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NON-MILITARY EDUCATION AND THE UNITED STATES ARMY: A HISTORY

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By

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I. INTRODUCTION

The Present Military Educational System

One of the largest educational systems in the world is also one of the least well known. Few people, even those who have been in the Armed Forces, are aware of the wide range of educational programs available to the serviceman.

Service schools are of course operated primarily to provide the military with trained personnel skilled to operate a complex administrative machine as well as a highly technical combat organization. Many of these courses have been found to be worthy of recognition for college level credit by the American Council on Education's Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences. Two universities in particular have been extremely cooperative in allowing credit--the University of Maryland; the University of Nebraska at Omaha--but many others have also indicated their acceptance of the Commission's standards in recent years. Examples of the type of courses awarded credits include "Accounting Specialist," "Finance Operations Non-Commissioned Officer," "Hawk Missile and Launcher Repair," and "Medical Specialist." Many other courses are of a vocational-technical nature and of course bring no college credit, but such are often very useful in civilian

occupations, Jet Engine Mechanics, for example. Unfortunately, there are certain courses not readily adaptable to civilian life except in a few highly illegal pursuits. Even then a combat infantryman might have difficulty finding employment since the KKK, Mafia, and the Black Panthers are not equal opportunity employers.

The GED or General Educational Development Program is designed to be a more direct benefit to the individual. From personal experience interviewing thousands of soldiers, I estimate that one quarter or more have dropped out of formal schooling, usually between 10th and 11th grade. Since a man cannot usually be promoted to the rank of sergeant in today's army if he lacks a high school diploma, the Services make special provision to help him obtain it. In six to eight weeks of concentrated half day classes in English, literature, math, natural sciences, and social studies, the soldier is prepared to take the five part battery of tests nationally recognized for high school diploma or equivalency awarding.

College level testing is another service offered by the Education Centers on each military post. Through another set of five tests--English, math, social science, natural science, and humanities--published by the College Entrance Examination Board, the soldier may be able to obtain 30 credit hours advanced standing, picking up six in each subject area. The University of Nebraska and the

University of Maryland will accept these credits toward a four year degree, as will an ever-increasing number of other institutions. These testing services, like most others in the Education Centers, are available without cost to the serviceman.

Correspondence courses are useful in advancing the education of men in the military who work odd hours or are transferred too often to attend regular classes. Two types are offered: the USAFI (United States Armed Forces Institute) Courses; and those of "Co-operating Colleges and Universities." USAFI provides hundreds of high school and college level courses in subjects ranging from "Basic Reading Skills" to "Differential Equations." A soldier initially pays a five dollar fee for enrollment but is given additional courses free as long as he successfully completes his last course. End-of-course tests may also be taken for credit if an individual feels he has the information based on job experience, reading, or travel. The courses offered by the Co-operative Colleges, usually one in each state, are more expensive, but can be useful to a man who plans to attend one particular school on this list when his term of service is up and wishes to guarantee acceptance of these course credits.

For those individuals who can look forward to a stable assignment for at least three months, the Education Centers offer off-duty classes, many for college credit.

Instructors are obtained either from a list of qualified Service personnel or from a nearby college. If a college is within commuting distance, soldiers are encouraged to attend evening classes on campus, with the Army picking up three-quarters of the tuition bill. This does not affect in any way the GI's entitlement to the educational benefits offered under the current "GI Bill." As a matter of fact, a serviceman could obtain total payment for his courses under the Bill, while still on active duty, if he had completed over two years service.

In my estimation the most interesting and beneficial program is Project Transition. Set up at bases around the country in January 1968, its goal is to see that GI's receive the following services within their last six months of active duty: 1) education to insure that all can obtain a high school equivalency or diploma if such is lacking; 2) counseling to help the GI decide on the job or definite educational or vocational training plans he will pursue after his discharge; 3) training to help him achieve his goals; and 4) placement assistance in finding a job. To accomplish these goals Transition has three divisions--Counseling, Training, and Placement. The individual first fills out an autobiographical questionnaire to give the counselor some idea of his personal background, schooling, civilian job experience, and military service. Depending on these, his expressed future plans, and the counselor's

recommendation, he might be scheduled for one or more of the 35 different psychological measurement instruments available. It is probable that he will take an interest inventory, such as a "Kuder Preference Record" or a "Strong Vocational Interest Blank," and one of the aptitude test batteries; the "General Aptitude Test Battery" or the "Differential Aptitude Test." A "School and College Ability Test" may be given if he contemplates college; a mechanical aptitude test if he is thinking of a trade. The counselor uses the test results very carefully, comparing them with the individual's pre-induction tests if possible. Allowance is made for individual drive and enthusiasm for a particular line of work. Appropriate training, if available, is then offered the serviceman.

The number and types of training courses vary with the size of the military installation and the proximity of major metropolitan areas. At Fort Dix, New Jersey, for example, if an individual is considering college but lacks a proper high school background, he may be enrolled in the "College Discovery Program." There he will have 3 months of college preparation, four hours in the afternoon and four in the evening, under teachers sent down from one of the colleges in the City University of New York system. After successful completion of the course, he is guaranteed admission to Staten Island Community College or one of the other colleges in the system. Aid, in the form of letters,

visits, and phone calls, is also given for placement in schools in other areas of the country. Within the CUNY system, special provision is made to follow him through college and, if necessary, furnish financial aid. The Training Division provides, all told, between 16 and 20 different industry sponsored training courses, varying in length from three up to twelve weeks. Other examples would include: General Motors Auto Mechanics Course; Aluminum Siding Installation; RCA Radio-TV Repair; Seaboard Finance Credit Managers Course; a Police Academy which is recognized by New York and New Jersey; and Bell Telephone's Lineman Course.

Job placement is naturally one of the most important areas in a program such as this. The Placement Division at Fort Dix maintains contact with over 500 nationally-known companies who require personnel in many different fields and in many sections of the country. Each man who desires assistance has access to a resume service and to the numerous "career conferences" held, which bring in company representatives to conduct personal interviews. While placement was naturally easier for the Fort Dix soldier who planned to stay in the New York City, Philadelphia, or New Jersey area, the presence of large corporations with widely scattered operations enabled many men to obtain employment through referrals to regional offices in other parts of the country. If all else failed, the individual's card was forwarded to the state employment service in his home area.

How Did the Present Military Educational System Develop?

From the above few paragraphs one can readily see that a quite comprehensive system of non-military education does indeed exist. I became associated with this system at the U.S. Army Education Center on Fort Dix during the years 1965 to 1970. First I merely took advantage of a few correspondence courses and group study classes while on active duty; later I worked to establish Transition, the new training program; and finally, I served as director of the complete education program for two small posts and an Army stockade near Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. Occasionally the thought would cross my mind, "How long has the Military been engaged in sponsoring education of this type--education that is quite obviously not directly related to fulfilling its primary mission?" Being a curious individual, I asked some of the "old timers" and found, to my surprise, that no one had any idea as to the answer. Examination of available literature in the Education Center only provided me with the date, December 24, 1941, for the founding of the United States Armed Forces Institute, that issuer of correspondence courses ranging from Russian History to Melanesian Pidgin English. The Post Library was of just as little help, so my question had to be put off until the resources of a university library were available. Now, at long last, I feel that an answer will be found.

Review of the Literature

Although no specific study has been made which attempts to deal with the complete historical evolution of the United States Military's growing involvement in non-military education, several unpublished doctoral dissertations touch on the subject. The most useful appears to be "Non-Military Education in the United States Army and Air Force, 1900-1960" by Rudolph Schwartz.[1] Dr. Schwartz's purpose was to trace the development of non-military education in the above two services from 1900 to 1960, with particular emphasis on the period 1948 to 1960. He devotes only a brief glance at the nineteenth century roots of this phenomenon and spends little time on the activities during and immediately after World War I. Due to the completion of his study in 1964, the whole period of the 1960's, with the Vietnam War and its attendant educational programs, like Project 100,000 and Project Transition, is missed altogether.

All other dissertations lack an historical approach to the subject and deal only with studies of the success or failure of veterans in college programs, surveys on principles of administration used in Army Education Programs, etc.

Few books can be found dealing with the Military and education. For the vocational re-education of the WWI

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[1]Rudolph Schwartz, "Non-Military Education in the United States Army and Air Force, 1900-1960," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, New York University, 1964).

disabled, Douglas C. McMurtrie's The Evolution of National Systems of Vocational Re-education for Disabled Soldiers and Sailors provides an excellent background, when supplemented by articles of the period.[1] World War II's experiences with the establishment of American universities for servicemen overseas can be documented through two books written by participants in the program: Robert G. Bone's A History of Shrivenham American University;[2] and James G. Umstattd's B.A.U. in Action; Teaching and Learning at Biarritz American University.[3]

Periodicals provide a richer source of information on the subject, though usually only on the particular war period during which they were written. An exception to this rule is, "ABC's for the American Enlisted Man: The Army Post School System 1866-1898" by Bruce White.[4] In addition, two articles treat briefly the role of the Union Army as an educational institution during the Civil War. The first, by Dudley

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[1]Douglas G. McMurtrie, The Evolution of National Systems of Vocational Re-education for Disabled Soldiers and Sailors (Washington, D.C.: Federal Board for Vocational Education, 1918).

[2]Robert G. Bone, A History of Shrivenham American University (Swindon, Wiltshire: Swindon Press Ltd., 1946).

[3]James G. Umstattd, B.A.U. in Action; Teaching and Learning at Biarritz American University (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1947).

[4]Bruce White, "ABC's for the American Enlisted Man: The Army Post School System 1866-1898," History of Education Quarterly, 8:479-96, Winter, 1968.

