary, held fond memories of Corley and took three sections of Latin from him. Corley was said to have a melodious voice and would regale students with stories of Greek mythology (Brasher, 2010). Corley served as interim president from 1911, when the Rev. Brasher resigned, until 1914, when the new president, Dr. Fielder, was chosen as president. When the school was adding a junior college, Corley resigned and became principle of the public high school in Boaz (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 31-32, n.d.).



*Figure 18.* President Fielder (Boaz Legacy Foundation)



*Figure 19.* President Fielder and his Model T (Snead Archives)

### **Expanding Through Innovation**

With the position of president available John H. Snead Seminary, the institution chose a man with a doctorate, from overseas, and who had been a university president, to lead and expand the Seminary, Dr. William Fielder. Fielder became one of the most influential leaders of in the pre-college years. He was born in Sussex, England and arrived in the United States in 1876. In his early career he was an elder, led a prohibition group, and was the head of two universities in Texas, one of which he founded. He came from Texas in August of 1914 and became the second president of John H. Snead Seminary (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 3-5, n.d.). Julius Logan Brasher, son of the local Methodist minister, remembered Fielder as having a deep voice with an English accent and thick mustache. According to Brasher, Fielder could “become righteously indignant, and he ran a tight ship” (Brasher, 2010, p. 113). Brasher further stated that the Seminary was strict and conservative, which would be in keeping with religious institutions of the time (Brasher, 2010). When Fielder arrived on campus there were inadequate science facilities, no musical equipment, except for a borrowed piano, and no

boy's dorm. He set about to remedy all of these issues by very quickly building a boy's dorm, Eliza Pollock-Lipe Home, and also added a five-acre athletic field called Morton Park.



*Figure 20.* Eliza Pollock-Lipe Home for Boys (Snead Archives)

He built the Administration Building which held a library, science rooms, classrooms, offices, and a chapel which was named after Fielder. He further added a gymnasium, which was fully electric, and on the academic side of the school he oversaw the establishment of a permanent endowment for the institution. Most importantly, Fielder planned for the future by making the recommendation that the Seminary should establish a junior college (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 3-5, n.d.).

The growth through the early years of Fielder's leadership as president was not without challenges such as weather, an increase in student numbers that strained the current campus and the entrance of America into the Great War (World War I). The winter of 1918 was extremely cold and there were shortages of coal for heating, but there was a good supply of coal at the Seminary and the *Seminary Notes* in The Boaz Ledger encouraged parents to still send their students to class. It was further noted that there were 82 new students in the second term that began in January of 1918. The total enrolled for the year rose to 577 students. The school also

continued its hospital mission to students, in that there were a few cases of the measles that were being tended to by Mrs. Elder. However, in general, the health of the students was considered good (Seminary Notes, 1918). By the fall of 1918, there was an expectation that enrollment would increase again and that both the boy's and girl's homes would be full. The school had reinvested \$2,000 for the Seminary building (classroom building) and the Primary building (teacher training building) and the grounds had been put in good shape. One of the new instructors, Professor Emmett S. Walden of Randolph-Macon Academy, would be in charge of the seventh grade, direct the athletic program, and organize a Boy Scout troop that would be giving military drills (*Seminary Notes*, 1918 #40) which was a reflection of the war effort that was continuing in Europe. By the fall of 1919 the enrollment reached 545, but some prospective students were turned away. If all students who applied had been accepted the enrollment of that year may have been reached 620. There were classes that were divided due to size and the athletic program was expanding, the athletic field was being readied, and young men were being solicited to play various sports (*Seminary Notes*, 1919 #46).

With the turning away of students in the fall of 1919, there was an obvious need to expand the physical plant of the Seminary as the main school building was too small and with more students would come more tuition and more ability to reach the educational goals first planted by the Elders. The two-story structure of the main educational building was no longer large enough to meet the needs of the institution. The Methodist Episcopal Church Board of Home Missions provided the funding for a new building and the best location was one that was already taken by the current structure. The land on which the Administration Building stood had ample space for a larger structure so the decision was made to continue operations in the old structure while building on either side of it. To each side of the standing building were built

classrooms to the left and an auditorium to the right. Once classes were transferred to the new buildings the old Administration Building was demolished and a new structure was built in its place that connected the two new buildings (Millican, 1948) forming an elongated “U” structure with the bottom of the “U” as the connecting portion. On November 9, 1920, the cornerstone was laid for the new Administration Building which was currently under construction but had no roof (*Corner-Stone Laying*, 1920). The event of the laying of the corner stone was not in the normal column on the Seminary and its happenings but was printed as a news article in and of itself. The building “promises to be one of the handsomest school buildings in North Alabama” (*Corner-Stone Laying*, 1920, p. 1). The faculty and students, led by the band, marched through the downtown business district to meet “a large throng assembled in the commodious auditorium of the new building” (*Corner-Stone Laying*, 1920, p. 1). The service began with the singing of *Come Thou Almighty King* and with a prayer by the minister of the local Baptist church. Fielder then introduced the architect, Mr. Harris of Philadelphia, who spoke on the need to have a plan in life as one has plans for a building. Afterward the Methodist Episcopal Bishop, Ernest Richardson of Atlanta, spoke on the topic of training the mind, the body, and the soul. Fielder told of the donations for the \$125,000 building and Corley listed items that would be placed in the cornerstone for posterity (*Corner-Stone Laying*, 1920).

The new Administration Building would be fully completed by April of 1921 and would be a testament to the work of Fielder. The official opening of the auditorium was held and again, Bishop Richardson traveled from Atlanta to address the thirty-two graduates for 1921. Special music was performed and that afternoon another meeting was held where there was a standing room only crowd. Multiple speeches were given, and Corley announced that the trustees had

voted to name the new auditorium after Fielder. It would henceforth be called Fielder Auditorium.



*Figure 21.* Rear of administration building with new construction (Boaz Legacy Foundation)



*Figure 22.* Rear of Fielder Auditorium with old administration building in the center (Boaz Legacy Foundation)



*Figure 23.* Fielder Auditorium with old administration building on the left (Boaz Legacy Foundation)



*Figure 24.* Completed Snead administration building (Boaz Legacy Foundation)



Figure 25. Interior of Fielder Auditorium 1923 (Snead Archives)

That evening Bishop Richardson preached to a full house and the day of activities was complete (*Opening of the New Seminary Auditorium, 1921*). By November of 1921, the front page of *The Boaz Leader* published the peace proclamation by President Warren G. Harding as to not only the end of the what will be called World War I, but also the renewed relationship between the United States and the Imperial German government. (*Peace! A Proclamation by Warren G. Harding, 1921*). What is known today as World War I had an effect on all parts of society in America, after the military entrance of the United States into the war in 1917. In light of the war, the continued growth of the Seminary and its ability to raise funding and build are even more impressive. With growth of the Seminary and the need to finish construction a plea was made by Fielder in March of 1922 to the people of Boaz. The populace was asked to raise funds to complete the last phase of the Administration Building and other needs for the Teaching Building. Eleven hundred and twenty-seven dollars was raised to complete the tasks at hand. An article stated, “When this is finished it will be one of the most magnificent school buildings in the United States, and it will be an object to be looked upon with the greatest of pride by every

citizen of the town of Boaz. This property will be estimated at a quarter million dollars when completed” (*Boaz People Respond*, 1922).

Boaz Seminary marked the mid-1920s with the largest graduation class in its history as well as success in athletic competition and the establishment of a mascot which continues to the present day (the parson). The graduation ceremonies of 1923 saw 87 graduates, which constituted the largest graduation class to date the seminary (*Largest Graduating Class*, 1923), as well as positive results in the track team, an oratory contest, and end of the year musical presentation (*Largest Graduating Class in history of Seminary*, 1923). Along with the rest of the nation athletics was on the mind of the Seminary and the name of the mascot came into common use as Snead won the high school basketball championship in 1926. An example of the excitement from the community is shown from a quote as to the winning of a basketball championship where the “Praying Parsons last week covered themselves with glory and brought a fine trophy to Snead” (*Snead Wins State Championship*, 1926).



*Figure 26.* Men’s basketball state champions, 1926 (Boaz Legacy Foundation)



*Figure 27. Snead gymnasium (Boaz Legacy Foundation)*



*Figure 28. Women's basketball 1920s (Boaz Legacy Foundation)*

The celebration of success continued with 72 graduates of the Seminary in the spring of 1926 (*Commencement Just Closed*, 1926). By 1927, athletic interest was again running high. After the

basketball championship, there was a student petition for a football team. The support that the students needed came from Corley. He had attended a game at The University of Alabama in the mid-1920s and considered the teamwork that he saw on the field to be applicable in the Seminary setting. He thought it would be a good thing to introduce football at Snead and was on the side of the students who wanted a team. Although the new team lost more games than they won that season, the football tradition started at Snead and would not end until World War II (*A Boaz First*, 1955).



*Figure 29.* Snead football team 1920s (Boaz Legacy Foundation)



*Figure 30.* Snead football team 1930s (Boaz Legacy Foundation)

By 1928 the growth of the seminary in both numbers and sports included the idea of a junior college. The junior college idea was being discussed with a recognition that the church already had a history of higher education in Alabama. In the *Boaz Leader*, dated July 1928, in a column entitled Seminary Notes there is a discussion of Fielder's recent trip where the topic of a junior college was discussed. Fielder had returned from "his annual trip through the North" (*Seminary Notes*, 1928) which took him through eleven states that were spread from Kansas to Pennsylvania. He attended the Methodist General Conference and represented the Southern schools when he spoke at one of the larger meetings. He discussed the idea of a junior college at Snead both at the meeting in Chicago as well as in Kansas City. He stated that he felt over time this idea would be given consideration (*Seminary Notes*, 1928). It can be assumed that Fielder was aware of other institutions established by the church as the establishment of Episcopal Methodist colleges was not new to northeastern Alabama. In 1830, LaGrange College had been founded in Colbert county and was the second college that was founded in the South by this denomination. It was moved to Florence, Alabama in 1855 and later became The University of North Alabama. Other institutions founded in Alabama included the current "Athens State

University, Auburn University, and Snead Junior College” (Kinghorn, 1999, p. 179). From this list there was evidence of an interest in the founding of higher education in Alabama by the Methodist Episcopal church and one that predates the founding of the junior college concept. This new form of two-year collegiate education becomes evident in the formation of Snead Junior College.

John H. Snead Seminary was by the 1930s an integral part of the community as the local newspaper not only carried the *Seminary Notes* column on a regular basis but reported on the retirement of Fielder who stated that the question of a junior college had been answered. within the community the influence of the Seminary was shown in the front page of the Boaz Leader from October 29, 1931. Of the articles on the page one of this publication was one article on the meeting of the Alabama Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church in Boaz and five articles were about various parts of Snead Seminary. There was a list of pupils on the Honor Roll, and a short reporting of the Snead Seminary Praying Parsons most recent football win. There was also an announcement of the coming editions of the Snead Chimes, which was the college newspaper, and of its editors and reporters. Two other articles had to do with the presidency of Snead (The Boaz Leader, 1931).



*Figure 31.* Snead Seminary graduation class of 1930 (Snead Archives)

After the graduation exercises of 1931, Fielder retired due to ill health. He had tried to retire for two years but was persuaded to continue until a new president was found (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp. 3-5, n.d.). In his final report to the Board of Education, Fielder discussed the Seminary and what had been accomplished and ended with a look to the future: “I do not need to introduce today the question of a Junior College, for that question has already been decided” (*Dr. Fielder’s Final Report Submitted*, 1931, p. 6). He continued that there is work to do by his successor and that many will have to work to make a junior college at Snead a reality. After his retirement, at the age of 78, he was president emeritus of Snead Academy and of Snead Junior college until his death in October of 1936. In his retirement years, he not only wrote 115 newspaper articles, but he still supported the move to a junior college by encouraging community support and financial donations for that goal (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp. 3-5, n.d.).

## **Innovation Brings the Junior College**

### **Planning Through New Leadership**

With the retirement of Fielder, a new president was chosen who had ties to the Seminary and the education and experience to establish Snead Junior College. The third president of John H. Snead Seminary was Dr. Conway Boatman. Boatman was from Mississippi but graduated from Snead Seminary in 1911. He went to college in Kentucky and then was on the staff of the Theological College at Jubbulpore, India. When he left India he toured Europe, Japan, the Philippine Islands, and Egypt then returned in 1926 to receive his master's degree at Columbia, University. He focused on the education of the junior college level and came to Snead at the age of 41 to with the goal of founding a junior college in mind. In an article from 1931, he stated, "I am committed uncompromisingly to the utter necessity of establishing at an early date a strong Junior College on Sand Mountain" (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp. 7-8, n.d.). The physical plant at the dawn of his administration was valued at \$350,000 and was one of the Methodists World Service Projects most successful ventures. With the support of the local Board of Education and the Women's Missionary Society the school was stable and growing. In the shadow of the Great Depression Snead was offering self-help scholarships (monies donated or work study) and loans to students (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp. 6-10, n.d.). On the morning of October 29, 1931, Boatman was installed as the president of John H. Snead Seminary. There were several ministers and heads of schools who spoke at the ceremony as well as Mayor O. B. Hunter of Boaz. The influence of the Women's Home Missionary Society was evident in the appearance of the secretary of that organization, Mrs. Edwin Setring, who traveled from Syracuse, New York for the instillation. There were educational figures from Gadsden, Baxter Seminary in Tennessee, Birmingham Southern College, and the University of

Chattanooga. The most symbolic event during the ceremony was the presenting of the keys of John. H. Snead Seminary by J.D. Pruett, chairman of the board of trustees, to Boatman. (*Dr. Boatman To Be Installed*, 1931).

The inauguration of Boatman came during the Great Depression and the difficulties of running a tuition-charging institution of higher learning during this historic time were many. The Great Depression was one of the most challenging events in American history and began in October of 1929, scarcely a year after Fielder had discussed the idea of Snead Junior College. However, Snead continued to prosper during this economic collapse. By early September 1931, there were 350 students enrolled with many more expected to come to the Seminary (*John H. Snead Seminary*, 1931). Just a few days earlier the opening of Snead for the fall of 1931 was announced in *The Boaz Leader*. There had been a goal of 400 students to be registered but there was a mention that there would be a nearly normal number of students “despite the financial depression which is endangering school enrolments everywhere” (*Snead Seminary Opening*, 1931, p. 1). The school year would begin with 22 faculty and officers of the school in place and ready for the new school year. During the summer of 1931, there had been renovations to both the boy’s and girl’s homes, as well as new stands for the athletic field. Boatman planned new and updated academic programs, such as a study skills program, that would be under direct supervision of the faculty and that would improve religious instruction (*Snead Seminary Opening*, 1931). The new semester of 1931 was not only interested in the present but also in the future. The increased interest in the establishment of a junior college is evident in the last paragraph of the article on the opening of the Seminary in 1931:

The new administration with the cooperation of the faculty and trustee members will give much time this year to plans for the endowment campaign for the junior college. Much intelligence material will be collected, including surveys, making of lantern slides for lectures, and the set-up of the campaign organization. The program to be projected calls

for the endowment campaign to be put over during the school year 1932-1933 and a fully accredited Junior College to be opened the fall of 1933. (*Snead Seminary Opening*, 1931, p. 1)

The steps to accumulate funding and support the establishment of Snead Junior College continued in the time of the Great Depression. To further the goal of establishing a junior college in Boaz Boatman toured the North and Northeast in October of 1931. He was concerned with maintaining the school currently and was also asking for funds to support the Seminary both at the present time and in the future. Although his work at procuring funds was satisfactory, there was a reflection of the current Depression when he stated, “the financial stringency, acute in all the centers he visited greatly diminished the subscriptions for the school” (*Dr. Boatman Returns*, 1931, p. 1). Obviously, the impact of the Great Depression was being felt in all sectors of the economy. A further reflection on the general economic conditions in the nation were seen by Boatman as he traveled to Chicago, Detroit, Cincinnati, as well as other large cities. He found that the industrial cities were suffering with high unemployment while the Midwest was not as hard hit by the current economic challenges. He stated that those in the South should be thankful as they were in a better position (*Dr. Boatman Returns*, 1931).