Taylor Cornish, appeared in the Journal of Negro History and was titled, "The Union Army as a School for Negroes."[1] The second, "The Union Army as an Educational Institution for Negroes, 1862-1865" was written by J. W. Blassingame and published in the Journal of Negro Education.[2] Cornish finds little if any formal program for educating Black volunteers, but has discovered a number of references to educational activity for these individuals in private papers and Civil War memoirs of the commanders of Black units. Especially interesting are the letters of LTC Charles Frances Adams Jr., son of the wartime minister to Britain and commander of the 5th Massachusetts Cavalry, a Black regiment, which are quoted in the article.[3]

Very few articles seem to have appeared in the late nineteenth century on non-military education for the services, or on education or training of any type in the military. The same situation persists in the early twentieth century up to the First World War. World War I, however, found many writers eager to speculate on educational problems and the military, mostly in terms of physical, emotional, and vocational re-education of the war-disabled. Only one article that was

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[1]Dudley T. Cornish, "The Union Army as a School for Negroes," Journal of Negro History, 37:368-82, October, 1952.

[2]J. W. Blassingame, "The Union Army as an Educational Institution for Negroes," Journal of Negro Education, 34: 152-9, Spring, 1965.

[3]Cornish, op. cit.

examined considered the average non-disabled soldier as having any problem requiring educational assistance. In "The Problem of the Returning Soldier," B. S. Morgan anticipates the practice of later war eras by stressing that the "machinery of reconstruction" has four classes of men to deal with: 1) able-bodied men without a position to return to or who are seeking a change; 2) slightly wounded men who are able to work without special training; 3) disabled men dependent on re-education for a livelihood; and 4) permanently disabled men incapable of training.[1] Other writers during the First World War and early '20's reveal the workings of the Veterans' Bureau, including the usual Harding era "scandal," and the Federal Board for Vocational Education, which dealt with disabled veterans as well.

A brief glimpse of the academic and vocational training provided for the "boys in France" appears in a nostalgic article printed in Education Record a year prior to U.S. entry into World War II. According to J. Erskine in "Train Conscripts for War--and for Peace," the Army inaugurated a huge educational program in France after the Armistice with its own schools, extension courses, and an American Expeditionary Force University at Beaune. Subjects ranging from automobile repair to Greek grammar, and from sign painting to dentistry were taught. In the AEF

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[1] B. S. Morgan, "The Problem of the Returning Soldier," North American Review, 208:524-35, October, 1918.

University, there were labs in chemistry, physics, bacteriology, medicine, engineering, and music supplied largely from Army resources. At its peak period, three quarters of the Army's two million men were enrolled in some program of studies, most voluntarily. Attendance at basic education courses was made compulsory for those soldiers who were illiterate. Since Erskine was Chairman of the Army Education Commission and organizer of the American Expeditionary Forces University in Beaune, it seems a real loss that he did not record his activities of the time in something a bit more comprehensive than a four page article.[1]

The period of the 1930's is marked by an extreme scarcity of articles relating to the military and education. This was probably due to the rapid shrinking of the services from their 2-1/2 million man "citizen militia" at the close of World War I down to a slightly over 150,000 group of volunteers isolated from the general society. Once the veterans had been reabsorbed, no further attention to the military seemed necessary, unless to decry the use of Federal troops against their former comrades in the case of the Bonus Marchers of 1930.

An expansion of the Army following our entry into World War II brought renewed concern with it and its educational responsibilities. From articles published in the

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[1] J. Erskine, "Train Conscripts for War--and for Peace," Education Record, 21:441-4, October, 1940.

next decade we find that on December 24, 1941, the War Department authorized the establishment of the Army Institute, a correspondence school for enlisted men. Accepting all ranks and services after redesignation in 1943 as the United States Armed Forces Institute, this educational facet of the U.S. Military has continued to expand over the years right up to the present. Other, more formal efforts, under the Special Training Program, were made to raise the educational level of this war's share of illiterates, slow learners, and non-English speakers. One account of the Special Training Units, with special emphasis on their application to the Black soldier, is "Army Education and Problems of Negro Education," by A. G. Trudeau.[1]

Concern was manifest quite early in the war about the educational efforts to be made on behalf of veterans. "The Armed Forces Committee on Postwar Educational Opportunities for Service Personnel," appointed by President Roosevelt after the 1941 passage of the Selective Service Act, made recommendations that were eventually to be transformed into the "GI Bill" legislation, Public Law 346.[2]

Later articles on the effects of the GI on the educational scene and vice versa can be readily found. Among them

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[1]A. G. Trudeau, "Army Education and Problems of Negro Education," Education for Victory, 3:13-16, April 20, 1945.

[2]"Federal Aid for Education and Training of Service Men and Women," Congressional Digest, 23:67-96, March, 1944.

are Daniel Marsh's "Will the 'GI Bill of Rights' Turn Veterans into 'Educational Hobos'?";[1] Edgar A. Taylor Jr.'s "How Well are Veterans Doing?";[2] and such others as Francis J. Brown's "Opportunities and Dangers for Higher Education,"[3] and Harry D. Gideonse's "Educational Achievement of Veterans at Brooklyn College, A Study of the Performance of Some 2400 Veterans in the Period February 1946 to June 1949."[4] Writers at first expressed fear that academic institutions would be so overrun with Veterans that they would be forced to offer low quality education. When the flood materialized, but the Veterans proved capable of achieving success anyway, the articles turn to praise for the maturing effects of military service.

In summation, it should seem evident from the preceding paragraphs that there has been interest at various points in the past in the interaction of the Military and Education. Since no one has thus far written a comprehensive history of this involvement, it is to be hoped that

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[1]Daniel Marsh, "Will the 'GI Bill of Rights' Turn Veterans into 'Educational Hobos'?," School and Society, 61:71, February 3, 1945.

[2]Edgar A. Taylor, Jr., "How Well are Veterans Doing?," School and Society, 65:210-213, March 22, 1947.

[3]Francis J. Brown, "Opportunities and Dangers for Higher Education," The Educational Record, 28:207-218, April, 1947.

[4]Harry D. Gideonse, "Educational Achievement of Veterans at Brooklyn College, A Study of the Performance of Some 2400 Veterans in the Period February 1946 to June 1949," The Educational Record, 31:453-468, October, 1950.

this study will in some way remedy this slight.

The Problem

The United States Military today and in the past has had a tremendous effect on American society, both in terms of national wealth invested in its maintenance and in numbers of lives changed through voluntary and involuntary association. Despite the billions of dollars and millions of lives involved, and the knowledge that such a huge organization must develop effective training programs, very little attention has been paid the Military by educators. Perhaps the academicians shy away from the Military's involvement with the non-rationality of violence, feeling that any part of such a system must be hopelessly tainted with this philosophy and, hence, not a fit topic for scholarly consideration. Perhaps the Military is too clannish and close-mouthed about its own accomplishments, hiding them in folders marked "Confidential" or "For Official Use Only."

Whatever the reason, only a few attempts have been made to examine the educational programs that the Military, especially the United States Army, has sponsored in the past. This study, it is hoped, will at least partially remedy this slight, and provide the historical background for understanding current Military involvement in education of a non-military nature.

This study is intended to be a search for the roots of non-military education sponsored by or for the Military and its personnel. Examination will be made of the concept's evolution and expansion at various points in our history. Special attention will be given to the major wars of this century: World Wars I and II, Korea, and Vietnam, and the period immediately following each during which so many programs were instituted. Due to accessibility of information, the study will be forced to concentrate at times on the programs of the Army, the largest branch of the services, especially for the most recent period involving the Transition Program.

"Non-military education," as the term will be used in this study, refers to any training, schooling, etc. of an academic, technical, or vocational nature which is not directly applicable to the fulfillment of the Military's mission ("Finding, Fixing, and Fighting" the Enemy). This training or schooling must be sponsored by or for the United States Military and its personnel. Thus, a course in "Wheeled Vehicle Maintenance and Repair," taken by a soldier in preparation for his Military Occupational Specialty would not qualify for inclusion under the study. A course in "Auto Mechanics," however, which is taken by correspondence, in an off-duty class, or as part of preparation for civilian life under Project Transition, would definitely fall within the category of "non-military education."

Veterans and the various educational programs designed for them in the past will also be dealt with, since their eligibility for such "benefits" derives from their military service, and since such benefits are often conceived of as partial compensation for the hazards and hardships of military duty.

Methodology

The nature of this study is historical and that approach will be followed in performing the research. Periodicals, newspapers, memoirs, journals, collections of private papers, books, government documents, and previous dissertations will be closely examined to obtain material for the study. For the most recent program, "Transition," the writer has access to correspondence files, Department of Defense publications and directives, counselor files, questionnaires, training records, test scores, and other pertinent material from the inception of the project at one large Army training center.

Organization of the Remainder of this Dissertation

The first section of this study will deal with early examples of military involvement in non-military education. Certain aspects of the Academy at West Point, as well as the War Department's financing of Indian schools, the Freedmen's Bureau, and post schools for enlisted men and

dependents will be among the areas explored.

A second section will concentrate on such subjects as War Department responsibility for education in the insular territories, schooling for the World War I soldier at home and overseas, the AEF University, vocational rehabilitation and re-education for the disabled, educational aspects and effects of the 1916 National Defense Act, and the role of the Army in the Civilian Conservation Corps. Political and social pressure for these programs will also be examined.

Another division will cover the second explosion of programs, occasioned by the massive troop build-up in the war years of the 40's. Included will be the founding and growth of the United States Armed Forces Institute, the work of the Special Training Units, the Specialized Training Program at the colleges and universities, educational provisions for the occupation forces, American universities overseas, and provisions for the reintroduction of the American soldier into civilian society. Effects of the "GI Bill" legislation on American higher education will be explored.

A fourth division will investigate the growth of the modern Army education system--the "General Educational Development Program"--with its education centers and civil service staffs since the close of World War II. Dependents' education in overseas areas will be examined, as will Secretary MacNamara's "Project 100,000," the plan for salvaging soldiers with low educational levels. A major portion

of this division will be devoted to the Transition Program, detailing its history, purpose, and specific examples of its activities on a number of military installations of varying sizes. Finally, the new concept of "Career Development Education" will be presented and its possible future impact considered.

The Summary and Conclusions section, Chapter VI, presents an outline of some of the major findings in the study, as well as recommendations for further study.

II. EARLY INVOLVEMENT OF THE ARMY IN NON-MILITARY EDUCATION

Traditionally, the earliest examples of United States Army involvement in education have been ascribed to General George Washington. On July 19, 1777 the General, on behalf of his army, wrote to the Continental Congress for money to purchase "a small traveling press to follow Headquarters." He was certain that, "an ingenious man to accompany this press and be employed in writing for it might render it singularly beneficial" to the cause of troop information and morale.[1] Foreshadowing the fate of many Army educational programs, his requests for this and later another educational venture were first tabled and then ignored.[2] His order that Thomas Paine's revolutionary work Common Sense be read by or to the troops under his command probably met with a bit more success. The nearest approach to a formal education program, however, is contained in General Von Steuben's Regulations for the Order and Discipline of the Troops of the United States, which stated in 1779 that, "The commanding officer

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[1]Worthington C. Ford, ed., The Writings of George Washington, Vol. V (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1889-92), pp. 498-499.

[2]Philip S. Foner, Morale Education in the American Army (New York: International Publishers 1944), p. 17.

of each regiment is to be answerable for the general instruction of the regiment."[1] This primarily involved military training, but also included lectures to the troops on the reasons for participating in the war.

The end of the Revolutionary War brought an almost complete demobilization, as Congress, on June 2, 1784, limited the regular forces to eighty enlisted men and a few officers, with a captain in command. Fifty-five of these men were to be stationed at West Point.[2] An increase to 718 was authorized by the end of the decade, to man forts for protection against the Indians, and further increases, to 3,813, followed in the 1790's when the danger of involvement in the Napoleonic Wars arose. Except for a few years in the War of 1812 and Mexican War periods, when large numbers of militiamen and volunteers swelled its ranks, the United States Army remained under 20,000, and in most years under 10,000, until the Civil War.[3] Though no continuing formal plans for the non-military education of the troops are evident, during this period, there were many instances of involvement of the Army and its personnel with this type

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[1]Friedrick W. Von Steuben, Regulations for the Order and Discipline of the Troops of the United States (Philadelphia: Stynney and Cist, 1779), p. 6.

[2]Worthington C. Ford, et al. (eds.), Journals of the Continental Congress 1774-1789, Vol. XXVII (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1904-37), p. 524.

[3]United States Bureau of the Census, Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1957 (Washington, D.C., 1960), pp. 736-737.

of education: Indian education, West Point's curriculum, the Freedmen's Bureau's activities, the work of the chaplains, informal schooling during the Civil War, and a number of proposals which were consigned to a slow death in bureaucratic pigeonholes.

As will be seen in this chapter, the most enduring programs were those which were Congressionally mandated, such as the responsibility for the education of the Indian and the newly freed slaves. These were often supervised by Army officers, but were usually implemented by civilians. Other efforts were of an isolated and individually organized nature, sponsored by "civilians in uniform," and not by the Regular Army office corps. Such would include the many informal classes and schools organized by officers and chaplains in units during the Civil War. In the post-Civil War era, there was an attempt at the War Department level to establish a centrally directed system of post schools; serving the needs of both the enlisted men and the children of Army personnel. This was not an overwhelming success, due to opposition by many officers. The post schools did survive, however, to serve as the base for later programs of non-military education for servicemen.

Education for Indians had been dealt with as early as 1775, when the Continental Congress appropriated $500 for Indian schooling at Dartmouth, an amount that was

increased to $5,000 five years later.[1] Two early Indian treaties have provisions which specifically deal with education. The Treaty of 1794 with the Oneida, Tuscarora, and Stockbridge Indians state that teachers would be hired to "instruct some young men of the three nations in the arts of the miller and the sawer." A second, in 1803 with the Kaskaskia, had the United States agreeing to contribute $100 per year for seven years to support a priest who would "instruct as many of their children as possible in the rudiments of literature."[2]

President George Washington, in a speech delivered to the chiefs of the Seneca Nation who had assembled in Philadelphia in January, 1971, stated:

> You may, when you return from this city to your own country, mention to your nation my desire to promote their prosperity, by teaching them the use of domestic animals, and the manner that the white people plough, and raise so much corn.[3]

That the chiefs of the Seneca Nation were eager to learn is also evident, at least in the transcriptions of speeches which have come down to us. They desired that the President, referred to as "Father,"

> . . . teach us to plough and to grind corn; to assist us in building saw mills, and supply

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[1] Brewton Berry, The Education of American Indians, A Survey of the Literature, ERIC ED 026 545 (Ohio State University, Dec. 1968), p. 14.

[2] Ibid.

[3] American State Papers 1789-1838, United States Serial Set No. 07 "Indian Affairs," (New York: Readex Microprint, 1959), p. 144.

> us with broad axes, saws, augers, and other tools, so as that we may make our houses more comfortable and durable; that you will send smiths among us, and above all, that you will teach our children to read and write.[1]

Since Army officers were often chosen as emissaries to the Indian tribes, because of their being well acquainted with them in war, or because they were much nearer the frontier than other officials of the new government, the responsibility of the entire "Indian problem" came to rest on the shoulders of the Secretary of War. Therefore, when the Indian Department was established by Congress on August 7, 1786, with separate districts north and south of the Ohio River, the division superintendent was made subject to the Secretary of War.[2] Evidence of the Army's concern with Indian education can be seen in several of the letters of Henry Knox, Washington's Secretary of War, to his commanders in the field. In one, dated May 2, 1791, he advised Colonel Timothy Pickering:

> You will, also, inform the Indians (of the Six Nations) how desirous the President of the United States is, that the Indians should have imparted to them the blessings of husbandry, and the arts, and of his willingness to receive the young sons of some of the principal chiefs for the two-fold purpose of teaching them to read and write, and to instruct them fully in the arts of husbandry.[3]

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[1] Ibid., pp. 208-209.

[2] W. H. Stockman, "General Historical Survey of Federal Indian Policies, Chapter II of unpublished Doctoral Thesis in Progress" (Boulder: Colorado University, 1970) ERIC ED 043 545, p. 53; Murray L. Wax, Indian Americans: Unity and Diversity (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1971), p. 46.

[3] American State Papers, op. cit., p. 166.

Another officer, Brigadier General Rufus Putnam, was sent to a council of "hostile" Indians assembled on the banks of the Miami River near Lake Erie. His task was to convince them:

> . . . that we are willing to be at the expense of teaching them to read and write, to plough, and to sow. in order to raise their own bread and meat, with certainty, as the white people do.[1]

So a promise of educational assistance was made, and the War Department was given the responsibility of fulfilling it. At that time it is likely that not one of the few possible candidates for instructors' positions within the department could have been spared from the task of guarding several thousand miles of rugged frontier. The War Department of the late Eighteenth and early Nineteench Centuries, therefore, had to look to the private sector for assistance. Letters contained in The Papers of John C. Calhoun provide us with proof of the source of most of this assistance as well as an indication that the War Department was contributing financially to the effort. S. Worchester, of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, expressed appreciation, in 1818 for the War Department's financial aid to the Board's Indian school at Cornwall, Connecticut. He also was grateful for encouragement from the President and the Secretary of War "in the Board's

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[1] Ibid., pp., 234-235.

efforts to civilize the Indians."[1] An agent for the War Department, Return J. Meigs, wrote from the Cherokee Agency in the same year:

> I have the honor of transmitting to you the first annual report of the state of the Missionary School at Chichama(u)ga. As the erecting the principal building was committed to me by the Secretary of War, by putting into my hands a copy of a letter from him to Mr. Kingsburg for my government in erecting that business. . . . The whole expense including the small buildings is ($)1,748.75, of which sum I have paid ($)1,137.75.[2]

To support properly efforts of this type there was passed by Congress on March 3, 1819 "An Act making provision for civilization of the Indian Tribes adjoining frontier settlements." Section 1 provided, where the President judged it practical, that instruction would be given, on consent of the Indians, in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Section 2 established a permanent annual authorization of $10,000 for carrying out Section 1.[3]

President Monroe's "Report to the House of Representatives" of January 1822 contains a list titled "Expenditures for Civilizing the Indians."[4] A further section of the "Report," from Calhoun's department, states that eleven principal schools, with three subordinate

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[1] W. Edwin Hemphill, ed., The Papers of John C. Calhoun, Vol. II, 1817-1818 (Columbia: University of South Carolina Press, 1963), p. 171.

[2] Ibid., pp. 335-336.

[3] Stockman, op. cit., p. 56.