The end of Boatman’s first year at Snead Seminary culminated in the graduation exercises of the institution. The Boaz Leader printed a supplement to their regular edition that included a program to the exercises for graduation in Fielder Auditorium in the spring of 1932. The event included addresses, diplomas, a pantomime, class prophecy and will and a short play on the theme of flowers. It ended with a valedictory address and the class song. Adjacent to the program was another article that stated the impact of the world on Snead and its focus were the facts and successes of Prohibition which had been supported by the Elders and Fielder. (*Prohibition Facts*, 1932) One idea that could be entertained is that this small corner of North

Alabama was sheltered from the world, but the impact of the Great Depression and Prohibition says otherwise. Further, the travel of the administration and faculty give the idea that these people and this institution were indeed a part of the world and not secluded in their views or totally based on the influences within the local region

When he arrived in 1931, Boatman was tasked with the establishment of an accredited junior college at Snead but with increasing Depression issues and requirements for accreditation the two-year college had not been created. Boatman had wanted to start the new junior college in the fall of 1933, but due to the worsening Depression and requirements from the accrediting agency, the Sothern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (what is today the Sothern Association of Colleges and Schools or SACS), the college was unable to begin. SACS required a minimum endowment of \$100,000 and an increase of \$25,000 of equipment for the college to become accredited. This required a campaign for funds to reach these accreditation standards. Committees were formed throughout the state and with various alumni groups to meet the needed funding (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp. 6-10, n.d.). The issue of junior college establishment was noted in a December 7, 1934 faculty meeting. Boatman discussed the issue of a junior college and there were no questions as to the desire to establish one. Ethyl Harpst supported the move as did J. D. Pruett, but Pruett felt that Boatman could not establish such an institution. A Dr. Eischer, after hearing the discussion felt that he Board of Trustees should support Boatman and his work toward a junior college for Snead (Faculty Meetings 1934-1935).

The relationship with the community had been important from the founding of Boaz Seminary to the announcement of preparation for a junior college, and Boatman had to respond to the concerns within the community about the continuance of the Seminary. By early 1935

questions in the community were beginning to arise on the continuance of the Seminary portion of the school after Snead Junior College was established. An editorial column, written by Boatman, stated that the new junior college would actually help the Seminary mission for several reasons. For one, there would be investment in equipment, an improved library, and new industrial arts facilities. Due to the establishment of a junior college it was probable that the Carnegie Foundation would build a library on the campus. Next, the junior college would bring in a stronger faculty who would also teach in the senior high school. The most important of the reasons that the college would benefit the high school students was in the increase in the flow of monies that the new college students would bring (Snead College and Senior High School, 1935). Students of the junior college would pay tuition and the monies would help the whole educational establishment. Also, with the additional operation of a bus that brought in students from Guntersville and Albertville as well as a second line that would serve Attalla and Gadsden, more students would be attracted to Snead. Bus services would increase the number of students and thus an increase of amount of tuition dollars. This increase in funding would then lead to a drop in high school tuition from \$30 a year to \$20 a year. The conclusion of the editorial letter focused on the character building and Christian education that citizens of Boaz should want for their children (*Snead College and Senior High School*, 1935).



*Figure 32.* The old Snead bus was later used for church activities (Boaz Legacy Foundation)

### **Preparation Through Campaigning**

The funding of the new Snead Junior College would not depend on monies from the Methodist Episcopal Church entirely but also on the community and on Seminary alumni support as well. The campaign for endowments to support the starting of a junior college at Snead were announced at homecoming on February 22, 1935. The alumni association was one of the ways in which the Seminary hoped to establish funding for the foundation of a junior college. After a dinner, program, and ballgame, “there will be interesting plans made during the evening for the launching of the Junior College campaign” (*Alumni of Snead Holds Home-Coming*, 1935, p. 1). By February 28, the campaign was publicized and a newspaper article recounted the meeting of the alumni association of Snead Seminary. The over 100 alumni present were “enthusiastic and the alumni pledged their support” (*Drive is Started for Snead*, 1935, p. 1) for the formation of a junior college. There was a statewide campaign led by W.R. Rush of Birmingham who stated that every alumnus and student would have a hand in the formation of a junior college at Snead

Seminary and it was further stated that alumni came from all areas of the state (*Drive is Started for Snead*, 1935).

Snead Junior College could not be just an idea that had started in 1928 but had to include reasons that were supported by data such as a needs survey and a focus on quality via accreditation. The plan for the campaign was presented to the alumni by the administration at Snead Seminary, and was further given credence “after a survey by educational experts from the University of Chicago had shown a new need for education in North Alabama, were outlined” (*Drive is Started for Snead*, 1935, p. 1). The idea set forth was a reorganized high school curriculum that included three years of high school and added two years of a junior college education. One of the major factors that would determine a solid educational institution was that of accreditation and the \$125,000 requirement of SACS was something that the school had to acquire. The committee to oversee the funding drive was headed by Bishop Wallace E. Brown of Chattanooga and after a meeting of this committee, a mass meeting was held. This meeting allowed the citizens of Boaz and Albertville and leaders from Gadsden and West Alabama to hear the plans. After the presentation there was vocal support for the move to a junior college. Boatman stated the need by saying, “There are 500,000 boys and girls in Northeast Alabama that we have an opportunity to serve and we believe that you are going to help us serve them with a great and better Snead College” (*Drive is Started for Snead*, 1935, p. 1). Following the presentations and speeches, a pageant showing the history of Snead Seminary was presented as well as a basketball game.

The specifics of the fundraising operation included Methodist Episcopal Church support on the local church level, monetary support from the community, and distribution of material to solicit pledges. In a report from the Southern Financial Campaign Bureau, based in Birmingham,

Alabama, the fundraising effort was detailed. The support came not just from alumni and friends but also from individual Methodist Episcopal churches. Each local church had a junior college committee but the results from the local churches were not as expected. The goal of one dollar per member was set and could provide \$14,000 for the new institution. The churches were at present only donating just over \$1,700 and the ministers did not seem to be placing enough emphasis on the campaign. A suggestion of the report was to have a Junior College Day in each church once a year to show the need for Methodist education their area and that the College could use further support (Stalling, 1935). There were also over four hundred local people in those communities that were near Snead that were placed on committees to help solicit funding. Meetings were held with speeches to inform people about the goals of the new junior college but other methods of funding were also used. There was the use of the press, the mailing of thousands of letters, and a focus on not only local funding but on funding from outside the region and the state. Approximately, 2,500 people were contacted for funding and those contacts were not one-time events. Sometimes as many as eight meetings with an individual were needed to procure funds. As of May of 1935, there were pledges that were due but money in hand came to over \$126,000 of which \$111,000 came from out of state (Southern Financial Campaign Bureau, January to May 1935). Compared to the just over \$3,000 cost of the campaign, this showed a high return on the Seminary's fundraising investment. The local support seemed to be small as no amounts were listed but the support of the city editor of the Birmingham News, Mr. Vincent Townsend, was seen as an activity that presented the news of the new junior college throughout the state (Stalling, 1935).

The assembling of funding was not the only concern that external entities expressed as they were also interested in the leadership of the future Snead Junior College. In addition to the

aforementioned College Days at local churches the report urges the College to continually reach out for support. Not only financial issues were important, but so were leadership issues. The Board of Trustees had many men and women who had assisted during the campaign and would be worthy as additional members of the institution. The leadership of Boatman was seen as more than adequate to lead the new institution and expand its mission. The closing of the report dealt with criticisms that were considered unfounded. The two main areas of concern were statements from parent whose students did not receive scholarships that were requested or whose students were asked to leave the Seminary due to the poor personal conduct. These were seen as expected in any institution and were not viewed as having an implication on the institution. They were cases where students and parents did not receive the attention that they desired and did not influence the operations of the institution (Stalling, 1935).

The local funding for the founding of a junior college had by March of 1935 amounted to more than \$5,000 (The Boaz Leader, March 21, 1935) which showed small evidence of local support for the establishment. Historically, in the next column of the same edition of the newspaper Marshall county was reported to have voted with morality and approved the continuance of prohibition laws that were discontinued previously by the federal government (*Junior College Drive*, 1935). This bit of history points to the desire of morality and Christian values that many parents in the area would want for their children. The formation of a college that was close to home and fostered moral ideals would fit nicely into such a community and was also reflected in several members of the Seminary administration and faculty that were a part of the prohibitionist movement. To continue the exposure on a junior college at Snead, on March 25<sup>th</sup>, a luncheon meeting was held at the Hotel Reich in Gadsden with leaders from the Gadsden community. At this event an evening meeting was scheduled for April 1 that would be led by

William G. Dooley, who was the secretary of the Snead Alumni Association of Etowah county. Snead students, alumni, and the public would then be informed of the plans for a junior college and this presentation would be in the form of a banquet with entertainment, and a focus of raising \$125,000 required by SACS (*Snead Junior College Gadsden Campaign*, 1935).

### **Succeeding Through Involvement**

The use of the press was a necessary part of the informational process to assist in the communities understanding about the need for and opportunities of Snead Junior College. In April Boatman wrote an explanation as to the need for a junior college in Boaz and the expansion of the mission of Snead Seminary. He began by saying that Snead wanted to serve and uplift the region and to “follow closely the changing needs of the day” (*Snead Endowment to Bring To Boaz*, 1935, p. 1). He briefly reviewed how Snead was founded in a shack and grew to be an integral part of the community and its education. Due to the improvement in the local public schools Snead Seminary was now able to release the lower levels of education to the public domain and to focus on other goals. Boatman then put forth the need for post-secondary education by stating,

A survey of Northeast Alabama shows that 90% of the high school graduates make no attempt at higher education whatsoever. Snead will bring two years of accredited college work at exceedingly low cost to this group if the friends of Snead and education in this great state will give us their cooperation. (*Snead Endowment to Bring To Boaz*, 1935, p. 1)

Boatman continued in his discussion of the need for Snead Junior College by mentioning the alumni that the Seminary had already sent into the world and the desire for a moral, accredited and technical education. There was a short discussion of how Snead had grown and prepared for this moment and how the over one thousand Snead graduates were out in the world, laid a foundation for the future. The graduates were in nearly every state and on three continents

were witness to the solid, Christian education that Snead provided. The focus of good, moral and solid, educational training for five years (three of high school and two from the junior college) would be maintained as well as the wholesome atmosphere of the Seminary. John H. Snead Seminary was an accredited institution and the desire to start a junior college would include accreditation of the two-year college prior to the starting of classes. The curriculum would be traditional courses where students would graduate with two years of collegiate level course and enter the world. However, there would also be a focus on quality vocational courses that would include: “a department of teacher training, a department of business administration, a department of agriculture and home economics, and a department of manual arts comprising courses in carpentry, mechanics, electricity, and the like” (*Snead Endowment To Bring To Boaz*, 1935, p. 2). Boatman closed with the goal that the college would bring a needed educational opportunity to the region (*Snead Endowment To Bring To Boaz*, 1935).

The meetings and use of media were integral parts of communicating the need for Snead Junior College but the response from the locality was less than needed and the source to reach the monetary goal was found in a northern benefactor while official recognition from the Methodist Episcopal church finally came. The campaign for funding for the full \$125,000 was to close on May 1, 1935. Unfortunately, the school was short only collecting \$14,000 by that date. Some pledges were dependent on the whole amount being achieved and there was a fear that if the goal was not soon reached, they would lose contributions as well as the momentum for the new junior college (*Snead Junior College Fund*, 1935). With this alarming article of near defeat in the local newspaper some momentum seems to have been gained as by May 9, 1935, the announcement is made that Snead will open on September 1, 1935 as an accredited junior college. Praise was given to the Methodist Episcopal church, the bishop, the news media, and

those who had spearheaded the campaign. One donation stood out from the others and it was for \$100,000. This large sum was given by an anonymous friend. Although pleased with the goal, Boatman stated that an additional \$3,000 was needed to fully prepare for students in the classrooms and in renovations to existing facilities. Of special note were vocational buildings and Boatman stated, "The Vocational School of the junior college will be up to the minute and will be in position to give the youth of Sand Mountain section training along vocational lines equal to any in the South" (*Snead Will Open Sept. 1, 1935*, p. 1). In closing, the basic ideals of Snead were reinforced "to make the junior college one of the most effective in the nation in training the youth for life, both in the matter of education as well as in character" (*Snead Will Open Sept. 1, 1935*, p. 1). The board would now go about adding faculty for the junior college and ready campus for the new John H. Snead Junior College (*Snead Will Open Sept. 1, 1935*). On May 2, 1935 the Methodist University Senate had authorized that a junior college could be organized in Boaz, Alabama. In the authorization of the Methodist Episcopal Senate, the junior high grades would be discontinued and the high school would be known as Snead Academy, and the college portion as Snead Junior College (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 6-10, n.d.).

Although the news from the Methodist Senate had been reported in the media, official word to the school was necessary to continue in planning the College and once that had arrived there was news of the departure of Corley. By May 30, 1935, Boatman had received a telegram from the Methodist Senate as to the acceptance of Snead founding a junior college and the start date was set for fall of 1935. Boatman stated, "this will be the only junior college on Sand Mountain and, in fact, in Northeast Alabama. He said that buses would operate between Gadsden and Boaz and between Guntersville and Boaz for the accommodation of local students" (*Junior*

*College Voted for Snead*, 1935, p. 1). The graduation class of the Seminary consisted of fifty-three boys and girls that year who received prizes totaling \$350. Their baccalaureate address was given by Dr. R. C. Raines of Minneapolis. Boatman ended the graduation festivities by stating that Snead had qualified to become a junior college. However, there was a shadow hanging over the event. Only two columns to the right of the discussion of graduation and a junior college was a short announcement where Corley resigned after being at Snead Seminary for 27 years. Although he was urged to reconsider by the trustees “he considered it best to retire from the faculty” and had not announcement of his future plans (*Dean Corley Resigns*, 1935, p.1).