[4] American State Papers, op. cit., Serial No. 8, pp. 271-274.

schools, were in actual operation, enrolling a total of five hundred and eight pupils. Reading, writing, and arithmetic were the common subjects, with the boys being instructed in agriculture while the girls worked at "common domestic industry for that sex."[1] Most of the schools were listed as being established and run by the "American Board of Foreign Missions, Boston, the Baptist General Convention, or the United Foreign Missionary Society of New York," with the Catholic Bishop of New Orleans being responsible for one.[2]

Indian Education continued to be an Army responsibility for another quarter of a century. On March 3, 1849, however, Congress removed Indian Affairs from the control of the War Department and placed it with the newly created "Home Department," later known as the Department of the Interior.[3] The reason for the transfer probably centered on the need for the Army to devote its attention more fully to the security of the vast new territories acquired from Mexico in the recent war. Whatever the reason, it removed a source of civilian influence from within the War Department, and allowed it to return to the business of fighting Indians, rather than educating them.

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[1] Ibid., p. 275.

[2] Ibid., p. 459.

[3] James D. Richardson, A Compilation of the Messages and Papers of the Presidents 1789-1905 (Washington: Bureau of National Literature and Art, 1906), Vol. XI, p. 193.

Some of the earliest example of formal non-military education for Army personnel may be found in the United States Military Academy. The idea of a national military academy was advanced as early as 1770, when a committee of the Continental Congress was appointed to "prepare and bring in a plan of a military academy of the Army."[1] Nothing definite was accomplished, however, the next reference that can be discovered is a report by General Henry Knox, Secretary of War under Washington, on the necessity of adopting a system of military instruction in the United States Army. This recommendation was communicated by President Washington to Congress in a special message on January 21, 1790.[2] Washington again mentioned the need for a military academy in a speech to both houses of Congress on November 6, 1792.[3] His final speech to Congress on December 7, 1796 revealed the "expediency of establishing a National University, and also a military academy."[4] Finally, a Congressional Act of March 16, 1802 provided that the Corps of Engineers should be established at West Point and "shall constitute a Military Academy." An additional Act of February 28, 1803, authorized the

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[1]Richardson, op. cit., p. 243.

[2]American State Papers, op. cit., Vol. I, "Military Affairs," p. 6.

[3]Jared Sparks, The Writings of George Washington, Vol. 12, (Boston: Little Brown and Company, 1855), p. 39.

[4]Ibid., p. 71.

President to "appoint one teacher of the French language and one teacher of drawing, to be attached to the Corps of Engineers."[1] Further evidence of the existence of courses of a non-military nature can be found in the "Army Register for 1826."[2] The Rev. C. P. M'Ilvain was listed as Chaplain and Professor of Ethics; Claudius Berard and Joseph DuCummun, "Teachers of French"; Thomas Gimbrede, "Teacher of Drawing"; and 5 first and second class (Junior and Senior) cadets were listed as "assistant professors of mathematics."[3] No rank is given for the French or Drawing teachers, although all others in the Register are so identified excepting the Chaplain. These men, then, were civilians, hired tc supplement the staff of qualified instructors who could be drawn from the ranks of the officer corps. The Chaplain, listed as "Professor of Ethics," is often mentioned in Annual Reports of the "Board of Visitors." These Boards consisted of prominant civilians, congressmen or educators who were invited by the Secretary of War to attend the general examination of the Academy. Though all Boards seem unanimous in their praise for the quality of instruction, there is a recurring complaint that a

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[1] American State Papers, op. cit., Vol. III, "Military Affairs," p. 4.

[2] See House Executive Documents for each session. The "Army Register" is a list of all officers on active duty along with their duty positions. The Register was usually included as part of the "Adjutant General's Report," in the Annual "Report of the Secretary of War."

[3] American State Papers, op. cit., Vol. III, "Military Affairs," p. 211.

requirement for the Chaplain "to teach English grammar, rhetoric, moral philosophy, and the elements of political science, including the law of nations and the constitutional law of the United States . . ." left little time for him to tend to his religious duties.[1] The same board also commented on West Point's purpose, revealing that the institution was designed not merely to create soldiers for the country's defense, but to build a composite of scholar, gentlemen, virtuous citizen, and officer.[2] Such graduates would serve to diffuse the knowledge and science acquired at the Academy throughout the country, engaging in the execution of civil and commercial works whether they remained in the Army or were "restored to private life."[3] This feeling was reiterated by another, later Board of Visitors (1848) when they commented, "The Military Academy is the cheap school of science of this nation."[4] Not everyone was happy with the way that the Academy functioned throughout its early history, however. In 1834 the General Assembly of Ohio sent a resolution to the United States Senate, claiming that the Military Academy "is partial in its operations and wholly inconsistent with the spirit and genius

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[1] Ibid., Vol. VI, "Military Affairs," pp. 906-907.

[2] Ibid., pp. 905-906.

[3] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1844, p. 114.

[4] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1848, p. 283.

of our liberal institutions" and therefore, should be abolished.[1]

Jefferson Davis, member of the Academy class of 1828, made several recommendations for the betterment of West Point during his four year term of office as Secretary of War under President Pierce. In his First Annual Report for 1853, he proposed that the Military Academy term be increased to five years to allow acquisition of enough knowledge of international law, languages, and literature to insure the possession of "a more finished education than that which is to be obtained by the courses now prescribed."[2] His Second Annual Report takes up the old problem of the Chaplain and the "Ethics Department." Davis felt that a new professorship of "Ethics and English Studies" should be established, replacing the chair filled by the Post Chaplain. His reasoning, like that of the many Boards, suggests that the pastor of cadets with his primary charge of a population of 1200 souls cannot be expected to also be member of the academic staff and adequately organize the study of philology, natural law, and "cognate branches" whose addition was contemplated.[3]

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[1] American State Papers, op. cit., Vol. V. "Military Affairs", p. 307.

[2] Dunbar Rowland, ed., Jefferson Davis. Constitutionalist, His Letters, Papers and Speeches, Vol. II (Jackson, Miss.: Miss. Dept. Archives and History, 1923), pp.307-308.

[3] Ibid., p. 409.

Nothing was done to completely remedy the problems of the Chaplaincy until 1896. At that point, following the death of the then current Chaplain, the Rev. Dr. William M. Postlethwaite, Congress passed an Act disassociating the office of Chaplain from the professorship of geography, history, and ethics.[1] In the future the study of history and geography was to be transferred to the department of law, from which it had been separated twenty-two years previously, and taught by a member of the Judge Advocate General's Corps.[2] Thus ended seventy-eight years of service of the West Point Chaplains as academic instructors, from the appointment of the Rev. Dr. Thomas Picton on July 23, 1818 to the Rev. Dr. William M. Postlethwaite's "untimely death" in January 1896.[3]

Chaplain--Professors of the Department of History, Geography, and Ethics

Dr. Thomas Picton	July 23, 1818 to Jan. 21, 1825
The Rev. Charles P. McIlvaine	1825 to December 31, 1827
Prof. Thomas Warner	Jan. 1, 1828 to Sept. 1, 1838
Prof. Jasper Adams	Sept. 1838 to 1841
The Rev. M. P. Parks	1841 to March 1847
The Rev. William T. Sprole	March 2, 1847 to Aug. 16, 1856

[1] The Centennial of the United States Military Academy at West Point, New York 1802-1902, Vol. I (New York: Greenwood Press, reprinted 1969), p. 373.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

The Rev. John W. French	Aug. 16, 1856 to July 8, 1871
Dr. John Forsyth	July 1871 to Dec. 1881
Dr. William M. Postlethwaite	Dec. 21, 1881 to Jan. 1896

The shift away from civilian instructors at the end of the nineteenth century can also be seen as part of the increased emphasis on the Academy's role as educator of the Regular Army office. With the growth of numerous civilian technical institutes and colleges in this period, the nation no longer had a critical need for the Academy's service as a "cheap school of science," producing engineers for the civilian economy.

Major General Alexander Macomb was commander of the United States Army from May 29, 1828 until his death on June 25, 1841. One of his proposals for improvement of the Army brings to mind the Civilian Conservation Corps and Job Corps of the Twentieth Century.[1] Closer examination, however, reveals his plan to be a form of apprenticeship rather common in post-Revolutionary America, yet one still possessed of potential merit. Macomb wished to enlist, or apprentice, in actuality, boys of 12 or 13 for a minimum period of twelve years. By choosing youngsters of that particular age group he hoped to avoid a current problem of "idle, profligate, and incorrigible lads" of 16 or 17 who were then enlisting in the service at their parents' behest.[2]

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[1] American State Papers, op. cit. Vol. V, "Military Affairs," pp. 121-123.

[2] Ibid., p. 121.

The boys were to be instructed in reading and writing English correctly, then, as they advanced, were to be taught the principles of mathematics, eventually reaching the heights of "practical geometry, for civil and military purposes."[1] Further, that provision was to be made for training in a trade that would be both useful to the service and which, after leaving the service, might afford the young men a "decent support" in civilian life.[2]

Such trades might include those of the blacksmith, carpenter, wheelwright, harnessmaker, and whitesmith, the last being an old term for a worker of "finished" iron or tin. In addition, there would be training as musicians for those boys who demonstrated talent in that area.[3] To provide this instruction, the proposal, sent in the form of a bill to the Chairman of the Military Committee of the House, would have authorized the President to detail from the Army or hire if necessary, such "mechanics of respectable character" as would be capable of teaching the boys their trades. The said mechanics were to receive the monthly pay of twenty-five dollars and the rations and clothing of a soldier.[4]

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid., p. 123.

[4] Ibid., pp. 122-123.

Consider what effects the proposal might have had if adopted and properly supported. Five hundred young men at a time were to be educated at government expense just at the beginning of the program, with additional groups brought in after each three year period of training.[1] These men, upon completion of their enlistment, were then to return to civilian life, taking with them skills badly needed in the expanding American economy.

Unfortunately, Congress did not see fit to turn Macomb's proposal into law, and another century was to pass before legislation with a similar purpose was to be enacted.

A post library was early felt to be a necessity in the Army. A regulation of 1821 provides that the post fund was to be utilized in part for, "The purchase of books, etc., for a library, one section of which, to be adapted to the wants of the enlisted men."[2] A later regulation, of 1847, authorized expenditures for newspapers, with, "the number of the later not to exceed two for a post garrisoned by a single company and one per company at all other stations."[3]

In 1861, in the midst of a burst of patriotic fervor over defence of the Union, an organization known as the US Military Post Library Association was formed, with the stated

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[1] Ibid., p. 123.

[2] General Regulations for the Army, 1821, p. 72.

[3] General Regulations for the Army, 1847, p. 51.

purpose of creating libraries and reading rooms at different military posts. The emphasis in reading matter was to be on books of a religious nature, though the popular periodicals and newspapers of the day, like Atlantic Monthly and Harper's Weekly, were also to be distributed. The association possessed an "enlightened viewpoint" on education and had as its officers many of the prominant political and military figures of the time, including General U. S. Grant.[1] Eighty thousand copies of news, literary, and religious papers, in addition to the general periodicals, were delivered to the post libraries. The Association also published thirty thousand copies of essays with copies of interest to the soldiers--"Soldier's Manual of Health," "Temperance in the Army," "Military Songs," etc.[2] Unfortunately for the poor soldier who desired reading material, and for the citizen who helped contribute from ten to twenty-one thousand dollars annually to achieve this goal, the whole organization was the mental creation of one man, its secretary, John B. Ketchum, and was seemingly dedicated to personal gain, rather than to the improvement of the "social, moral, and religious condition of the enlisted men."[3] This was

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[1]Schwartz, op. cit., p. 38.

[2]Ibid., p. 39.

[3]Bruce White, "ABC's for the American Enlisted Man: The Army Post School System, 1866-1898" History of Education Quarterly, Vol. VIII, No. 4 (Winter 1968), p. 490.

discovered in 1885, when the War Department sent a circular letter to its posts requesting information on the benefits each had received from the Association. Of 133 posts replying, 129 had never received any benefit and 96 had never heard of the Association or of its secretary.[1] Mr. Ketchum was never brought to trial, but his later attempts to organize associations along similar lines met with a rather chilly reception at the War Department.

Despite such difficulties, the post libraries continued to supply reading material for soldiers for the remainder of the nineteenth century, receiving financial assistance from the post fund, and obtaining through the Quartermaster General, "such periodicals and newspapers as his appropriation for incidental expenses can afford to pay for."[2]

There are few references to education in any form in the offical records of the Civil War, and these few are to efforts of the Army to restore educational systems in the conquered South immediately after the war, or to establish educational opportunities for the freed men.[3] This does not mean that no efforts at education for the troops

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Regulations of the Army of the United States, February 17, 1881, #538.

[3] James E. Sefton, The United States Army and Reconstruction, 1865-1877, pp. 10, 124. See also The War of the Rebellion: A Compilation of the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies, 70 Volumes (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1901).

were made, merely that such were of an individual and unofficial nature, rather than the formal, command supported activities I shall examine in later war eras. Most educational efforts resulted from just the right combination of interested instructor, eager pupil, and available free time. An illiterate young man from the hills of Western Pennsylvania could grow tired of begging better educated friends to write letters home for him, and be even more wary of having them become privy to the secrets of his personal life, as revealed in letters from his wife or sweetheart. Turning to one of his friends during a boring evening spent in winter quarters, he might ask to be "showed how to rite," and if the friend was reasonably patient and obliging, the young soldier might actually acquire enough skill in his "letters" to write a partially decipherable note home. Perhaps the instructor was not one of his compatriots, but instead a well-educated officer in his unit for whom time hung heavy. Or, as was even more often the case, the soldier might have become part of a small informal school conducted by a chaplain.

The United States Army has had the benefit of a chaplaincy since its inception. In 1775, Congress provided that $20 a month be paid to Army chaplains, as one item in the general pay scale.[1] Chaplains tended to serve on a

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[1]Rudolph Schwartz, Non-Military Education in the United States Army and Air Force, 1900-1960 (Unpublished doctoral dissertation: New York University, 1963), p. 22.

part-time basis, however, still maintaining their positions with their regular congregations while also serving the needs of Revolutionary troops in nearby areas of battle, in camps, hospitals, or prisons.

The first official reference to chaplains and education is in a General Order of 1838.[1] It provided that a chaplain employed at any military post would also, in addition to his usual religious activities, be required to perform the duties of schoolmaster, "under such regulations as may be established by the council of administration, approved by the commanding officer." These duties were to instruct the children of the officer as well as of the "private soldier." The chaplain was to receive compensation of double the Revolutionary War period--forty dollars in cash plus "four rations per day with fuel and quarters provided for a captain." Only 20 posts were authorized to employ chaplains under this order, mostly installations on the edge of civilization, far removed from the services of a local clergyman. Such posts included: Hancock Barracks, Maine; Fort Winnebago, in Wisconsin Territory; Fort Snelling, Upper Mississippi; Fort Leavenworth, Missouri Territory; and others equally remote.

Secretary of War J. C. Spencer includes "20 Chaplains and Schoolmasters" in his 1842 report on the size of the

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[1]U.S. War Department, General Order Number 29, August 18, 1838.

regular force, in addition to the 717 commissioned officers and "7,590 non-commissioned officers, musicians, artificiers, and privates."[1] The effectiveness of these chaplains was lauded by General Winfield Scott in his 1843 report to the Secretary of War:

> A sensible progressive improvement in the police, administration and tactical instruction of the army is reported by both commanding and inspecting officers. The recent introduction of post chaplains, each of good standing in his respective religious community;--the establishment of day-schools for soldiers' children, and night schools for the men themselves--with numerous temperance associations--all either set on foot or encouraged by the good example of officers--have had the best effects on the rank and file. . . . Hence, of late, comparatively but few prisoners, or courts martial, and fewer desertions.[2]

In 1844 the Quartermaster General commented that:

> . . . many instances have occurred of commanding officers causing buildings to be put up, to be used both as school houses and chapels, for which purpose both public materials and public money have been used. The whole proceeding being in direct violation of law, those who have caused this expenditure of money and property must necessarily lose the amount expended, unless Congress relieves them.[3]

He goes on to request Congressional approval for fifty thousand dollars to erect buildings of this type.

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[1] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1842, p. 178.

[2] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1843, pp. 65-66.

[3] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1844, p. 114.

From the need for only 30 chaplains in 1849, the influx of hundreds of thousands of soldiers in the Civil War period caused a mushrooming of the ranks of the chaplaincy--to a high of 2300 on the Union side alone.[1] The Confederate roster is a bit more difficult to piece together, but a list of 400 men is cited by Honeywell as having been nominated for the chaplaincy in early 1862.[2]

In spite of a large number of religious duties which the chaplains on both sides were required to perform, many were able on an individual basis to set up classes and schools.

A northern chaplain, Betts, set up a writing school in his chapel, while a debating society and classes in Latin, German, and mathematics were organized by Chaplain Marks.[3] Chaplain Arthur Fuller of the 16th Massachusetts volunteers began a school with the assistance of five competent enlisted teachers, teaching during the week and holding an instructors' meeting every Friday night.[4] Fuller accounted for the fact that "so many could be found in a Massachusetts regiment who need primary school instruction," by stating that nearly all the scholars were "of foreign parentage, and

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[1]Roy J. Honeywell, Chaplains of the United States Army (Washington: Office of the Chief of Chaplains, Dept. of the Army, 1958), p. 120.

[2]Ibid., p. 121.

[3]Honeywell, op. cit., pp. 146-147.

[4]Schwartz, op. cit., p. 26.

have not had early advantages."[1]

An unusual example of perseverence under adverse conditions is the prison school conducted by Chaplain Charles C. McCabe. McCabe was captured eight months after his entry into active service and was sent to Libby Prison for officers in Richmond, Virginia. Within a few weeks he had distributed a large number of books to the prisoners, organized a debating society, and contributed to the weekly prison newspaper, "The Libby Chronicle."[2] In addition, as he commented in a letter to his wife,

> This has been a busy week. Our prison is transformed into a college. The hitherto idle prisoners are students now. Classes are formed in various useful sciences. I have bought, through the kindness of the authorities, a large number of books, and all is changed. The men do not seem to feel their captivity as they did before.[3]

The following letter, of August 30, 1863 noted that "my college is prospering," and the next told of classes being held in French, Spanish, Latin, Greek, Rhetoric, English Grammar, Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, and Natural Philosophy.[4] Upon his release from Libby in October 1863, Chaplain McCabe became very active in the U.S. Christian

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[1] Ibid., p. 27.

[2] Frank Milton Bristol, The Life of Chaplain McCabe, Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church (Cincinnati: Jennings & Graham, 1908), pp. 100-101.

[3] Ibid., p. 101.

[4] Ibid., pp. 102-103.

Commission, and continued his educational work among the troops, distributing religious works and spellers for their moral and intellectual uplift.