In preparation for the opening of Snead Junior College and the dropping of the elementary and middle school sectors there were changes in faculty and the needed replacement of the dean’s position left vacant by Corley. By June 6, 1935, the change in faculty would be substantial as the institution dropped the grades below high school and filled positions for the new junior college. The mission of the college was also addressed by Boatman who said that Snead would promise the community that it would still serve as a senior high school. The facilities would be improved due to the junior college, the costs of the Seminary would be lower, and the faculty would be ready to focus on the both the college and high school student. Boatman praised the opportunity since “The fact is, wherever a high school is maintained in connection with a junior college, the high school students have greatly improved facilities and opportunities” (*Snead Will Care*, 1935, p. 1). There were faculty that left the institution for diverse reasons. One faculty member was in the middle school that was discontinued, one left to be married, one left to go back to his hometown, another retired due to health, and the coach departed to a new and larger school. Two contentious resignations had to do with the fact that they wanted another college position. Mentioned again was the beloved Corley, “who was elected to be dean of the

high school but resigned desiring college deanship” (*Snead Will Care*, 1935, p.1). A new hiring which hoped to bring some expertise to the new institution was that of the Dr. Sherman Smith of Colgate University who was elected dean of the college, with Boatman remaining as president. Dr. Smith was introduced “as having lived in the South and is well acquainted with the South and its problems” (*Dr. Sherman Smith Newly Elected*, 1935, p. 1).

The hiring of Dr. Smith was reflective of where Snead Junior College had been and was going as he was traditionally moral and supportive of prohibition but was also well educated and focused on technical educational opportunities. Dr. Smith moved from Hamilton, New York and was an associate professor of history at Colgate University. He came from a farming family who moved west from the Hudson Valley and was touted as one who still had a love for agriculture. He had worked in wheat production during the “World War” and had picked apples during the Spanish Influenza epidemic. He graduated from Syracuse University where he graduated Phi Beta Kappa. Outside of school he was active in the prohibition movement and had previously taught in and was well acquainted with the South. He earned a master’s degree in the area of educational instruction and taught both history and political science (*Dr. Sherman Smith Newly Elected*, 1935). With the focus on education, agriculture, and the moralism of the Prohibition movement he was a perfect fit for Snead. The announcement of his hiring discussed that he was “enthusiastic about the possibilities of future industrial development in the region between the Alabama coal and iron and the power being developed in the Tennessee Valley,” (*Dr. Sherman Smith Newly Elected*, 1935 p. 1) which partly referred to the recently enacted Tennessee Valley Authority or TVA enacted by the Roosevelt administration. His wife, Myrtle Kirkpatrick, is only mentioned as “a vivacious social and religious leader of charming personality and will be a

tower of strength to her husband and his new duties” (*Dr. Sherman Smith Newly Elected*, 1935. p. 1).

## **Establishment Secures the Future**

### **Realizing the Junior College**

The accreditation of Snead Junior College along with the building of a president’s home created a stability that was tangible both in course transfer and in a new structure. Since the Seminary was already accredited and there was a goal for the junior college portion to be accredited before it opened, it is not surprising to find that this goal was met. Snead Junior College would have a tentative accreditation until they had been in operation for about a year and then after inspection it could be registered and listed as an accredited college. Boatman stated that since the college had been approved by the Methodist Board of Education that there was no doubt that full accreditation would follow (*Snead College to Achieve*, 1935). Along with accreditation the idea of a true college campus included a president’s home. One of the historic buildings on the campus of the college would be erected in the first year of the College and it would be a home for the president. Boatman Hall would be a modern, brick, two-story home that would include eight rooms with steam heat and a basement, sun parlor, porte-cochere, and a colonial front doorway. It would be built across the street from the Administration Building. The building would be available in September and was eventually built by W. E. Jones architect and contractor of Gadsden (*Dr. Boatman Awards Contract*, 1935).

The year prior to the 1935 founding of Snead Junior College gave Boatman the ability to discuss the challenges that had been present via his yearly presidential report. The annual report of 1934-1935 from president Boatman to the board of education stated that the Boaz public

junior high school had been established, and the enrollment of Snead Seminary had dropped by fifty-six students to a total of 201.



*Figure 33.* President Boatman (Boaz Legacy Foundation)



*Figure 34.* President's Home, Boatman Hall (Boaz Legacy Foundation)

The reasons given for the new public school included better roads and bus service which increased access to public education. Such issues as this would continue to arise as the local school system grew (*Boatman, 1935*). The establishment of a junior high school could be one reason that the seminary was ceasing instruction on the junior high level. Financial concerns were present as Boatman stated that it was the worst year of any previous depression year. There

was a lessening of tuitions and fees by \$1,830.50 with a 10% cut from the Board of Education. Student aid was over five thousand dollars and the farm in its first year was in need of investment. However, eighteen boys had worked on the farm and this form of work study was worth \$1,033.00 in expense that the school did not have to bear. However, the farm ran a surplus in funds and the Seminary had paid all bills and was within budget. It was proudly noted that of the Methodist Episcopal institutions only four did not have deficits. Snead was one of the four who were not in arrears and this was a point of pride, especially in a time of economic depression (Boatman, 1935).

The presidential update for the 1934-1935 academic year discussed the challenges but also focused on the fundraising efforts on behalf of Snead Junior College. The annual report from Boatman continued with an update on the campaign for a junior college. He stated that \$125,000 had been raised. He discusses the support internally and how leadership within the Seminary had taken a prominent role but focuses on the by-products of the campaign as well. Most of the large amounts of funding were external to the local community but “A wider and growing constituency has been built up. Very few in this area have made large gifts yet hundreds have made small gifts and down as small as one pledge for 35 cents” (Boatman, 1935, p. 10). He continued further and addresses the support received from the state, the Methodist Episcopal Board of Education churches, and what these had meant for publicity and recruitment. Donors are discussed but one of the most important is not mentioned by name. Annie Merner Pfeiffer was the anonymous donor who gave \$100,000 to support the institution that she did not know existed three years previously and looking back she could be considered the savior in the founding of the junior college.



*Figure 35.* The Pfeiffers (Boaz Legacy Foundation)

The repeated communication of Boatman with Pfeiffer assured her gift and without it there would be not have been a junior college in 1935. The celebration of this goal is evident when Boatman stated,

want you to know that this campaign is a victory snatched as a precious gem from the raging fires of depression, criticism, indifference, pessimism, and fear. A Junior College this fall is expected to be launched, a dream of years realized. Many have assisted to make this dream come true but in reality it is the doings of God. (*Boatman, 1935, p. 15*)

The president's yearly report by Boatman also laid out the academic future for the coming junior college. He pointed out that the college was only starting in the fall but that it might take ten or more years to reach stability and to say that it was truly established. Although

the school would spend money to prepare for the fall they must keep in mind to not fall into debt. To sustain itself the college must cultivate those of wealth and influence. They must also invest in faculty and over time hire those with doctorates and others of such academic quality. (*Boatman, 1935*) Academics must be a focus in the new college where collegiate instruction was imperative. This was not to be a glorified high school and the environment was to be strictly collegiate level. The teachers should not bring their high school methods into the college classroom, and instructors should use teaching methods that were appropriate to a college. The new college must embrace new ideas and ideas of the past needed to be set aside, except in the area of Christian ideals. Dr. Boatman closed his report by stating that the association with the Methodist Episcopal Board of Education in Chicago should continue and that they were both supporters and friends of the new college (*Boatman, 1935*).

The foundation laid by Boatman in the yearly report was publicized and the first bulletin for Snead Junior College was made available where prospective students and their parents could further see the influence of the new institution. By the mid-summer of 1935, there was increased interest in enrolment in the new institution and there were twenty students of one local high school promising to enter the new junior college. At the same time the first bulletin or catalog of the new institution was available and there was a great deal of interest in that publication. Anyone could request for the bulletin to be mailed to them and copies were readily available for the public. The bulletin listed the new curriculum that offered over two hundred semester hours of courses for the general arts and four special departments (*Snead Junior College To Enroll 20, 1935*). The first bulletin of Snead Junior College listed that it and the Snead Academy were both co-educational showing that there were some opportunities for women in higher education. The forward of the bulletin gave a brief history of previous educational operations and then stated,

“In 1929, the Survey Committee of the Board of Education, after a careful study of the equipment, the service needs of the area, and the current program, recommended the discontinuance of the Junior High School and the addition of the two years of college” (Junior College) (*Bulletin, Snead Junior College, Snead Academy, 1935, p. 9*). The forward discussed the success of the campaign to establish the institution as well as the effects of the Great Depression on the goal.

### **Explaining the Junior College**

The first bulletin for Snead Junior College not only listed the classes, degrees, courses, and opportunities that the College would offer but also answered the question of why a junior college was important. One of the burning questions in all research is why. Why does something occur or not occur? Why is there a certain outcome to an event? In this research there is the question of why this junior college was founded? Particularly, why did the junior college become a focus of those at Snead Seminary and why was it needed? The answers to those questions lie in the first bulletin of Snead Junior College that was distributed in the summer of 1935. Just after the forward as to the history and founding of the new Junior College is a section devoted to “Why the Junior College?” (*Bulletin, Snead Junior College, Snead Academy, 1935, p. 11*). There are six reasons given as to the necessity of a junior college in general as well as the concerns and needs for parents and students. These include “The Junior College Movement...Home Influence Continued...Personal Contact and Guidance...Vocational Training Provided...The College Preparatory Function...Develops Moral Character” (*Bulletin, Snead Junior College, Snead Academy, pp. 11-13, 1935; Reasons for the Junior College, 1935, p. 42*).

A discussion of the movement of two-year colleges was necessary to establish that this form of education was stable, was growing in numbers, and was a dependable form of higher

education. The junior college movement was the first to be discussed and was stated to be “the most wholesome and significant occurrence in American education in the present century” (*Bulletin, Snead Junior College, Snead Academy, 1935, p. 11; Reasons for the Junior College, 1935, p. 42*). First, the increase in numbers of institutions was evidence that the new model was past the experimental stage and was a factor in higher education in America. The cutting edge of this new movement was shown by numbers of institutions. In 1930 there were 475 institutions doing some junior college coursework and that number had increased to nearly 700 by 1935, according to the Carnegie Foundation (*Bulletin, Snead Junior College, Snead Academy, 1935; Reasons for the Junior College, 1935*). This showed that the junior college was a dependable model of education and that establishing one at the time was in keeping with current educational trends.

The second discussion focused on home life and the dangers of students leaving their homes to attend a distant university. The influence of the home was the second of the reasons for a junior college. This institution was closer to home than any universities and provided a cheaper alternative to larger, distant schools. The message here was that “Many homes can recite the sad story of a freshman son or daughter who became overwhelmed in the strange, confusing, atmosphere of the large university” (*Bulletin, Snead Junior College, Snead Academy, 1935, p. 11; Reasons for the Junior College, 1935, p. 42*). The junior college is stated to keep students near home for another two years, “enabling the development of more judgement, balance and maturity before being thrust into the temptations of the large, distant university” (*Bulletin, Snead Junior College, Snead Academy, pp. 1935, p. 11; Reasons for the Junior College, 1935, p. 42*). With parental concerns of the moral issues that might occur far from home, this was exactly what a parent wanted to hear.

The next discussion focused on the individual attention that a student would receive through smaller class sizes and personal attention of the instructor. Under the third reason for a junior college was the personal contact and guidance from the faculty to the student. Due to smaller class sizes, the student would have a closer relationship with the members of the faculty. Since “The freshman needs advice, encouragement and sympathy the junior college can give this individual attention as the large university cannot do, as the junior college is concerned chiefly with the student as a developing individual” (*Bulletin, Snead Junior College, Snead Academy*, pp. 1935, pp. 11-12; *Reasons for the Junior College*, 1935, p. 42). Here the smaller class sizes and personal involvement of faculty assured of not only moral, but educational excellence.

The fourth area of discussion was that of technical education that would be practical and provide the student with an opportunity to begin work after two years of vocational education. One of areas of education that Snead wanted to offer was that of vocational and technical training. The reality that some students only wanted or needed two years of instruction was fulfilled by the junior college. The two-year degree will “give semi-professional training, so that the junior college graduate is able to enter the world’s work and earn a livelihood as a teacher, stenographer, bookkeeper, farmer, carpenter, blacksmith, electrician, and in other callings” (*Bulletin, Snead Junior College, Snead Academy*, 1935, p. 12; *Reasons for the Junior College*, 1935, p. 42). Thus, one of the missions of technical schools or agricultural and mechanical schools was being reflected in the new local college.

The other function of the junior college was that of preparing students to attend a four-year institution through collegiate level courses that would transfer and provide a firm foundation of education to help them succeed. The college preparatory function was the fifth reason for the junior college. This reason included the view that students would better know how

to study. This will help prepare those who wish to transfer to the four-year college or university. The two-year preparation for the four-year university was needed since, “The records of junior college graduates as they have completed their full college education in the universities show that the men and women who took the first half of their college work in a junior college have made better grades and won better standing in the university on an average than have the students who spend their first two years at the four year college or university” (*Bulletin, Snead Junior College, Snead Academy, 1935, p. 12; Reasons for the Junior College, 1935, p. 42*). The discussion of accreditation and transfer of courses came into focus in this section as work was deemed to be more than adequate for admission and success in the four-year arena. Another reflection on the idea faculty being closer to the students was reflected where, “As a rule the junior instructors are really better teachers and less research specialists. They teach better how to study and secure finer results with many students” (*Bulletin, Snead Junior College, Snead Academy, 1935, p. 12; Reasons for the Junior College, 1935, p. 42*). The idea of quality education from caring instructors would impress parents along with the previously mentioned moral issues that the junior college would answer.

The final reason given for the establishment of the junior college was that of developing the moral character of students with individual instruction that would provide them with a solid Christian education. This again reflects the issues of home influence and personal contact discussed in second and third stated reasons for the establishment of a local two-year college. It was pointed out that that there were, in the present day, a lack of integrity and that during the Depression people were losing their moral compass. These issues were met by the junior college where attention was given to students individually. The college also provides practical subjects that will give them a base for a good work ethic. The “opportunities of the student for social and

religious leadership all contribute to make the junior college distinctively a laboratory for fine personal living under painstaking guidance” (*Bulletin, Snead Junior College, Snead Academy*, pp. 1935, p. 13; *Reasons for the Junior College*, 1935, p. 41). The last element merges the interest from home for moral instruction and the idea of mentorship and guidance through the faculty. This summary topic also spoke to the overarching view that the junior college was aiding society and increasing qualities of good character for the populace.