On the Southern side, a major function of chaplains was that of teaching illiterate soldiers the skills of reading and writing. Wiley mentions the organization of various primary classes by the "camp minister," while Pitts reveals their major tools to be the Bible and McGuffey's First Reader.[1] The Reverend J. William Jones, a chaplain in the Army of Northern Virginia, refers to the educational activities of other clerics in his book Christ in the Camp.[2] A civilian chaplain worked with the military in Richmond, Virginia, teaching "quite a number of soldiers" to read, including one individual who was fifty years old when he first "commenced his letters."[3] Mahone's Virginia Brigade had the services of a chaplain who conducted an educational program involving all five of its component regiments. This encompassed the usual Bible classes and prayer meetings, as well as basic instruction for illiterates, and courses in spelling, reading, writing, English grammar, mathematics, and such "electives" as astronomy,

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[1]Bell Irvin Wiley, The Life of Johnny Reb: The Common Soldier of the Confederacy (New York: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1943), p. 188; Charles F. Pitts, Chaplains in Gray (Nashville: Broadman Press, 1957), p. 82.

[2]J. William Jones, Christ in the Camp (Philadelphia: B. F. Johnson and Company, 1887).

[3]Ibid., p. 211.

Greek, and Latin.[1] Not all chaplains were interested in educating their "parishioners," however, and no mention at all of such activities is made in a majority of journals and autobiographies of the period which were sampled.[2]

In addition to the educational efforts of the chaplains, many Northern units organized "lyceums" along with other "imposingly named" literary bodies.[3] Usually more active in the winter months than in the summer due to the stability of battle lines, these activities provided the opportunity for orations, debates, recitations, and spelling bees. One Hoosier sergeant wrote from a Virginian "Wilderness" encampment,

> We have built a hall that will hold about 125 men and organized . . . the "Forest Lyceum"; Order of Exercises--Declamations, Essays, Orations, Debate, Anonymous Communications & c. It is well attended and we have an excellent time.[4]

The sergeant goes on to ask his sister to "find 'Poe's Raven,' a piece I used to declaim and copy it and Send it to me immediately. I will be greatly obliged to you."[5]

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[1] Ibid., p. 211.

[2] Carlton McCarthy, Detailed Mirutiae of Soldier Life in the Army of Northern Virginia 1861-1865 (Richmond: Carlton McCarthy and Co., 1884); Rev. James B. Sheeran, Confederate Chaplain: A War Journal (Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1960); Sam R. Watkins, "Co. Aytch": A Side Show of the Big Show (New York: Collier Books, 1962).

[3] Bell Irvin Wiley, The Life of Billy Yank: The Common Soldier of the Union (New York: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1951), p. 179; hereafter cited as Billy Yank.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid.

A more "formal" school is described by a New York Artillery Captain:

> My school is in a flourishing condition; the boys built a table and desk, with forms out of split logs, and set it up under the shade of the trees, and every day at 2 P.M. the schoolmaster, an old corporal whom I detailed for the purpose, fetches the spelling books and the writing materials and sets his classes their lessons. You would be pleased to see the eagerness with which men from twenty to forty years of age seize upon this opportunity for repairing the defects of their early education, and the progress which they all make is most encouraging.[1]

The private soldier on the Northern side had a higher literacy level than did his Southern counterpart. The average company in the Union Army had from one to a half dozen illiterates, and many companies had none whatever. One veteran corporal is reported to have remarked of his fellows, "there is not one in a thousand hardly but what can read."[2] Examination of the letters of both sides, in addition, reveals better spelling and grammar in those of the Union soldier, and far fewer references to the use of amanuenses or camp secretaries.[3] In the Southern forces, on the other hand, the average of illiterates, was 40 out of 100 in 14 companies of 13 different North Carolina regiments.[4] Though North Carolina troops were unusually

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[1] Ibid., p. 306

[2] Ibid., p. 358.

[3] Wiley, Johnny Reb, op. cit., pp. 336-337.

[4] Ibid.

ill-tutured, throughout the Confederate Army companies had anywhere from one to a score of members who could not write their names.

To satisfy the demands for reading matter of the Union forces, over 100 different camp newspapers were published, some in Union hospitals, and several by Yanks incarcerated in Southern prisons. A few of the titles include: "Stars and Stripes"; "Buck and Ball"; "The Union Guidon"; "The Dragoon"; "Fifth Iowa Register"; "The War Eagle"; and the "Unconditional S. Grant." The grim humor of the editors is evident in the hospital papers' titles--"The Cripple," "The Crutch," and "The Soldier's Casket."[1] Most editors aimed at a weekly schedule, interrupted now and then by a battle or two, and printed their newspapers on captured presses, sometimes even on the blank sides of rebel papers. If no presses were available, dedicated journalists hand wrote issues and passed them around among their comrades.[2] Demand for these sheets of news, poems, jokes, and complaints was great, and prices for the papers varied from 1¢ to a quarter, with 5¢ being standard.[3]

In Southern units some of the more "educated" soldiers taught their companions how to read and write.

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[1]Wiley, Billy Yank, op. cit., p. 180.

[2]Ibid., p. 181.

[3]Ibid., p. 183.

Private H. A. Stephens of Mississippi wrote of another soldier that,

> . . . he concluded a short time ago to study grammar if i would instruct him, & of cors i could not refuse, but it is the hardest work i ever saw for him to keep his mind on it he is a gorgian.[1]

Private W. W. Brown reported, "I have lurned to do my own wrading and writing and it is a grate help to me."[2] For the most part, however, illiterate "Johnny Rebs" relied on the services of their more educated acquaintances for letters to and from home. One such overworked "secretary" complained to his father,

> Somebody is nearly always after me to write for them. this makes 8 letters I have wrote. . . . I backs [i.e. address] a good meny letters and reads letters to. I read 3 last night.[3]

During the Civil War period the Union Army played a significant role in the education of Black Americans, both in the case of its regiments of "United States Colored Troops" and with the ex-slaves who later came under the control of the Freedmen's Bureau. No overall educational program for Black soldiers was planned, but as a result of the interest and dedication of their officers and the Black's more obvious lack of schooling, many means were devised to raise the level of learning in the segregated Black regiments. One of the earliest examples involves the First

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[1] Wiley, Johnny Reb, op. cit., p. 162.

[2] Ibid., p. 207.

[3] Ibid., p. 188.

South Carolina Colored Volunteers, later the 33rd US Colored Troop. Their commander, Colonel Higginson, a former Harvard scholar, reported how his soldiers sat around their campfires at night "spelling slow monosyllables out of a primer, a feat which always commands all ears."[1] Sometimes the men would "stumble on by themselves," or help one another, "the blind leading the blind." The Chaplain was said to be setting up a schoolhouse in order to teach them in a more regular manner, but Higginson felt that more attention had to be given to military drill and training--that "the alphabet must always be a very incidental business in a camp."[2] He did not discourage the men from using their off duty hours to pursue an education, however, and many received instruction from a Black woman, Mrs. Susie King Taylor, an escaped slave who was married to one of Higginson's sergeants. In her story of her camp experiences, Mrs. Taylor reports,

> I taught a great many of the comrades in Company E to read and write when they were off duty. Nearly all were anxious to learn. My husband taught some also when it was convenient for him. I was very happy to know my efforts were successful in camp, and also felt grateful for the appreciation of my services. I gave my services willingly for four years and three months without receiving a dollar. I was glad, however, to be allowed to go with the regiment, to care for the sick and wounded comrades.[3]

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[1] D. T. Cornish, "Union Army as a School for Negroes," Journal of Negro History, Vol. 37, No. 4 (October 1952), p. 370.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Susie King Taylor, Reminiscences of My Life in Camp with the 33d US Colored Troops (New York: Arno Press, 1968), p. 21.

Several reasons existed for the Black soldiers' concern with education. First, it was knowledge that had previously been denied them by law in the South and the forbidden always seems to hold a certain fascination.[1] Second, there were many practical benefits to be derived from learning to read and write. As one Black member of the 2nd Louisiana Native Guards (The 74th US Colored Troops) put it.

> Each soldier felt that but for his illiteracy he might be a sergeant, company clerk, or quartermaster, and not a few, that if educated, they might be lieutenants and captains. This was not an unusual conclusion for a brave soldier to arrive at, when men no braver than himself were promoted for bravery.[2]

Thus they clamored for copies of books like The New England Speller, passed out along with tracts and "testaments" by the Christian Commission and the Sanitary Commissions.[3] At Benton Barracks, Missouri, for example, three brigades of "colored" troops received three thousand copies of Sargents' Standard Primer, along with teachers to help instruct them in reading during their period of organization and drill.[4] Other units, it is reported, organized their own schools. As with the First Alabama Regiment (55th US

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[1]Cornish, op. cit. p. 368.

[2]Joseph T. Wilson, The Black Phalanx (New York: Arno Press, reprinted 1968), pp. 503-504.

[3]Cornish, op. cit., p. 371.

[4]Ibid.

Colored Troops):

> Each company is organized into a separate school, which is taught by teachers hired for that purpose from the North. They are paid by a voluntary contribution from the soldiers of from fifty cents to one dollar per capita each month. The soldiers evince great interest in their books, which they take out on picket with them . . .[1]

One dollar out of the seven earned monthly certainly indicates a willingness to sacrifice for an important goal. The feeling of officers that education was of extreme importance is also evident. General Daniel Ullmann, a New York attorney who commanded a Negro brigade in Louisiana, wrote to the American Christian Association for instructors from the North. In less than six months 500 of his men could read and write very well while many others were making progress.[2] The 35th US Colored Troops garrisoned at Jacksonville, Florida, for two years had the benefit of instruction from the wife of their commander, Colonel James C. Beecher. Mrs. Beecher's weekday morning school was so successful that each soldier "could proudly sign his name to the pay roll in a good legible hand" when the regiment was mustered out in 1866.[3]

Most of the educational projects conducted for Black Units took place in a garrison type situation, often

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[1] Ibid., p. 372.

[2] War of the Rebellion, op. cit., "Generals' Reports" Vol. XIV, p. 139.

[3] Frances Beecher Perkins, "Two Years with a Colored Regiment, a Woman's Experience," The New England Magazine Vol. XVII (January 1898), p. 536.

at camps in the Mississippi Valley.[1] Here the soldiers had available some free time, after all the military drill, training, and inspections were accomplished, that was totally lacking under the fluid conditions of combat. Here also they had access to supplies of books and to the civilian instructors who could neither be expected nor permitted to accompany the troops on raids into enemy territory. That more was not done is not because there was no thought given to the possibilities of education through the Army. In 1863, Representative John Hickman of Pennsylvania proposed a bill that would have raised three hundred regiments, to be composed primarily of freedmen.[2] The men of these regiments were to have been paid six dollars and fifty cents a month, with half of that amount retained until the end of their seven year enlistment. Officers in these regiments would be required to have a college education and would receive twice the pay and allowances of officers of corresponding ranks in "regular" regiments. To put in effect the educational plans these highly qualified officers would design, each company was to have "one teacher or chaplain's clerk assigned."[3] Unfortunately, and as was often the case with proposals involving education and the military, Hickman's bill was

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[1] Cornish, op. cit., p. 376.

[2] Congressional Globe, 37th Cong., 3 sess., Part 1, pp. 557, 689.

[3] Ibid., p. 557.

rejected by Congress.[1]

One of the famed Adams family, Lieutenent Colonel Charles Francis Adams, Jr. also believed in the possibility of using the Army as "a school of skilled labor and self-reliance, as well as an engine of war."[2] In his own Black regiment, the 5th Massachusetts Cavalry, he was busily engaged in training his troopers "in every branch of industry." A letter to his father, the wartime minister to England, reveals that:

> A day of thorough study of this camp would amaze you. You cannot realize the industry, versatility, and ingenuity called forth. The building we do is enormous, and the only materials supplied us are axes and nails. We fell trees, split, cut lumber, and shingles, and build stables and houses. Every blacksmith, every carpenter, every shoemaker, every tailor, and every clerk is constantly busy, and those who in do nothing else dig and carry until they can do something better.[3]

Beyond the present situation of strife, as soon as "quieter times" for soldiers should come, Adams hoped to see the attachment of chaplains and schoolmasters to each regiment and an emphasis placed on making every soldier a "mechanic." This "New Model" Army, would be composed "mainly of blacks" and yearly should return fifteen to twenty-thousand Black citizens to civilian life, each a master of some form of skilled labor.[4]

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[1] Ibid., p. 689.

[2] Worthington C. Ford, ed., A Cycle of Adams Letters, 1861-1865 (Boston, 1920), Vol. II, p. 218.

[3] Ibid., pp. 217-218.

[4] Ibid., p. 218.

Few regiments, however, were able to take time out from the task of keeping alive and fighting to devote effort to extensive training of their men. Such "training" as could be accomplished was usually directly related to the military mission, drill, care of weapons and equipment, and marksmanship. The war department itself was concerned with the task of obtaining large numbers of raw recruits to be trained as rapidly as possible into soldiers, and rushing these replacements, as individuals and units, to a point of decision on a battle map spanning the continent. A private soldier, infantry, did not have to be highly educated to fulfill his duties, merely "strong, active, well intentioned and disciplined."[1] Thus, education programs could not readily achieve War Department support and backing, and such programs as came into existence did so because of the interest of individuals, officers and chaplains, as well as of the private groups like the "sanitary commissions" and the "Christian commissions."

After the war, the second phase of the Army's role in Black education commenced: with the ex-slaves. During the early part of the war, Wiley reports that the good will of Northern soldiers toward Negroes often manifested itself in the teaching of the freedmen to read and write. Some regular schools existed but usually "the soldier instructors

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[1] Army and Navy Journal, Vol. XXX (April 8, 1893), p. 553.

worked informally, sitting with one or more pupils under a tree, giving out words for spelling, setting copies on slates or shingles, or teaching the ABC'S."[1] A direct reference to one of the "regular schools" is contained in the correspondence of General Benjamin F. Butler, popularly known in the South as the "Beast of New Orleans".[2] Butler stated that, when in command of the Department of Virginia and North Carolina in 1864, he had established a "Normal School" for the instruction of Negro children. Assisted in this enterprise by the chaplain at Chesapeake Hospital, Mr. Charles A. Raymond, and using disabled soldiers as teachers, Butler built the schoolhouse on "confiscable lands" with money from the Department's civil fund. He notes in his letter, "That school was put in successful operations, and, as I am informed, has been a very great success."[3]

The War Department became more formally involved with all aspects of the problems of freed Blacks when it was ordered to establish the "Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned lands" on March 3, 1865.[4] On May 10th of the same year, Secretary Stanton named one-armed General O. O. Howard as head of the Bureau. Howard, known as the

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[1]Wiley, Billy Yank, op. cit., p.116.

[2]Benjamin F. Butler, Private and Official Correspondence of Benjamin F. Butler During the Period of the Civil War (Privately issued, 1917), Vol. I, p. 490.

[3]Ibid., Vol. V, pp. 611-612.

[4]Richardson, op. cit., Vol. VI, p. 340.

"Christian soldier," was a man of great personal integrity and of the finest character. His appointment was one Lincoln had desired to be made.[1] During the five years that the Bureau functioned in the educational field, more than five million dollars were spent for the schooling of the ex-slaves.[2] To aid him in this immense undertaking, General Howard drew on the Army to provide most of the assistant commissioners for the Southern states, as well as many of the agents.[3] He was also helped by philanthropic and religious agencies in setting up and maintaining educational institutions.[4]

The end of the Bureau's supervision of schools was forecast by President Grant in a message to Congress in 1869.[5] In it he supported a recommendation by the Secretary of the Interior that the duties of supervising the education of freedmen be united with the other duties of the Commission of Education. In 1870, when the Bureau's work in that field ceased, a quarter million Black students were enrolled in 4,300 schools.[6] Schools of all kinds had been established

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[1]Benjamin P. Thomas and Harold M. Hyman, Stanton: The Life and Times of Lincoln's Secretary of War (New York: Alfred A. Knoph, 1962), p. 448.

[2]John Hope Franklin, Reconstruction After the Civil War (Chicago and London: University of Chicago Press, 1961) p. 38.

[3]Ibid., p. 37.

[4]Ibid., p. 38.

[5]Richardson, op. cit., Vol. VII, p. 41.

[6]Franklin, op. cit., p. 38.

or supervised night, day, Sunday, and industrial schools and colleges. Howard University, Hampton Institute, Fisk, and Atlanta Universities are a few of the scores of institutions of higher education which received Bureau assistance.[1]

Other examples can be found of Army influence on education during the Reconstruction. Schools operated by Army chaplains in Eastern Virginia were well received by local residents.[2] In Wilmington, North Carolina, schools were established in early 1865 by General Joseph P. Hawley, Connecticut politician, journalist, and longtime abolitionist.[3]

Problems did arise, however, in some areas. General Quincy A. Gillmore objected to the establishment by one of his subordinate commanders at Savannah of free schools for white children. The schools stayed, though, when justified by the fact that the Negro children were better provided for by charitable organizations than were the whites.[4] General John Pope ordered an investigation of the Florida state superintendent of schools to judge his character and competency in the handling of tax monies collected for Negro

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Sefton, op. cit., p. 10.

[3] Ibid.

[4] War of the Rebellion, op. cit., Ser I, Vol. XLVII, Pt. 3, pp.466-467, 492-493.

schools.[1] After a student at the University of Georgia gave an impassioned commencement oration heaping scorn on the Republican party and its reconstruction plans, Pope decided to close that institution, cutting off its state appropriation. He had to be pleaded with by university dignitaries before he would reconsider.[2]

In the years after the Civil War there existed in the officer corps three conflicting opinions as to the importance of education for enlisted men.[3] The first was espoused by those starry-eyed idealists who desired, as wrote one West Point graduate, in 1869 to "make the Army the School of the Nations."[4] During peacetime, these individuals believed, the principal purpose of the Army should be education, turning every military post into an academy, and giving all soldiers the means of ascending the ladder of knowledge, esepcially those illiterates huddled below the bottom rung. Even those choosing to end their association with the military after one enlistment would be benefited, returning to civilian life as better citizens and possessing such virtues as cleanliness, order, discipline, obedience, and strength.[5]

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[1] Sefton, op. cit., p. 124.

[2] Ibid.

[3] White, op. cit., pp. 490-491.

[4] Army and Navy Journal, Vol. VI (February 13, 1869), p. 406.

[5] White, op. cit.

The second group violently opposed the views of the idealists, siding instead with the officer who commented that the Army was not a charitable institution where any young man would be "wet-nursed into intellectual life."[1] They saw the Army in a much more narrow and practical light, as the defender of the nation, not its educator; the wielder of the sword, not the schoolmaster's pointer. And as to properly developing the "intelligence" of the enlisted man, why, as one unidentified writer argued in the Army and Navy Journal,

> It is a popular civilian fallacy that a great deal of intelligence is necessary, or extremely desirable, in the private soldier. A fair amount is necessary, but one who obeys orders efficiently, is strong, active, well-intentioned and disciplined makes a better soldier than the highly intelligent soldier who may lack these qualities and is apt to be bumptious.[2]

The non-commissioned officer would also be far better off if he just possessed the primary virtues of "courage, fidelity, forcefulness, ability to handle men, and honesty"; too much education would only handicap him.

A third group of officers also claimed the cloak of practicality for the garbing of their views. For them, as well as "group two," orderliness and obedience played a major role in the character of a good soldier. But education would serve to implant these traits more firmly in the

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[1] White, op. cit., p. 496.