Not only did the Snead Junior College bulletin of 1935-1936 provide information to prospective students but the local media informed the general public of the solid nature of the new College by quality instructors and coursework. A newspaper column on the issue of the coming junior college gave four points of interest. First, the faculty came from leading colleges. Second, Snead was the only private college that offered Elementary Teachers’ Training so that students could teach in the public schools. Next, the college would focus on two groups of students. Those students who want to achieve a four-year degree and those who will finish at two years at Snead. The latter students could specialize in opportunities such as, “Industrial Arts, Teachers’ Training, Business Administration, Secretarial Science, Music, or Home Economics” (*Snead Junior College To Enroll 20*, 1935, p. 1). And fourth, the cost of classes at Snead Junior College will be lower than any other private college in the state and equal to, if not lower, than any state college. The college was also sure to be accredited and ready for the fall term (*Snead Junior College To Enroll 20*, 1935). In August, just before the term was to begin, new faculty were still being hired and the public was assured of accreditation and the transfer of credits to four-year colleges and universities. Boatman also offered a reduction in tuition for students of the Academy (high school grades ten through twelve) from thirty dollars per year to twenty

dollars per year. This reduction was the fulfilment of a promise that Boatman had made to the community if they supported the drive for the junior college (*Snead High School Rates*, 1935).

### **Opening the Junior College**

With the beginning of the school year both the Academy (high school) and the new Snead Junior College opened with the news of what the former dean, Corley would be doing and a large amount of press coverage. The opening of the Academy on September 2, 1935 and Snead Junior College on September 9, 1935 was probably one of the shortest but happiest announcements made since the founding of the seminary. However, there was another announcement a few days earlier which answered many of the questions that Snead faithful had been asking about the departure of Corley. Boaz High School, the public counterpart to the Boaz Seminary, opened its school year with a new faculty member, Mr. L. F. Corley (*Boaz High School To Open*, 1935). The recent questions about the resignation of Corley now had an answer. He was to still be in education and in one way was in competition for students of the Snead Academy, where he had been for many years. As the fall term approached, the loss of Corley was replaced with a very busy August. The preparations for the new junior college were reflected in the *The Boaz Leader* of August 22, 1935. There were four articles on the front page that focused on various parts of Snead life and increased the excitement for the new institution.

The excitement of athletics in the Seminary era was transferred to Snead Junior College and the new football coach in would also function as a teacher in the vocational portion of the College. This coach was John Tom Greene, a graduate of Alabama Polytechnic Institute and who was then in a master's program at the same institution. He would be the head of the physical education department and head football coach as well as an instructor of woodworking, shop, and sheet metal working. The College would be competing with other junior colleges in varsity

athletics that included football and basketball. To prepare for this there would be improvements in the football field and new fences would be soon be added to other athletic facilities (*Auburn Man To Be Snead College Coach*, 1935). The technical aspects of education were a great focus for the Academy as well. This was proven by the investment of over \$1,200 in machinery for the woodworking and sheet metal divisions for the high school courses that would be taught by Coach Greene. A list of a variety of machinery and implements purchased was made as was a hint at future courses that could include radio, welding, forge, and electricity (*Snead Academy Orders \$1,200 Worth Machinery*, 1935).

The media and available information on Snead Junior College was just a part of the recruitment effort that included a bus service and grant monies for tuition. Transportation and student funding would be necessary parts of the new institution. The College purchased an all-steel bus that would transport students to the Junior College from Albertville and from Gadsden. This system would allow students from outlying areas to attend classes (*New Bus For Snead*, 1935) but there were also costs to attend the college. The opportunity of funding for students who were in need of money to pay their tuition came from the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA), which was a part of the New Deal program implemented by United States President Franklin Roosevelt, to combat the Great Depression. FERA funding was a relief package that was sent to the states for distribution. When the state of Alabama received its funding portions it was then divided out to educational institutions to help alleviate expenses for a collegiate education. Students were required to qualify according to federal regulations and Boatman received official documents from the state government in Montgomery that the new Snead Junior College would be a beneficiary of the proceeds (*Snead Junior College To Receive*

*FERA Funds*, 1935). This disbursement of federal funding to a private institution does show some state recognition and support of the institution.

The beginning of the academic year in the fall of 1935 found the city of Boaz with a new junior college, a private Academy (high school), a public elementary, middle, and high school for Boaz as well as education for the minority Black population. On September 11, 1935, Snead Junior College was opened for seventy-eight students and was still in open registration. Boatman eagerly stated that he felt the school would ultimately have at least one hundred students. The first convocation, or chapel, was held and included a parade of faculty and speakers from Chattanooga and Birmingham, as well as the local Congressman, Joe Starnes. Such community support, evident by the attention of a congressman, and promising enrollment numbers were factors that were positive for the new institution (*Snead Junior College Opened September 11; Registration was 78*, 1935). The former Dean, now public superintendent, Corley “says the colored children of Boaz will be provided with a one-teacher school, a facility, heretofore not provided for them” (*Supt. Corley Announces School*, 1935). This event, though not related to specifically to Snead, does show the growth of the local community, the expansion of education, and the ability to have education for the local minority population. The educational opportunities of Marshall county were listed in a newspaper article from September of 1935 where not only the public middle and high school were discussed, but the addition of the Junior College was noted as “This school will open as a standard Junior College this fall. This will serve the boys and girls of this section with educational advantages long needed here” (*Snead Junior College*, 1935, p. 41). The inclusion of Snead in an educational summary further shows the confidence that the media had in the emerging institution.

The early days of Snead Junior College found support in the newspapers and a focus on the existence of a local college, the bus service, transferability of courses, and a founders day that celebrated the school's inception. The local press was useful promoting the College, even as late as September of 1935. The idea of a local college where 90 percent of students would be from one hundred miles or less showed how the new junior college could benefit the local student. With no college in the northeastern part of Alabama a very small percentage of students attempted higher education and a local junior college would give them that opportunity. The locality of the college would be extended by the use of bus service and the lower cost would encourage local students to attend. Expenses, that included room and board for the year, were \$262 for men and \$244 for women but for those who commuted the tuition would be \$118. Further confidence can be placed in the new Junior College in that courses would be of collegiate level and would be transferable to other institutions. (*Snead Junior College Fills Long Felt Need*, 1935). Such support from the local media would again give confidence in the new institution and also serve as a mode of recruitment. In celebration of the formation of Snead Junior College a Founder's Day was planned where the anonymous benefactor of the college would be present and thanked. Four photographs of those integral to the building of the College would be unveiled and they included Dr. F.C. Eiselen of the Board of Education in Chicago, Illinois and W.D. C. Goode, the national president of the Women's Home Missionary Society, of Sidney, Ohio. (*Snead Junior College Founders Day*, November 12, 1935). The anonymous donor of \$100,00 was Pfeiffer, of New York City who attended Founder's Day with three "lady friends" from her home (*Founders Day*, 1935).

Once the fall term was over the term that began in the winter of 1936 celebrated the fulfillment of the promise a Snead Junior College that was accredited, planned to increase the

variety of courses it offered, and looked toward state accreditation in the coming year. When the second term began in January of 1936 the student newspaper touted the success of Snead Junior College by stating that, “After a half year of operation the new Snead Junior College has proven conclusively that there is a greater demand for the services of a new college in northeastern Alabama than has been anticipated by the most optimistic of the institution’s friends” (*Snead College Ends Successful*, 1935, p. 1). The article further stated that there had been a desire for a college for many years and that enrollment, campus facilities, leadership, and a focus on accreditation had led to the successful formation of the Snead Junior College (*Snead College Ends Successful*, 1935). Another sign of growth was that new courses were added to the curriculum. These focused on some academic courses, such as religion, but the technical aspects of the college were in the forefront. To support the educational courses there was a class in educational psychology as well as a course in nursing and child care. Expanded courses in sheet metal and a business mathematics course were added to further the goals of an increased focus on vocational education (*New Courses Are Added To Snead*, 1935). After the first year of Snead Junior College, Boatman presented his president’s report. The focus of the report was primarily on accreditation and growth. The College sent an application to the Association of Alabama Colleges to be admitted to that organization. This was important so that Snead would be recognized as an accredited institution and that their credits would be transferrable within the state. In pursuit of the application the campus had been visited and the report from that visit was very positive (*Dr. Boatman, President’s Annual Report*, 1936).

The necessity of accreditation by SACS was stated from the beginning of fundraising for Snead Junior College but also important was accreditation by the Association of Alabama Colleges, so that courses from Snead would easily transfer to member institutions. The

Association of Alabama Colleges verified the quality of Snead Junior College with an inspection made by Mr. M. C. Huntley who visited the campus on request of Dean Barnwell of The University of Alabama. Mr. Huntley reported that the college had capable administrators and that Boatman came to the institution to establish a junior college and had researched the need for such in the area. A survey made by Reeves and Russell stated the need as well. The two-year institution was the only one operated in Alabama by the Methodist Episcopal Church, North and the nearest institutions to it were the University of Chattanooga and Tennessee Wesleyan College. Huntley discussed the education offered and discussions he had with administrators and found only minor issues. His survey of faculty found that they were qualified and that they were similarly educated in comparison to the faculty at other two-year colleges. He also found that all but one faculty member taught in both the College and the Academy. The curriculum variety and requirements were appropriate, but the responsibilities of what courses were in which department did not make sense to Huntley. He felt that there were some academic organizational issues but, that the setup was a good start for a smaller school. The financing of the College was adequate and held cash money, funding from the Methodist Episcopal church, pledges, and stock as part of their financial holdings. In conclusion Huntley stated, "Taking into consideration the matters touched upon in this report, together with the fact that the college has plant very well adapted to its needs, I feel that the institution is doing a good grade of work. It will improve as the faculty is strengthened, equipment is added, and as better library facilities are provided. This institution is looked upon by the Methodist Church as a missionary enterprise, and the Church will no doubt continue to support it" (*Snead Junior College*, March 23, 1936, letter by M. C. Huntley).

With the successful visit of Huntley Snead Junior College was a member of the Association of Alabama Colleges and courses from Snead would transfer to state institutions

since the College exceeded the benchmarks required by the association. As of April 11, 1936, Snead Junior College became a member of the Association of Alabama Colleges and credits would be recognized in full at the state university (The University of Alabama) and at all senior colleges in the state. The next step was accrediting from the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (SACS) and that could only come after the first graduate's records are examined (*Dr. Boatman, President's Annual Report, 1936*). The accreditation notice was also printed in the college newspaper, *The Snead Chimes*. The information assured students that, "Hence Snead Junior College at the end of the first session has achieved a degree of accredited rating which young colleges often require several years to achieve" (*Snead Achieves Accredited Recognition, 1936, p. 1*). The students were assured that their courses would transfer to four-year institutions and that Snead went beyond the minimum standards for accreditation (*Snead Achieves Accredited Recognition, The Snead Chimes, April 15, 1936*).

In the president's report of 1934-1935 Boatman also discussed the goals for establishing Snead Junior College and that one year later he saw the founding of the College behind him but there were still issues such as teacher training, attracting students who could pay tuition, the expansion of the technical sector of the College, and hiring of personnel. In his yearly report Boatman did note some other issues. The most pressing was the certification of those in the teacher training courses which was not yet approved by the state of Alabama. He closes with issues that he sees for the institution in the coming years. Boatman's first concern was maintaining of a positive Christian atmosphere within the college. Next he encouraged the recruitment of middle-class students who could pay their bills. Without those who could pay, then those who were in need of funds could not be helped and the institution itself would be in danger. There was also a concern over a trio of expenses that tied academics and spending close

together. First, there was a need to buy additional equipment at the present time and secondly, the need for even more to be acquired in the future. Most of this had to do with vocational or technical training that was the third issue Boatman had. The vocational training that was desired needed equipment for proper instruction. The equipment needed, made the technical sector of the college an expensive part of education. The necessity of modern equipment and instruction was an expense that the college had to take, but it was also burdensome. The best way to pay for all of these expenses was for there to be an increase in the number of tuition-paying students. The promotion of the college among high schools needed to increase. Faculty members were recruiting in the local schools and this created a great response from prospective students. With more interest in the College there was also more work in responding to such requests. The suggestion was made by Mr. Huntley, of the Association of Alabama Colleges, that a business manager be hired to oversee the monies of the College and a point was further made for secretarial assistance in communication with local educational institutions to improve connections with them and for the recruitment of future students (*Dr. Boatman, President's Annual Report, 1936*).

The Methodist Episcopal church also gave approval of the founding year of Snead Junior College and noted the increased holdings of the institution and Boatman responded with the needs for more teacher educational emphasis. The Alabama Methodist Conference stated that as of November 2, 1936, the holdings of Snead had increased from \$200,000 to \$800,000, and with the support of the Conference, Board of Education, and fundraising Snead was stable (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 6-10, n.d.). On November 5, 1936 a letter of response was sent to Boatman. He had requested the faculty to respond as to what needs they felt necessitated a teacher training building. The response referred to a survey of Chicago University

that stated a junior college was needed for instruction in the field of teacher education. The American Junior Colleges, meeting in Nashville, Tennessee in February of 1936, stated that the needs of the area where a junior college was located indicated courses in teacher education should be taught at the College. The need for elementary teachers was great in the area, as only about half of the one thousand teachers employed at that time were deemed qualified. Snead Junior College was responding to this need as the only institution in the state to provide a two-year teaching certificate. Importance of this curriculum was shown in college enrollment where thirty-four percent of the college enrollment was in education. There was practice teaching at Albertville Elementary School and students were required to complete six semester hours in such training. Thus, there was not just instruction but practical, hands on education. The letter concludes that the school of education at Snead was needed and practical (*Letter to Dr. Boatman, 1936*).

The culmination and proof of any form of education is graduation and after two years the first class from Snead Junior College graduated in a multi-day celebration. With an expanded curriculum and facilities Snead Junior College graduated its first class from May 15 until May 19, 1937. A complete array of activities including speeches, sermons for the public, sermons for young people, class programs, as well as the meeting of the board of trustees filled the days with activity. The commencement awarded degrees to forty-nine listed students. Although there were a majority of students from Boaz and nearby Albertville, there were students from Gadsden, Attalla, Cullman, Birmingham, Fort Payne and other smaller Alabama communities. There was one student who was from out of state and she was from Cedartown, Georgia (*Sand Mountain, 1937*).

## Progress After Formation

### Boatman Continues Expansion

After the founding of Snead Junior College there were still new technical programs, transfer programs, and facilities to expand due to increased need for student housing. By the fall of 1938 the faculty and staff numbered twenty-three and Boatman would continue to be president and head of the religion department. Boatman also expanded the educational opportunities by buying Sunshine Farm and providing it with modern equipment “for use in demonstration and practical instruction in the new agricultural department and course to be opened by the college this fall” (*Snead College Equips Farm*, 1938, p. 1). The college had spent \$1,000 to expand the poultry houses and purchased several cows for the dairy. Along with the growing of potatoes, hay, corn, and nineteen Poland China hogs, the students would work and learn to provide milk, pork, and food for the dormitories.



*Figure 36.* Seminary students picking cotton (Boaz Legacy Foundation)



*Figure 37.* Canning the produce from the farm (Snead Archives)



*Figure 38.* Milking the seminary cows (Snead Archives)

With the planting of an orchard and the use of crop rotation students would also learn modern agriculture as well as animal science. There were agreements with Alabama Polytechnic Institute at Auburn for the transferring of credits in these fields for those who wanted to attend the Institute. (*Snead College Equips Farm*, 1938). New dining facilities were created, new stoves purchased, and cooks hired for the dining room. As of 1938 the female students no longer had to provide one hour of domestic service to the College per week. Only students who were on workship (work study) would be cleaning. The fees for the dormitories were also equaled and were set at sixteen dollars per month for both sexes. (Sand Mountain Sun, May, 1938). The increase in numbers of students led Boatman to advertise in the local newspaper for those in the community who would have rooms to let for those attending the College. The title itself, “Rentals Needed To Accommodate Snead Students” shows the increased need for student housing (*Rentals Needed To Accommodate*, 1938, p.1). The fall of 1938 dawned with much of the same enthusiasm and renovations to both residence halls included painting and bathroom facilities. The Boy’s Home Pollock-Lipe Hall added new furniture and a new wing needed for increased student housing (*Snead Junior College To Open for Fourth Session*, 1938). The overflow of men caused them to be housed in a recreation room until the new wing was ready for occupancy. The student desire of science courses required the hiring of another faculty member since the new freshman class numbered one hundred. These incoming students hailed from Alabama, Tennessee, Mississippi, Georgia, Florida, Illinois, and New Jersey. The sophomore class consisted of sixty-five students and that number included ninety percent of the freshman from the previous year’s freshman class (*Snead College Enlarges Dormitory*, 1938).

## **New Leadership Enters**

Once the founding of Snead Junior College occurred and many of the original goals has been achieved Boatman would leave the College to preside over a four-year institution. With the college fully funded and growing in both plant, faculty, and students, Boatman tenured his resignation effective January of 1939. During his tenure the high school expanded into a college, with around one hundred and seventy-five students, and a quality faculty was hired. The endowment of \$150,000 was reached and funding for a new library was nearly secured. Boatman improved the campus to the amount of \$300,000 in endowments, property, and equipment. The external support that he achieved, both in verbal and monetary means, was still evident and available. Boatman left Snead Junior College to take the position of president at Union College at Bourbonville, Kentucky. Union College was a four-year college with over 700 students and under the support of the Methodist Episcopal Church (*Snead College Head Resigns*, 1938; *Dr. Boatman Resigns*, 1938). When Boatman left for the presidency of Union College he left plans and \$25,000 for the building of a new library (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 6-10, n.d.).

The College again reached external to the region to hire a new president who had attended prestigious institutions and had a theological background. The search for a new president of Snead Seminary and Snead Junior College led the selection of Dr. Joseph Broyles by the Board of Trustees.



*Figure 39.* President Broyles (Boaz Legacy Foundation)

During the interim Dr. Smith would be acting president and an inauguration was set for June 1, 1939. Dr. Broyles was a native Tennessee and a well-known Methodist minister. After education at Chattanooga and Greenville, he attended the School of Theology of Boston College and also attended Harvard University. He received his master of arts from Drew University in New Jersey and studied abroad at Oxford University, England. After receiving his doctorate of divinity at Tusculum in Tennessee, he served as a pastor and later as the head of the department of philosophy and social sciences of Hamlin University (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 11-12, n.d.; *Trustees Choose New President*, 1939).

### **Physical Plant Expands**

The unfinished library of Boatman's administration was completed by Dr. Broyles and was not only for the use of the college but again was a part of the community. The fulfilled goal of a new library at Snead would be named Norton Library. Valued at \$90,000 Norton Library

was opened on April 2, 1940 and was open to not only students and faculty of the college, but also to the local community (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 11-12, n.d; *Norton Public Library Ready*, 1940).



*Figure 40.* Norton Library (Boaz Legacy Foundation)

This was the only local library in the community and could be used without fees to the public (*Norton Public Library Ready*, 1940). The Boaz Leader promised a regular column to list new books that had been added and were popular and as of November 1940 books such as *Rebecca*, *Little Women*, *All This and Heaven Too*, and *The Grapes of Wrath* were available but the most popular novel was *Gone With the Wind*. Another option was the newly opened children's area where a librarian would help children find books that they could check out. The last statement in the article states: "To the old and young we of the library for service and pleasure. Remember, this library is for you. Feel free to use it" (*Norton Public Library Proving*, 1940, p. 1). By 1940 the Seminary (high school) was discontinued due to the establishment and expansion of the public Boaz High School. This created a greater challenge for the college to grow and expand and attract paying students (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 11-12, n.d.).

By the time Norton Library was completed and in use World War II was already taking place in Europe but war restrictions did not hamper the activity of Pfeiffer who built a new dormitory for women. One of the names familiar to many at Snead was that Pfeiffer who had been a great supporter of the Snead Academy and the Snead Junior College. After the death of her husband she gave \$180,000 for the building of a girl's dormitory. The money was more than needed to build Pfeiffer Hall, and the excess established an endowment fund (*Brief Historical Sketches of School Leaders*, pp 13-15, n.d.).



*Figure 41.* Pfeiffer Hall (Boaz Legacy Foundation)

Pfeiffer was honored at the dedication of the new dormitory built by her donation and celebrated with a program in Fielder Auditorium. It was attended by the regional Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal church and along with speeches, musical performances and a reception by the students

from the home economics department, the building was ready for students (*Guest of Honor At Dedication*, 1943). By 1943 the dormitory was open for 86 female students for Snead Junior College (Listing of buildings). At the dedication of Pfeiffer Hall, Bishop J. L. Decell provided the sermon for the dedication entitled, "The Christian College A Source of World Supply." In his sermon, Bishop Decell gives praise to Pfeiffer for her donation and extolls the virtues of a Christian college such as Snead Junior College (Decell, 1943).

### **Conclusion**

With the missionary zeal that fought adversity, fires, and epidemics the founders of Boaz Seminary provided a stable base that allowed for the future establishment of Snead Junior College. The formation of a Snead Junior College would not have occurred had a foundation not been laid by those missionaries of the Methodist Episcopal Church. The original goal of bringing education to the Appalachian town of Boaz, Alabama was not focused on a college at first. They might have been surprised that such an institution would come from their zeal, but the idea of a college evolved over time. The early founders of Boaz Seminary faced a surprising amount of adversity. Through begging for funding, burning of buildings, epidemics of disease, and eventually the Great Depression these missionaries grew through adversity. No matter what the challenge was, it was met and overcome. The adversity did not cause the founders to shrink from their mission but, on the contrary, they were innovative and expanded their educational footprint. Through increases in enrollment and the diversity of educational offerings, they were laying a firm foundation for a future institution. Without this foundation, the junior college could not have formed.

With a dream from Fielder the idea of a junior college grew in Boaz, Alabama and with the leadership of Boatman the dream became reality. the Innovations in education brought the

idea of the junior college in America and the leadership of Boatman was retained to bring this idea to northeast Alabama. Although the early idea of the college came from Fielder, it took Boatman's new leadership to plan for the junior college. The preparations that Boatman made through speeches, newspaper interviews, travels to northern cities, and a statewide campaign of alumni and friends all were for the goal of college formation. The final key to establishment of Snead Junior College was the involvement of all of those contacted by fundraisers and those who were interested in the work at Boaz Seminary. A network of support came together to start Snead Junior College and from financial support to accreditation, the plans would not have been successful if not for those who were involved in promotion of this new idea.

The process of establishment of Snead Junior College was more than just opening a college but through fundraising, accreditation, public awareness, and a variety of educational curricula Snead Junior College became a firm reality. If the missionary founders laid the foundations for stability, and the new leadership planned the formation, then the proper establishment of Snead Junior College secured the future of the institution. The realization of the fundraising goal and of the first steps to accreditation were necessary goals to reach. There had to be a firm financial and academic background for the population and benefactors to support this innovative model of education. The next task was how to define a junior college model to the local population. To explain the junior college, the administration defined it, discussed why it was beneficial, and attracted the interest of students and their parents. The explanation of the college included that the junior college model was no longer experimental idea, that it was closer to home and came with personal contact a student would not receive in a larger institution. Further reasoning included the expansion of vocational and technical offerings as well as college preparatory functions and the formation of a moral character in students. With the opening of

Snead Junior College, and until its first graduation, the new institution proved that the reasons given for having a junior college were applicable and truthful. The growth of the college continued, and offerings expanded. Both physical plant and student population increased and all of this created a junior college that met the expectations of administration, faculty, and the community.

## CHAPTER V:

### DISCUSSION

#### **Introduction**

The story of the founding of Snead Junior College was really a step. It was a step away from the educational model of the seminary that was organized in 1898 to the new model of a junior college. To discuss this, there must be a comparison of the literature and research findings (Major & Savin-Baden, 2010a). This will allow the reader to see the similarities and differences in the story of Snead Junior College as compared to other junior colleges that were formed. It also will show the gap in the literature that the story of Snead Junior College fills in relation to historic junior college findings. Next, there will be a suggestion for further research in the subject area (Major & Savin-Baden, 2010a). This will allow the reader to find areas of interest and help fill gaps within the literature that still exist. The research that is presented here has uncovered other areas where future researchers could discover even more of the story of the early junior college movement. Last, there are recommendations for the practice and policy (Major & Savin-Baden, 2010a). This section will suggest topics or methods that would improve the modern two-year college through changes in their outlook or goals. The implementation of these practices and policies can enhance the mission of these institutions and provide future research with data that can be used and interpreted.

## Discussion

### Research Questions

The study focused on three research questions. What were the foundations of Snead Junior College? Who were the people involved in creating Snead Junior College? What were the reasons for founding Snead Junior College? While the formation of the college is the primary source of interest, there must be an understanding of the origins from which that college emerged. The founding of Boaz Seminary by the Methodist Episcopal Church was the foundation of education that led to the junior college formation in Boaz. The leaders within and outside the institution were an integral part of the transition to a junior college model and there were reasons for the expansion.

**What was the foundation of Snead Junior College?** The Methodist seminary that was established was necessary for a foundation and future expansion into a junior college. Without the establishment and proper organization of a well-run institution prior to Snead Junior College it would have been impossible to solicit funding for another enterprise. The success of Boaz Seminary, and later John H. Snead Seminary, was proof that the money and time invested in this location was a proper use of support. Also, the missionary zeal for expanding education was being met and expanded. Without a successful track record no national Methodist Episcopal committee or organization would support the junior college endeavor financially. There were areas that showed improvement such as an increase in the number of students and the expansion of on campus housing. Also, increased student population and monetary flow showed educational stability. The need for on campus housing proved that student interests merited the funding that had been previously given to the institution.

From the invitation from John Snead, to his donation of land, to facing the challenges of education and pandemic, there was evidence of stability at the institution. This stability was the foundation needed to convince leadership of the institution that a junior college could be a possibility. More importantly, the fundraising and reaction to disasters proved to external actors, such as the Methodist denomination, missionary societies, the community, and individuals, that the institution could evolve into a junior college. The case of Snead Seminary shows several people of the nineteenth century who came to a distant land, with missionary zeal, to provide educational opportunity and moral instruction to those who have little or none of either. The literature of the junior college movement is too quick to join with university leaders and theorists of education. The story of Snead Junior College is a unique journey that the founders of Boaz Seminary started prior to the concept of creating a junior college.

One of the areas that showed progress in the reputation of the Seminary was that while there was local support, the predominant leadership of the institution came from outside the community. Although external entities can be negative and under suspicion in small towns, in this case they seem to be honored and respected. The local church affiliation had some influence, as those within the local Methodist church were a part of the leadership of the town and in businesses within Boaz. Also, the educational level of those who were starting and later running the Seminary exceeded that of the general population. Both Elders were college educated and were in leadership positions in the Seminary and both brought expertise in religion and education that was not common in the region. Other leaders, such as Fielder and Boatman, came from prestigious institutions of higher learning and personal experiences and education that fostered the formation of Snead Junior College.

**Who were the people involved in creating Snead Junior College?** The literature includes governments, universities, and educational leaders as those who fostered the growth of the two-year college movement, but in the case of Snead Junior College, important actors were not those of great merit or influence. The people who encouraged education and ultimate advancement toward founding a junior college at Snead were primarily newcomers to the community. Leaders such as the Elders, Fielder, Corley, and Boatman came from external to the community. The list of people who brought the Seminary to stability, helped along its journey, and assisted in the formation of the junior college at Snead is long. However, as the research progressed several key individuals came to the front of the list of influencers. The most influential of the long list are the Elders, Fielder, Boatman, and Pfeiffer.

Through missionary zeal, the Elders came to Boaz to establish educational opportunities for the community. From using what was available at the location, to teaching, to soliciting funding for the institution and for housing students, they created a stable educational environment which proved to be the foundation for the future Snead Junior College. Fielder initiated the idea of creating a junior college at Snead Seminary which laid the foundation for Methodist acceptance and support of the new idea of a two-year college in Boaz. Boatman had the specific goal of founding a junior college and taking the data from the survey by the Methodist Episcopal church, that Fielder had instigated, and making it the proof that a junior college was needed in Boaz. Boatman was very well educated and had traveled in countries around the world. Boatman's educational focus had been a study of the junior college, so he was well suited to establish Snead Junior College. Last, was Pfeiffer. The name of Pfeiffer was on the girl's residence hall at Snead State Community College until it was demolished. However, the research showed that she was much more than a name on a building. Of the \$125,000 needed to

fund the new junior college, Pfeiffer gave \$100,000. Obviously, this donation was without parallel in the financial campaign, and she even donated to the Norton Library and later built the girl's residence hall entirely with her own funds. The connection that she had to Snead Seminary and Snead Junior College was not that of alumna of either institution or even as a resident of Alabama, but only as a benefactor. Again, the firm foundation of the early founders, the competency of administration, as well as stewardship of both funding and student morality was necessary for such a benefactor to become the virtual cornerstone of the college.

The people who were integral to the founding of Snead Junior College were heavily influenced by the recent past success and expansion of John H. Snead Seminary. They were also not national figures. They did not attend august presidential roundtables. They did not discuss democratization or open-door policies. The people that assisted in the formation of Snead Junior College created it for the betterment of students. They saw a mission field, they saw a task, and they saw a future. Without any one of those people mentioned here the institution would not have come to exist in its current form. These people did not take actions for movements or glory but were workers for their religion and for their love of education.

**What were the reasons for founding Snead Junior College?** There were three main reasons for founding Snead Junior College. The first reason for founding Snead Junior College was that the student would have a closer relationship with faculty who would provide instruction that was personal and beneficial to student learning. The faculty were closer to the students and saw teaching as their main goal. The second reason for founding Snead Junior College was academic choice. This reason stated that the student could pursue a two-year degree, they could transfer their courses to a four-year university, or they could attain a technical degree that would allow them to enter the workforce. The academic focus was that of the diversity of coursework

that the junior college provided in both technical and transfer curriculums. Technical courses were reflective of the mechanization occurring in the United States at that time and the courses that Snead offered as a junior college would also be reflective of this new industrial movement in the United States. On the other side of academics was the transfer model. In this option, students would receive the same level of coursework that was offered in four-year institutions, and those courses would be transferrable to a university. The transfer model showed the increased desire by students for a college education and was reflective of the higher graduation rates in high schools. The third reason for founding Snead Junior College was that student's education would be based in traditional moral values that parents would appreciate. The junior college continued the influence of the home and since students were living at or near home and since the school was providing moral influence, students were not encountering influences of which their parents would not approve.

**Conclusions.** The discussion and publication of the reasons that the junior college was a viable educational model and provided options to the student, was one of the more persuasive discussions that was found in the research. There is a distinct intention to focus on the student as an individual. Within the general literature the focus is not on the individual student themselves but is on the innovation of a new type of institution but the specific story of Snead Junior College focused on the student's needs and how the college could foster their education and morality.

### **Unique Attributes**

#### **Important Findings from the Research**

The data provided some insights that I did not expect to encounter. The first insight was that of the role of women in the process. The next insight was that those who were in leadership positions were well prepared and educated. They had both a view of home educational missions

and of education from an international perspective. The last insight was that Snead Seminary and Junior College were both internal and external to the community that they served.

**The women of Snead.** After researching the topic of the formation of a junior college in Boaz, one of the most impactful topics was the role of women. Women were pivotal in the stability and formation of Snead Seminary and Snead Junior College. In both the literature and in the data researched, there were multiple women who were contributors to either the stability or growth of Snead Seminary. In much of the oral history and telling of the story of Snead, men are frequently mentioned as being the ones that provided leadership and while this is true in some respects, the story that is not told is that of the women of Snead. Two of the women that were an integral part of the story of Snead Seminary and Snead Junior College were Elder and Pfeiffer.

Elder and her husband were both founders of Boaz Seminary and while both supported the teaching and administrative functions of the institution she was more active externally in support. Elder was a woman with a college degree and was equal to her husband in love for education. She traveled and solicited funding for the Seminary but also built female housing on campus. The contacts that Elder initiated and the monies that she brought to the Seminary not only founded but maintained and grew the institution. Also, some land that was purchased for Seminary expansion was purchased by her alone. The reputation of her work ethic and dependability of her word were mentioned in reports on her actions such as the running of the girl's home and the quarantine of smallpox infected students. Unlike other women who were mentioned in the media by their husband's name, Elder was referred to by her name. This portrayal of her as trustworthy and the use of her name show how she was viewed as an individual and a person of authority.

Although Pfeiffer was not aware of the Snead Seminary, was not from the south, nor had any ties to those at Snead, she was a supporter of education. Near the end of fundraising for the proposed Snead Junior College, there was a shortfall and without adequate funding, stability could not be assured. This stability was needed to lead to growth and sustainability of the new Snead Junior College. The sum of \$100,000 was given by Pfeiffer and without her gift the college would not have opened in the fall of 1935. It can be argued that eventually the institution would have emerged but that is unlikely due to the Great Depression and its economic constraints. Later, in the midst of World War II, Pfeiffer provided complete funding for a new girl's residence hall. The agency of a woman who had money and influence at her disposal in the mid-twentieth century was something that I did not expect to find, and the philanthropy that caused the support of Snead Junior college was integral in its founding. Without Pfeiffer, there is a possibility that Snead Junior College would have never been established and would have been a failed plan. Her story of support was necessary for foundation of the College.

**Experience of individuals.** Those people who were leaders at Snead Seminary, Snead Junior College, and were employed from 1899 through 1939, were not only highly educated but had seen the world outside of the southern United States. There were several members of the Seminary and Snead Junior College who were from outside the geographic area of Boaz. The first leaders of the Seminary (the Elders), the president who introduced the idea for a junior college (Fielder), and the president who prepared and implemented Snead Junior College (Boatman) came from outside the region. Along with other administrative and faculty leaders from diverse backgrounds they brought a different perspective than those of the local citizenry and the worldview that they held influenced the institution to grow into a junior college.

The founding couple of Snead, the Elders, were both college-educated and came from the Midwest with their missionary zeal to bring education to the Appalachian region. The originator of the idea for a junior college, Fielder was from England, had been the president of university and had founded another university. His past educational experience prepared him for leadership of an educational institution and for the idea of creating a two-year college. Boatman, who would shepherd Snead Junior College into being, had served as a missionary in India, and traveled thorough Europe and Southeast Asia. He held a degree from Columbia and had been the president of the National Training School. With focused studies on junior college education he was qualified to lead the institution in forming a junior college. In a rural farming region, someone with his level of education and his international experience was sure to be not only qualified, but also one of the most educated and most well-traveled people in the area.

Other leaders who came to Snead also had diverse backgrounds and experiences in various levels of education that could be helpful to Snead. After Elder spoke to the Women's Missionary Society in 1906 in Lincoln, Nebraska, Harriet Fink was so impressed with the work at Snead Seminary that she inquired about teaching at the institution. L.F. Corley was a great inspiration and well-liked by the students. He had attended Meridian Male College, the University of Mississippi and The University of Alabama. Both of these instructors are found in the documents about Snead Seminary and though, not from the area, made a positive influence on the education of many students.

The faculty from the first academic year of Snead Junior College brought with them a diversity in higher education. Not only did Boatman have degrees from distant universities but the faculty did as well. The formation of a regionally diverse administration and faculty made Snead a different type of educational institution that did not depend on local talent, but instead

brought in people of various backgrounds, regions, and educational experiences. The list of institutions that were represented on Snead's campus included Syracuse University, Clark University, the University of Illinois, Northwestern University, Colorado State Teachers College, University of Missouri, Peabody College, Oklahoma City College, Columbia University, Julliard School of Music, as well as some state colleges such as Alabama Polytechnic Institute, the University of Alabama, and Troy State Normal School (Snead State College Bulletin 1935-1936). Many of the faculty had degrees from two different institutions as well as summer work at other institutions. Although some of the institutions listed have changed names or merged with other schools the educational diversity of fifteen faculty members shows that students would receive an education that was not local but national in scope.

**Elements of support.** Snead Seminary and later Snead Junior College were internal to the community of Sand Mountain and Boaz, but they were also external in several ways. Although the administration and faculty of both institutions were primarily external in origin, as was previously discussed, there are other areas where the institution was both internal and external in its reach and service. Within the community the focus was originally to educate those students in the Boaz area but the funding was often external. It was also internally within the community when fundraising began for the establishment of a junior college but the college had to focus on external sources to reach its goal.

When local Methodist-Episcopal businessmen, led by John H. Snead, saw a need for stable education he looked externally for assistance. He asked the home mission organizations of the Methodist Episcopal church to send teachers to the region. Since this educational outreach was already a part of the church's mission, those external to the community, such as the Elders, came to Boaz. At the same time, the institution was internal to the community due to its physical

location. The Seminary took a previous educational building and began instruction in a location that had been used by the city of Boaz. The offerings of the Seminary were originally for the students of the city although there were some who came and boarded with the Elder family. Eventually the increase in external student populations merited residence halls.

The response to students who were not from the local area is reflected in the building of residence halls that offered over 170 rooms for students who would not have needed housing if they had lived locally. By the time the first class of Snead Junior College graduated there were sixteen students from Boaz and thirty-three from outside of Boaz. The farthest distant cities were represented by two students from Georgia and three from Birmingham. Even those from adjoining communities such as Gadsden, Alabama City, Fort Payne, and Oneonta might have to reside on campus due to lack of transportation. As an institution that began to serve local students its reach was past the city limits of Boaz, and increasingly, it was serving students from outside the local community.

**Fundraising support.** The missionary activities of the Methodist Episcopal church were specifically focused on regions, such as Appalachia, where there were lower standards of living and less opportunities for education. Although the community allowed the use of land for Boaz Seminary and John H. Snead donated more land for expansion of the seminary, there were still costs. The costs of maintaining the facilities, hiring faculty and staff, providing residence halls, and expanding curriculum offerings was more than tuition could cover. Tuition would cover some costs and those students that worked for their tuition provided labor, but the cost of educating, housing, and feeding students was still needed.

The presidents of the Seminary and the Junior College had to make yearly trips to Chicago and other cities to present request for funding from the Methodist Episcopal Church.

Although tuition came from the students of the institution the ability to continue operations was dependent on funding from the Methodist church. Likewise, another activity that began internally was that of fundraising to establish a junior college. The campaign to raise funds for the establishment of a new junior college at Snead Seminary was begun as an internal function. However, when local funding and support did not procure the needed funds the search went externally. The original focus was to have alumni groups that would help to raise the amount. Unfortunately, a great portion of the money had yet to be raised by April of 1935. The local drives, meetings, and presentations led to a disappointing total of funds. The money that was projected to come from local churches was about 10% of what was expected. The graduates of Snead Seminary did not send large amounts of money either and this may not be a surprise when the country was in the middle of the Great Depression. At this point is when Pfeiffer donated \$100,000 so that the school would have the foundation funding required by accreditation. Although the school started with local pupils and fostered local support, it needed the external support of Pfeiffer to reach its goal of junior college formation.

The three things that influenced me the most were the role of women at Snead, the experience of individuals, and the various elements of support. The important role of women was something that I did not expect in the research. They were in the records and had roles but without the work of Elder there would have been little support for a junior college to be formed. Without the funding provided by Pfeiffer there would not have been the establishment of a junior college in 1935, and possibly no junior college establishment at all. The next item of interest was the wide array of experiences and education that leaders brought to the institution. From higher education for women to world travel, to educational backgrounds from well-known and well-established universities. Those who came to Snead as administrators and faculty brought a high

level of expertise and experience to a new higher educational institution. Last, the private, religious junior college could not depend on taxation and funding from government but depended on their denomination and their alumni base. Snead could not depend on funds from their community and so external appropriations from the Methodist Church and from individuals were required. Church funding allowed operations to continue and individual gifts allowed for the formation of Snead Junior College.

## **Recommendations**

### **Recommendations for Further Research**

**Two-year teaching colleges.** Although the years of two-year teaching degrees have passed, this research discusses the interest and need of such certification in the early years of Snead Junior College. Normal schools were early educational institutions that taught teachers and as Snead Junior College started there was an interest in providing teaching certificates in grades one through three (Snead Will Open Sept. 1 As Fully Accredited for Junior College Work, May 9, 1935). The education of educators is one that is of interest as a facet of epistemology. However, the focus of two-year degrees of education can give a voice to those from educational history that have not had a voice. The graduates of Snead Junior College did go out into the world and through their teaching influenced thousands of students over the years. In the field of educational training, there is little research about the role of two-year teaching institutions. Future researchers could investigate the rise and fall of two-year teacher education. Research on this topic would show the influence that two-year teachers had on the educational system of the mid-twentieth century and increase the understanding of educational training.

**Snead until 1967.** The years from the leaving of Boatman in early 1939 through the early 1940s was briefly covered at the end of chapter four but there is much more to the Snead

story. The eras of World War II, the expansion and opportunity of the 1950s and the changes of the 1960s would be of great interest to those within the Snead alumni, Snead employees, as well as the community. However, it would also provide an insight to the role of private and religious institutions in higher education. The struggles of Snead did not end with the Great Depression and neither did their success. The story of Snead Junior College in war, peace, and a changing society would be one that confronted several historic movements. The use of federal funds such as the G. I. Bill, the growth of education for women, issues of competition due to the pervasive state establishment of junior colleges, and the impact of integration are all areas of interests. Researchers could focus on the struggles of the World War II era and the expansion of education in post-World War II America, or the increase in educational opportunities and growth of the state junior college system of the state of Alabama, or the impact of integration on junior college education.

**Support from Methodists and the community.** The challenges of the Great Depression were met and overcome by Snead Seminary becoming Snead Junior College, but there would be other challenges as well. Throughout this document, the support of both the Episcopal Methodist Church, Methodist Episcopal women's groups, and the community were evident. Moving forward in history and facing issue such as wartime shortages of World War II and integration of education could show the response by the Methodist church. To what extent did the Methodist support change over time? Were there still benefactors such as Pfeiffer or had the era of bequeathing fortunes passed? What about the community support that seems so much in evidence in the newspapers cited? Did that continue or was there town and gown conflict? Last, what caused the thirty-two-year-old Methodist junior college to join the emerging state junior college movement in the state of Alabama and was this a religious, economic, or social cause or

a mix of all three? All of these questions would be a fitting addition to this work. Researchers should look at the role of denominational colleges, the increase or decrease of their support to educational institutions, and the heritage that religion plays in institutions that were founded by various denominations.

**The role of women in education.** The impact of women in education is usually tied to a few groundbreaking women who were singular in their activity but the pivotal role that women played in the formation of Snead Seminary and Snead Junior College point to the often unrecognized role of women in education that are external to the classroom. The role of Anna Elder specifically points to a woman who was educated, resourceful, and impacted the institution far beyond what was expected. Looking back her role was that of a trailblazer but what of other women? Are the histories written of men in higher education and by men of higher education negligent in the absence of the discussion of the role of women? It is very unlikely that Elder and Pfeiffer were the only women who took action and the story of other women would add diversity to the literature of higher education.

### **Recommendations for Practice and Policy**

**Recommendations for senior leadership.** The purpose of this study was to know how and why Snead Junior College was established. Today in the world of DNA and genealogy people search for their heritage. The question that many have included in their search is where their predecessors emigrated from or finding their past, such as adopted children finding their biological families. But I posit that educational institutions should do the same. Snead State Community College now has its 12th president, Joe Whitmore. As a new president, the information in this study would benefit him and future presidents as it would help them be more aware of the history of Snead State Community College and to understand the transformation

from a high school to a junior college. The establishment of a junior college is an example in publicity, determination, and knowledge of the heritage of which they are now a part. The history of Snead allows the president to see the community ties that helped to found Snead Seminary and eventually Snead Junior College. The transformation to a junior college is an example of the use historic parallels in the past that may compare to current issues that Snead may face in the future. Struggles such as economic downturns, pandemics, funding issues, and accreditation are all facets within the position of presidential decision making. Knowledge of the past will serve as examples that can be used in future endeavors such as providing information to the community and preparations for accreditations. Researchers or practitioners should consider actions taken in the past and their causes and effects on future decision making.

**Recommendations for college administrators and faculty.** The example of leadership shown by Fielder, Boatman, Elder, Fink, and Corley can serve as examples of both administrative and faculty leadership. The leaderships of Fielder and Boatman can show the positive way that administrators can facilitate communication about change and the future. These actions show that there are methods to disseminate information and pursue external entities. The external entities may be state officials, community leaders, or the community itself. The examples of Elder, Fink, and Corley can show faculty how their activities and support, both in the classroom and outside the classroom, can benefit the college environment. The actions of Elder during the small pox outbreak, the sacrifice of Fink in coming to Boaz to teach, and the love that Corley had for the subjects he taught and his support of students, all are examples that would be beneficial for faculty to emulate. The story of Snead is one of people at all levels who worked for the institution and improved it. Researchers or practitioners should consider the dedication that such leaders had and apply such dedication to modern issues and challenges.

**Recommendations for the community.** This study is beneficial for the community as it informs them in a part of their collective past. The establishment of Boaz in 1877 only predates the approval of Boaz Seminary by twenty-one years. From the arrival of the Elders in 1899 there was an educational influence that grew with the city of Boaz. Newspapers articles, histories of the College, yearbooks, and catalogs are held in the Boaz Public Library. Snead State Community College and its history is also a part of the history of the community. In numerous articles and celebrations of the institution the community was an active participant. The influence of the College is not only historic but is also current. This study will further solidify the relationship that community has with Snead State Community College and as it is a major employer and has an educational, economic, and cultural, impact in the city of Boaz. Researchers or practitioners should consider the impact that it has had on the educational, economic, and cultural life of the community.

## **Researcher Reflections**

### **The Role of the Church**

The founding of Boaz Seminary was dependent on the leaders of the community who were members of the Methodist Episcopal Church in Boaz, Alabama. One of the leading business owners was John H. Snead and he and other businessmen were concerned that the education of the community was underfunded and that it was actually non-existent for a period of time. Being a rural, farming area children were more needed in the fields than in the classrooms. The issue of students being absent to work on farms as well as the lack of funding and poor facilities caused concern within the business community. Snead contacted the Methodist Episcopal church to come to the aid of the community and establish and run a seminary which would eventually include elementary through high school classes. This type of

missionary work was one that the church was actively pursuing throughout the Appalachian region and they sent the Elders to establish and run a school.

This brief history was covered in the research but throughout the data was the large impact of the church itself on the school and the community. There were many references to meetings and celebrations that included bishops, lay leaders, and ministers. From the founding of the Seminary to the establishment of Snead Junior College, the church was an integral part of the disbursement of funding, placement of administrators, and data collection of the survey which showed a need for the establishment of a junior college.

At one of the first regional meetings held, Anna Elder was tasked with going to one of the yearly Methodist Episcopal meetings and soliciting funding from them for the running of the seminary. She was successful but in nearly every year there was a newspaper report of the president of the institution going to yearly meetings to ask for funding. The monies from tuition did not satisfy all the need for the Seminary and so the school was dependent on funding from the Church. Even during the Great Depression, Dr. Boatman went north to ask for funding. He came back with less money than was desired as the Depression was having an impact on donations. From this point on there was an emphasis on recruitment of more paying students to make up the shortfall.

The Methodist Episcopal church was also who appointed the presidency of the Seminary and junior college and it placed those with successful backgrounds and education to the post. These leaders were external to the community but they first owed their loyalty to the church. The leadership had some things in common. Most of the leadership had been ministers or held religious office within a college or university. Also, many of the leadership had been members of the Prohibition movement in America, whose goal was to outlaw the use of alcohol as a

beverage. The data showed that over and over such characteristics as religious posts and public Christian involvement were a part of the lives of the leadership at Snead.

With the founding of Snead Junior College, Dr. Boatman focused on Christian and moral education as did most of the leadership within the institution. Musical programs, ceremonies, formal events such as a cornerstone laying, and nearly every event was accompanied by bishops and ministers from within and external to the community who preached and focused on moral conduct. Within the newspaper reports the title of music sung and sermons given reflected on the moral focus of the church within Snead Seminary and Snead Junior College.

### **The Role of External Leadership**

The leadership of Boaz Seminary, Snead Seminary, and Snead Junior College reflected external persons who entered a small rural community and worked for the education of those who could attend the institution. Beginning with the Elders, who both came from Kansas, the leadership and faculty of the all eras of the institution were not from the region. This was an odd occurrence as even today small towns are often suspicious of outsiders and their impact on the community. Why would they have been accepted and in the case of the Elders, given praise? Likewise, the story of Dr. Fielder. Fielder was not only not from the area, the region, or the state but was from England. His experience was impressive having been the president of a university and founding another, but he was not of these people. From the impression by a student discussed in the body of the work he was nearly adored as was Dean Corley who was from Mississippi and also from Mississippi was Dr. Boatman. Boatman did attend John H. Snead Seminary but after he graduated he attended prestigious institutions, studied the junior college model, was a missionary in India, and had traveled a much of the world. What did these people have in their character that allowed them to be welcomed in the community without suspicion?

The reasons that the outsiders were accepted may be multifaceted and include their religious nature, their educational background, and their ability to work the denomination in a way that increased the opportunities in Boaz. First, the common factor is that of being the same denomination. Oral discussions about Snead include myths that may have a portion of truth or may be exaggerated. The oral traditions of the community are not stories that were found in the data but, whether true or not, have influenced the population and the institution. One myth is that of the struggle between two main churches. The Methodist Episcopal church and the Baptist church. Both were prominent in the area but the early leaders seemed to have been of the Methodist faith, Other oral history states that the mayor swapped from Methodist to Baptist through the history of the town. So why did the Methodist enter on the educational scene? I think it was that they who were in leadership roles within the community at the time. If those who had businesses were Methodists, then those that worked for them and were supportive of them may have been as well. This allowed the initial entrance of Methodist Episcopal missionaries to be accepted via their faith.

The next factor of acceptance may have been awe of those who were educated. Instead of disdain for education, the people of the area may have had a desire for greater education for their children. Since Boaz had only been in existence for about twenty years many of the residents were also new to the region and though farmers, saw the need for more education. As an example, consider Dr. Fielder and Dr. Boatman. They were most probably the most educated men in the community with the exception of a doctor or attorney. Their education would bring them prestige and deference that would allow them to pursue educational roles in the way that they saw fit. Again, oral tradition and undocumented statements often point to the rise of the Baptist church that coincided with the permanent establishment of public education with Boaz

High School and Boaz Middle School. Some posit that parents did not want the overly moral Methodist to indoctrinate their children but this statement was made without any basis of documentation. However, were this to be the case, it would point at a desire for educational opportunities. Some things that do remain even more mysterious were the burning of the boy's and girl's homes. Both were considered arson as accelerants were found where the fires started. Who would have intentionally set these fires and why? Were they disgruntled students? Were they those of another denomination? Were they those against prohibition? These questions will probably never be answered but they do give some doubt that everyone was happy with the Seminary.

Lastly, even if there were denominational shifts and issues there was not a question that the Methodist Episcopal Church had provided, improved, and implemented an entity that was an asset to the area. Starting with the building of the girl's home with monies provided by Methodist missionary donations, the improvement of the first building the Seminary occupied, and then the building of the Administration Building in 1920-1921, the physical plant was impressive for the region. With the building of the gymnasium, said to be the best in the state, the expansion of athletic teams was of interest in the community. Also, the influx of on-campus housing that was within walking distance of downtown, had the opportunity to impact the community economically.

The opportunity of athletic competition was greatly covered in the newspapers and the town seemed to attend and support these teams. The state basketball championship of 1926 is a good example of how the institution brought glory to the city. The newspaper accounts always listed the hometowns of the athletes and this coverage was good public relations for all of the surrounding region. Also, those students living on campus contributed to the local economy. The

downtown portion of Boaz was one block from the campus and very few places were off limits to the students. Supplies, reading books, clothing, candy, ice cream, and transportation via train were a very short walk away from campus. The students that attended Snead Seminary were paying tuition and room and board, however in the early days there was no housing for boys so they rented from the local citizenry. This too brought needed income and was a positive economic impact. After the opening of Fielder auditorium in 1920, the campus was the cultural hub of the region and put on plays, musical entertainments, and tableaux. Even if one did not agree with the politics, religion, or the fact that the leaders were not from the locality, one could not argue that the institution had not been a benefit in education, athletics, art, culture, and economics of the city.

### **The Role of Women at Snead**

Woven throughout the data and this writing is the story of the women of Snead. This focus was not one that is immediately evident. Their story is one that builds over time but is unmistakably pivotal in the role of the institution from the moment of its founding. It is not a story that is pushed forward as a theme but uncovers itself throughout the reading. As I wrote and edited and wrote and revised it was only upon reading a finished draft that I realized that women were at the core of the story of Snead.

The role of women is often overlooked. Until the 1960s there was no such thing as women's studies and the role of women in society was little discussed in history. In the modern era we are finding that women ruled ancient civilizations, were philosophers in the Enlightenment, and that matriarchal societies flourished in what was called the new world. The Victorian mode of thinking that focused on the women's sphere of being a mother and homemaker greatly influenced the women who founded the Seminary and the Snead Junior

College but did not define them. Boaz Seminary, John H. Snead Seminary, and Snead Junior College were from the beginning co-educational institutions. Though the curriculum for female students was often traditional and included home economics, music, or education, the junior college curriculum of languages, history, mathematics and religious studies were available for both men and women.

The beginning of the story of Boaz Seminary is with the Elders. Both Elders graduated college in 1877. For a woman to have completed high school, much less college, was a feat during this era. A quick nod to history helps to put this in perspective. The American Civil War had drawn to a close barely twenty years before Anna Elder had graduated college and Queen Victoria had been the only queen of England that she had even known. This era had telegrams but not consistent electricity, running water, or utilities. By the end of the nineteenth century Elder and her husband were sent to Alabama and then to Boaz. Once arrived they lived in a cabin and began to teach students. At an early meeting she was tasked with going to the Midwest and soliciting funding for the new Seminary and she later traveled to St. Louis, Chicago, and New York city in the first years of the twentieth century. Again, imagine the times in which she lived. Boarding a train, traveling to metropolitan areas, finding accommodations, securing her belongings and cash. No internet, not reservations, no credit cards. She was said to have spoken sixty-seven times in sixty-six days. She spoke before a large audience in New York city and in future trips would carry items made by the students in the girl's home as example of their handiwork.

Elder's trips encouraged donations but also encouraged people such as Harriett Fink and her sister to come to the seminary with the missionary zeal to bring educational opportunities to the region. Previously Elder and her daughter had focused on the elementary grades and Elder

was the principal of the elementary school while her husband was principal of the high school. Historically, female faculty seldom were in any form of administration and at this time it was not unusual for a woman to quit work when they were married. Elder however, not only worked but held an administrative role. Also, in the data researched, several faculty meeting minute books were found that included women who were active in the decision-making process within the institution. Female faculty were included, were listed as speaking within the meetings, and their views were recorded.

I posit in my writing that without Anna Elder that the Seminary may not have been as stable and that the stability of the Seminary was necessary for the formation of Snead Junior College to begin. The activities of Elder that support my argument begin with her solicitation of funds to establish the seminary, continue with funding she collected for the girl's home, the teaching and leadership in the elementary grades and the running of the girl's home throughout her tenure at Snead. This list is incomplete without the stories of fires and the small pox epidemic on campus. After the burning of the girl's home Elder again ask for funding to rebuild. She received the funding but did something amazing and that was she included a hospital floor. Why would she do that? How did she oversee and consider the building of a new structure that would portend the future pandemic?

The story of how Elder quarantined, cared for students, and fumigated the facility is one of perseverance on an epic scale but when looking deeper into the process there are more questions. How did she as a woman of that time acquire such agency to prepare for an event that she did not know would occur and one that could have easily closed the school or at the least tarnished its' reputation in the community? Her immediate action was to quarantine, contact local authorities, contact medical officials, and establish a routine. Again, myth says that classes

continued in quarantine and this myth I tend to believe. The local newspaper accounts referred to her by her name, not that of her husband, and her word was taken as truth during and after the pandemic. The action on her part was one of a trailblazer. The what ifs of Elders actions could have been less stringent, the populace of Boaz could have been full-blown epidemic, the reputation of the school could have been destroyed due to negligence. The fate of the seminary could have been sealed with one bad decision. Elder, made the right decision at the right time. It was not a decision that her world had prepared her for but, it was a decision for which she had prepared herself.

The Seminary era of Snead was the time of Anna Elder but the woman of the junior college era was Annie Pfeiffer. Often she was referred to as Mrs. Henry Pfeiffer, as were most women of the day. She was said to control the fortune that he had amassed and was a proponent of the idea of giving away wealth. She is again a part of the myths of Snead. Oral tradition holds that she had her own railway car that was her home when visiting Snead but true or not her story is more than that of possessions held but of possessions shared. Due to the influence of Carnegie, she freely shared the wealth of her family and the events in the story of Snead Junior College would not have occurred had it not been for her gifts.

Dr. Boatman had been hired to establish a junior college at Snead Seminary and had planned to have it formed by 1933 but the Great Depression and lack of local donations did not allow that to be realized and by mid-1935 the story was no better. After being apprised of the history of Snead Seminary and the need for funding Annie Pfeiffer donated four-fifths of the money needed to establish Snead Junior College. Again, the agency of a woman, who worked in the shadow of her husband, came to the forefront. She became the savior of the junior college in Boaz, but she was not finished.

In 1940 the new library at Snead Junior College opened and was partially funded by Pfeiffer. This library was not only for the college but was also for the community and included current books and children's books as well as research material. The myths within its building speak to the difficulty of getting steel and glass due to the growing war in Europe and the changing of industry to war manufacturing. However, Pfeiffer was not through. During the middle of World War II, she built, of her own funds, a dormitory for girls that would be named after her. There was no record found that discussed the issues of building this dormitory but they had to be many in number. Consider the fact that people were getting one pair of shoes a year, were limited on sugar, were limited on canned goods, and glass and building materials were nearly impossible to acquire. Pfeiffer had to have some amazing connections to be able to build such a structure in the middle of a war. The word agency would underrepresent the power that she had.

The belief that Elder and Pfeiffer had in their missions, one for teaching and on for building, are pivotal in the story of Snead. Without these two women there would be no Snead Junior College. There may not have even been a seminary that survived World War II. These women were not of their time but were truly trailblazers in women's agency and power. Both born before women had the right to vote. Both overcoming obstacles that we may never know. Both proving that women are a part of the story of higher education. Today, we have never had a female president of Snead State Community College. Our myths, our legends, and our histories of Snead focus on the two Elders, Mrs. Henry Pfeiffer, Dr. Fielder, Dr. Boatman, and even more recent administrators but this research has caused me to wonder. Where are the women? This research has caused me to continue to search and explore and know that the story of Snead Junior College is a tapestry of individuals and entities. It is the story of a denomination that

wanted to bring education to a region where it was needed. It is the story of leadership that immigrated to the region and through work and innovation brought forth a junior college. And, it is the story of women. Women who could have been forgotten. Women who were perceived as helpers but in fact, they were ones that created the institution that is still teaching the youth of north Alabama and is after 85 years still training hand, heart, and mind.

### **Conclusion**

This research fills a gap in the literature of junior college formation in several ways. First, the story of most junior colleges have a variety of influences and a variety of theories that discuss the founding of two-year colleges. However, in the cases of religious and private institutions there is little more than statistics that list raw numbers and with what entity they were associated. These institutions would be tied to specific denominations or groups and were in little communication with state authorities. The story of Snead Junior College is a narrative that fills that gap. Although it is one story it can, along with stories from similar institutions, provide an understanding of the reasons and methods of private and religious junior college origins. If multiple histories can be taken together they would provide a view through a different lens and add to the story of junior college formation in America.

The purpose of this study was to better understand the formation of a junior college in Boaz that became Snead Junior college and is today known as Snead State Community College. The purpose is fulfilled by the story of the foundation laid at the Boaz Seminary, the first steps toward a junior college, and the plans for and implementation of Snead Junior College. The foundation of Boaz Seminary and later Snead Seminary was necessary to the founding of Snead Junior college. The Seminary was founded and established a reputation that allowed it to continue receiving funding from the Methodist Episcopal church. It also attracted the attention of

the community and prospective students. The original support that the Methodist church supplied would not have continued if Snead Seminary had been a failed enterprise. The stability shown during the Seminary phase at Snead allowed a firm foundation for the idea of a junior college to be accepted by the national Methodist leadership. Upon investigation by a needs survey in 1929 the move toward a junior college was begun. The planning and implementation of Snead Junior College was led by Boatman who came to Snead Seminary with the goal of establishing a junior college. Through fundraising and individual contributions, he established Snead Junior College.

The three research questions that answered the purpose of the study were: What were the foundations of Snead Junior College? Who were the people involved in creating Snead Junior College? And what were the reasons for founding Snead Junior College? Research of historic documents and records answered these questions and provided insight as to the formation of a junior college in Boaz, Alabama. The overarching themes that guided the work included the impact and innovation of religious institutions that were founded due to missionary zeal, individuals that created and sustained these institutions, and reaction of both internal and external stimuli. All of these factors culminated in the creation of Snead Junior College. These themes led the researcher through the data to answer the questions that were posed. The College could not have been created and formed had it not been under the themes researched.

The founding of Snead Junior College was based on the positive reputation of Snead Seminary. The confidence that the Methodist denomination, as well as individual donors had, in the institution laid the foundation for expansion into a junior college. The people involved in creation of the Snead Junior College included some of those that were a part of the well-run Seminary but also included new people. Part of the firm foundation of the Seminary was due to Fielder but he also was the originator of investigating the idea of a junior college. Fielder

brought the idea of a junior college to the Methodist Episcopal leadership and feasibility plans were begun. The plans for Snead Junior College were implemented by Boatman who led the funding campaign. Boatman was the first president of Snead Junior College when it opened in the Fall of 1935. The funding campaign originally fell short of its goal and without the help of Pfeiffer's donation of \$100,000 the College would not have opened in the fall of 1935. Last, the several reasons for the founding of Snead Junior College included topics on education, morality, and job preparation. Within education, the junior college movement was considered past the experimental stage and was a factor of American education. The junior college also provided more individualized instruction for the student than they could receive at large universities. The influence of values similar to that of the student's home, and the development of a moral character, were reasons that were aimed particularly at the parents. Last there was a presentation of the importance of two types of instruction. The idea of technical education would prepare the student for work after two years of instruction and reflected the need for technical education in the modern workforce. The other idea was that of a college preparatory function that would allow students to transfer courses to a university so that they could pursue a four-year degree. These various points were all advertised as reasons that Snead Junior College would be a benefit to students and the community.

The original contributions that I have brought to the story of the junior college movement are of an individual story of a private, religious institution, the role of women in the junior college movement, and the diversity of leadership experience within a local junior college. All of these ideas show a new facet to the origin of junior colleges and how they were established. The literature discusses reasons and theories but the founding of Snead Junior College provided a story that more fully illuminates the local activity and individual work of those in the field of

education. The individual story of one institution on its own may not be important. It may have relevance for that institution alone and its view of its own history. However, when taken with other individual stories it begins to create a narrative of the junior college movement from differing perspectives and is part of the tapestry of the two-year educational innovation. The perspective of this research was that of a religious, private institution that evolved from an elementary and high school model to a junior college model. In the literature there was some evidence of high schools added junior college classes, but none found that included elementary models. The religious element of missionary zeal was never fully discussed in the general literature and this element is the underpinning of the founding of Snead Junior College.

Another contribution is the discovery of the integral role of women in the stability prior to and the founding of Snead Junior College. The stability to Snead Seminary created a foundation from which the junior college would be created. Elder came with her husband to the mission field of Boaz, Alabama. They were to offer education to local students but, over time, her role far exceeded his. It was Elder who solicited funding for Boaz Seminary and for the female residence hall. And it was she who was in charge the elementary grades and provided stability for the institution. The other important woman was Pfeiffer, who donated \$100,000 to fund a foundation which allowed accreditation of the new junior college. Without the actions of these two women there might not have been a junior college founded.

The final contribution was the diversity of leadership that was attracted to Snead Seminary and Snead Junior College. The literature of junior college formation discussed issues such as local pride and desire to have an institution in their city but did not go into depth as to the individuals who were a part of the individual college. The idea of missionary zeal brought people to Snead that were not from the area, and in many cases not even from the region.

Administration that envisioned and implemented Snead Junior College had backgrounds in education and experience in leadership. Also, faculty for the new junior college came from a wide array of prestigious universities and from locations far from Boaz.

The contributions of an individual junior college story, the integral role of women, and the diversity of leadership gave a view of junior college formation that is not reflected in much detail within the pervasive literature. The story of Snead Junior College was one of evolution, hardship, and perseverance of the individual. It was a story that is of the community as well as of individuals who were not from the community. This story told of the creations of an institution that began serving students in 1935 but is still serving students today and further comments on the role of the educator in advancing not just learning but also innovation.

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APPENDIX A:

GENERAL LISTING OF AVAILABLE HISTORIC RESOURCES

**John H. Snead Seminary**

Catalogue 1919-1920 Announcement 1920-1921	Calendar, faculty, history, courses of study, roll of students (senior to first grade), photographs
Catalogue 1921-1922 Announcement 1922-1923	Calendar, faculty, history, courses of study, roll of students (senior to first grade), photographs
Catalogue 1922-1923 Announcement 1923-1924	Calendar, faculty, history, courses of study, roll of students (senior to first grade), photographs
Catalogue 1925-1926 Announcement 1926-1927	Calendar, faculty, history, courses of study, roll of students photographs (junior I, II, III and Senior I, II, III)
Catalogue 1926-1927 Announcement 1927-1928	Calendar, faculty, history, courses of study, roll of students photographs (junior I, II, III and Senior I, II, III)
Catalogue 1928-1929 Announcement 1929-1930	Calendar, faculty, history, courses of study, roll of students photographs (junior I, II, III and Senior I, II, III)
Catalogue 1929-1930 Announcement 1930-1931	Calendar, faculty, history, courses of study, roll of students photographs (junior I, II, III and Senior I, II, III)
Also listed in all were the following specific classes and those who were enrolled in them:	Piano, voice, violin, harmony, expression, domestic science, domestic art

Snead Junior College, Bulletin, (co-educational), Snead Academy (co-educational) Dedication Number Announcements 1935-1936	This is the first catalog, July 1935, boards of control, faculty, organization of the Boaz Seminary, article on "Why the Junior College?", general information, education/curriculum, and the academy. Only two pictures and no listing of students.
Bulletin: Snead Junior College/Snead Academy Announcements 1936-1937	Calendar, faculty, courses of study, class descriptions, freshman and academy student lists
Bulletin: Snead Junior College/Snead Academy Announcements 1937-1938	Calendar, faculty, courses of study, class descriptions, sophomore, freshman and academy student lists in graduating, senior II, and senior I and post graduate.

Bulletin of Snead Junior College Announcements 1938-1939	Calendar, faculty, courses of study, class descriptions, sophomore, freshman and academy student lists in graduating, senior II, and senior I and post graduate.
Bulletin of Snead Junior College Announcements 1939-1940	Calendar, faculty, courses of study, class descriptions, sophomore, freshman and academy student lists in graduating, senior II, and senior I and post graduate.
Bulletin of Snead Junior College Catalog 1941-1942 Announcements 1942-1943	Calendar, faculty, courses of study, class descriptions, sophomore, along with regular course, education course, commerce course, home economic course, agriculture course, music course. "The Advantage of The Junior College" article.

The following bulletins show requirements for each degree, description of courses, basic rules and lists of faculty members. From this point on there is no specific listing of individual students.

Bulletin of Snead Junior College Catalog 1945-1946	Announcements 1946-1947
Bulletin of Snead Junior College Catalog 1946-1947	Announcements 1947-1948
Bulletin of Snead Junior College February 1951	Announcements 1951-1952
Bulletin of Snead Junior College February 1952	Announcements 1952-1953
Bulletin of Snead Junior College February 1953	Announcements 1953-1954
Bulletin of Snead Junior College February 1954	Announcements 1954-1955
Bulletin of Snead Junior College February 1955	Announcements 1955-1956
Bulletin of Snead Junior College May 1956	Announcements 1956-1957
Bulletin of Snead Junior College August 1957	Announcements 1957-1958
Bulletin of Snead Junior College August 1958	Announcements 1958-1959

### List of Yearbooks Beginning in 1936

Hour Glass	1936-1941 and 1943
The Pines	1958-1967, 1969-1970, 1972, 1973, 1977, 1979-1980, and 1981

### Newspapers

The Boaz Leader	1869-early 1940s
The Sand Mountain Reporter	1930s-1940s

APPENDIX B:

EVOLUTION OF NAME CHANGES

1898	Boaz Seminary	Established by Methodist Episcopal church
1906	John H. Snead Seminary	Named for benefactor who expanded the land, sold land, and relieved the school debt
1935	Snead Junior College	Establishment of junior college
1967	Snead State Junior College	Joining of the system of state supported two-year education in Alabama
1992	Snead State Community College	Expansion from junior college in technical offerings

*Note.* Historic Marker at Norton Building on the campus of Snead State Community College

## APPENDIX C:

### TIMELINE OF EDUCATION THAT LEADS TO SNEAD STATE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

#### 1899-1906

- Boaz Seminary Authorized by Methodist Episcopal Church (1898)
  - E.B.L. Elder family comes to Boaz, second week in June (1899)
  - Lived in three room house on Church Street
  - School Building donated to the Alabama Conference
  - Renovated and painted by funding from John H. Snead
- School opens July 17 1899 with 70 pupils under E.B.L Elder as principle and Ann Elder as vice-principal
- Rapid grown necessitated Expansion
  - E.B.L Elder –Higher Grades
  - Anna Elder-Grammar Grades
  - Myra Elder (daughter) Primary Grades
  - Julia Street first non-family teacher (1900)
  - First boarding student in November 1899-Daisy Hafley
- Industrial Home Later Named Rebecca McClesky Home
  - First added to home of principal
  - Acquired additional cottages for dorms
  - Land north of Seminary donated by John. H. Snead
  - Home built under the auspices of Women’s Home Missionary Society (January, 19, 1905-Dedication)
  - Enlarged summer of 1906
  - Burned October 1906
  - Rebuilt 1907 (Cornerstone laid July 4, 1907)
- Boaz Seminary 1899-1906

- Principal, E.B.L Elder Assistant Principal Anna Elder (1899-1902)
- Principal, John T. Terry (1902-1904)
- Principal, W.P. Weston (1904-1906)
- John H. Snead Seminary (1906-1935)
  - Dr. John L. Brasher (first president) (1906-1911)
  - No President-Directed by L.F. Corley (1911-1914)
  - Dr. William Fielder (second president) (1914-1931)
  - Dr. Conway Boatman (third president) (1931-1938)
  - Joseph Warren Broyles (fourth president) (1939-1942)
  - Dr. Festus M. Cook (fifth president) (1942-1954)
  - Virgil B. McCain Jr. (sixth president) (1954-1959)
  - John P. Tyson (seventh president) (1959-1967)
  - Jesse Culp (interim president) (June 10-July 1967)
- Snead State Junior College
  - Dr. Virgil B. McCain Jr. (eighth president) (1967-1978)

## APPENDIX D:

### TIMELINE FOR BUILDINGS OF SNEAD

- Pre-1899-Originally the school was a little log house with rough benches and an open fireplace
- 1899-Coming of the Elders- and “L” shaped building with a big room in the front and smaller room at the back. The building had no foundation and stood on stone pillars.
- 1907-Rebecca McCleskey Home – 110 rooms for women. Steam heat, electricity and gas, parlors, library (with 2,000 volumes), director’s residence, verandas, hospital, classes for domestic service. Owned and run by Woman’s Home Mission Society.
- 1910-1916-Group of cottages for boy students arranged by Anna Elder. Separate dining hall for boys in the basement of McCleskey.
- 1916-Eliza Pollock-Lipe Home erected. Housing for superintendent and teachers, 46 bedrooms for boy students, dining room, parlor, library, office. As of this Anna Elder did not have to feed the boys.
- 1921/1922-Administration Building
- 1925-Gym built from Morton land. First indoor gym owned by a school north of Birmingham. Lighted with electricity and heated by steam.
- 1928-Morton Part was purchased and improved as an athletic field for men.
- 1935-Presidents Home (Boatman Hall) built due to Mrs. Henry Pfeiffer. Eight room two story with sun parlor and porte-cochere and colonial doorway.
- 1933-Gift from Mrs. Florence Collins of Havana, Illinois, to purchase the 81 acre McCleskey Farm so that students could earn their tuition by growing food for the Seminary.
- 1935-Snead becomes a Junior College
- 1938-College takes over McCleskey Hall, renovates and it serves both men and women.
- 1938-Last high school classes phased out of Snead Junior College
- 1940-Norton Library built

- 1941-Gift from Kresge Foundation to purchase 60 more acres of land.
- 1943-Henry Pfeiffer Hall opens housing 86 women
- **Document is photo-copies. Title is “Buildings” and goes through the year 1995.**

## APPENDIX E:

### EXAMPLE OF FACULTY MEETING MINUTES

February 5<sup>th</sup> 1915

The faculty met with Dr. Fielder in the chair and the following persons present: L. F. Corley, Mrs. Elder, Mrs. Snead, Misses Stuart, Corley, Fink, Owens, L Hancer, and Maxwell. The teachers gave oral reports of their respective work.

It was agreed by common consent to observe the College Day of Prayer with some appropriate exersines (sic) morning and evening.

The following order of programs was arranged for the closing days of school:

April 24 Third, fourth and fifth gr.

May 1- Sixth and seventh gr.

May 2- Baccalaureate by Dr. Fielder

May 3- Atkins Oratorical Contest

May 4- 10 AM class day by Seniors

May 4- 7:30 PM Musical Recital

May 5- 10 AM Graduating

May 5- 8 PM Reception at Home by officers and teachers

A motion was sustained to have one and only one pay program during the Commencement Program and it was further agreed that the music department should give said program and receive the proceeds after deducting the cost of printing the programs. The prices of admission were fixed at 10 and 20 cents.

A motion to have one general school picnic was carried.

**Ledger of faculty meeting minutes from August 17, 1914 to March 22, 1916**