[2] Ibid., p. 492, quoting

enlisted man, in addition to improving his morale, and removing his thoughts from the usual temptations of "drinking, gambling, women, and desertion" to which so many soldiers fell prey.[1]

The post school, the educational institution whose presence sparked controversy, came into existence as a result of the effort of Representative (later President) James A. Garlfield of Ohio. Garfield had been a long-term friend of education, serving as professor of ancient languages and literature in the Eclectic Institute of Hiram, Ohio, beginning in 1856, and later becoming its principal. During the Civil War, Garfield served as a major general of volunteers, taking part in such battles as Shiloh and Chickamauga. In December 1863, he had resigned his commission to take the seat in the House which he had won a year earlier. Combining his two interests, education and the military, Garfield pushed for the establishment of post schools, stipulating that their instruction should be "in the common English branches of education," with particular emphasis on United States history. He desired thereby to give the enlisted man cultural opportunities, instill in him a feeling of patriotism, and prevent idleness, "the parent of all wickedness . . . ," which he considered to be the cause of high crime and vice rates.[2] The Ohio Congressman moved to attach this provision to another dealing with

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[1] Ibid., p. 492.

[2] Congressional Globe, 39th Congress, 1st Sess, p. 2350.

the Army and education, the latter providing for the detail of army officers to act as president, superintendent, or professor of such colleges or universities as might request their presence, and which also had sufficient capacity to educate not less than 150 male students at one time. Because of additional support from another ex-general, Robert C. Schenck, Chairman of the House Committee on Military Affairs, the section on post schools was incorporated in the Army Reorganization Act of 1866, along with the one on the detailing of officers to colleges, and a third providing for the appointment by the President of one chaplain for each regiment of colored troops, who was to be responsible for instruction of the enlisted men in "the common English branches of education.[1]

Over the next ten years after the passage of the Army Reorganization Act, little notice seems to have been taken by Army officers of the new requirement, either because of ignorance of its existence, or through a conscious desire to avoid taking up an extra burden.[2] The War Department, meanwhile, did try to remove certain obstacles in the path of establishing post schools by issuing directives from time to time. Recognizing the lack of available, buildings to house schools, the Department authorized the Quartermaster General to construct such buildings where

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[1] United States Statutes at Large, Vol. XIV, p. 336.

[2] White, op. cit., p. 480.

needed, providing such buildings could also be utitlized as chapels and reading rooms.[1] No provision was made for the heating of these schoolrooms, however, until November of the following year.[2]

In spite of such problems, some militiary installations did manage to operate schools. In California, for example, Brigadier General E. O. C. Ord, cited the schools under his command as a positive force to "elevate the character of the enlisted men." He, however, was under the impression that they were unique to his department, and was asking for authority to establish more.[3]

Another light in the darkness of this decade was an enthusiastic chaplain, George G. Mullins. Mullins was an officer with the 25th Infantry Regiment, one of the four Negro units authorized schoolmaster-chaplains by the Act of 1866. His appointment as an army chaplain had come in 1875, after he had obtained a Master's Degree from the University of Kentucky.[4] Within a short time after assuming his duties, Mullins had trained several assistants and organized a post school with compulsory attendance at its three daily sessions. He had even succeeded in having a

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[1] War Department General Order Number 80, September 24, 1866.

[2] War Department General Order Number 94, November 4, 1867.

[3] White, op. cit., p. 481.

[4] Ibid.

post order published that directed subordinate commanders to arrange their duty schedules so as not to conflict with school attendance.[1] Soon discovering that the 1866 order requiring post schools was still theoretically in force, Mullins began to urge its implementation in letters to Adjutant General E. D. Townsend.[2] His efforts, combined with those of the Inspector General, N. H. Davis, were what led to the convening of a board of officers in December 1877.[3] This board, consisting of the Adjutant General, E. D. Townsend, the Quartermaster General M. C. Meigs, and the Judge Advocate General W. M. Dunn, not only reiterated the provisions of the existing legislation but further recommended the detailing of enlisted men as instructors, giving them the title "overseers of schools," and granting them the munificent bounty of thirty-five cents per day extra duty pay. Enlisted men in need of schooling were to be enrolled upon their voluntary application, but attendance of children in the post schools was made mandatory. To insure proper compliance with these recommendations, soon issued as General Order Number 24 for 1878, an officer was detailed by the War Department to visit and inspect the post schools.[4] The first such officer to receive this task was

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

[3] War Department Special Order Number 264, December 31, 1877, para. 3.

[4] War Department General Order Number 24, May 18, 1878.

General Sherman's aide, a distinguished Civil War corps commander named Alexander McCook.[1] Chaplain Mullins was not forgotten, however, first being assigned as McCook's assistant in 1880, and a year later taking over the position of "Officer in Charge of Education in the Army," relieving McCook of this duty.[2] During the four years he held this title, before retiring due to poor health in 1885, Mullins faced many difficulties in implementing his educational goals. Answers to a circular letter requesting reports on educational progress reveal the many real or imagined barriers standing in the path of compliance with the new General Order.[3] According to White, storm damage to the school building was given as one commander's reason for non-compliance. Others cited floods, hot weather, total lack of school buildings or school furniture, abandonment of the post, either permanently or to avoid an epidemic, and the absence of available men due to their being out chasing Indians. No suitable teacher, no textbooks, no post fund, or just no interest were also listed, and the children's schools were equally handicapped by lack of children of school age, or presence of good public schools in the area.

Mullins persevered, however, and under his guidance a series of regulations were issued for the further

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[1] White, op. cit., p. 481.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid., p. 482.

clarification of the local commander's educational responsibilities; consolidating previously published general orders, bulletins, and circulars into one readily available reference source.[1] Post funds, mostly obtained from savings from the bread rations when units baked their own bread, were to be used for the maintenance of post schools, a post library and reading room, and a gymnasium.[2] The Quartermaster General was directed to forward to the post librarians as many periodicals and newspapers as could be paid for from his fund for incidental expenses, or if requested by a unit, he could supply school books if the post fund did not have sufficient monies to cover that cost.[3] The school books, periodicals, and newspapers were intended solely for the use of the enlisted men and school children. Officers must have been inclined to "borrow" the library and schoolroom reference works, however, for inspectors were directed to be especially watchful for such violations of the regulation.[4] The Quartermaster's Department also had the responsibility for providing the necessary school furniture, the fuel to heat the schoolroom, and the candles or oil used to light the evening classes.[5] Because of a

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[1] Regulations of the Army of the United States, February 17, 1881.

[2] Ibid., #537.

[3] Ibid., #538.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid., #546, 547, 549.

justifiable fear of fire in the wooden buildings housing schools, chapels, and libraries, the regulations forbade the use of any "volatile oil" for lighting, recommending the use of a safer but far less satisfactory substitute--lard.[1]

The school for the children of the post was to be held in some "comfortable room" of the post headquarters if no special building was yet available. It should be fitted with desks, seats, and blackboards, utilize texts loaned by the post library, and be supervised by an "intelligent enlisted man" detailed for that purpose. Officers had the option of sending their children to the school or not, as they pleased, while the attendance of the soldiers' children was mandatory.[2] The difference is no doubt because the officer, in most cases West Point educated, could be expected to be able to tutor his children privately at least as well as any enlisted "overseer." The potentially disruptive factor of "free" officers' children noisily at play near the schoolroom was appreciated, however, and officers were ordered to keep their children from playing on the parade ground during school hours.[3]

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[1] Ibid., #549, 557.

[2] Ibid., #570, 565.

[3] Ibid., #570.

Citizens who lived near the post were given permission to send their offspring to school there, but were usually required by the adjutant to pay a small amount to the post fund for this privilege.[1] Both citizens and officers paid for the books used by their children, while soldiers' children had theirs provided free, either through the library or the post fund.[2]

The school day began at 9:15 A.M. when the children assembled in the schoolroom for roll call, all cleanly dressed and well-scrubbed if their parents followed the regulation. Absentees were reported to the headquarters and the parents notified to send their child to school immediately if sickness or other appropriate excuse did not exist. Students were divided into classes on the bases of their intelligence and progress in their studies. Reading classes made use of the seven volume series known as The Franklin Readers; math, the Davies' series; and English, Worcester's Spelling Books, either "primary" or "comprehensive."[3] All these plus Spencerian Copy Books, Swinton's Condensed History of the United States and his "Geographies" were procurable from the Quartermaster General's Department. Classes were terminated at 12 Noon for an hour's lunch and play period, resuming at 1 P.M. for another two hours. This

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[1] Ibid., #566.

[2] Ibid., #567.

[3] War Department General Order Number 38, 1881.

schedule was repeated each day of the week except Saturday and Sunday.[1]

A section on maintenance of discipline in the classroom was also included.[2] What is outlined is quite contrary to the usual view of this era as one still steeped in the "spare the rod and spoil the child" philosophy of education. Chaplain Mullin's guidance may account for the statement totally forbidding whipping of the children, or it might merely have been an attempt to avoid such humiliation of officers' children by an enlisted instructor. "Fairness" would then dictate that no children be treated in that manner. Only the slightest of punishments could be meted out to the youthful offenders--standing in the corner, sitting with their desk faced toward the wall, or, for repeated misdeeds, the wearing of the "dunce cap." A system of rewards, rather than punishments, was to be stressed. Toys or books, donated by parents, were presented to achievers of academic honor or exemplary behavior. Every schoolroom had its share of incorrigibles, however, for provision was made to deal with continued acts of misbehavior. The teacher reported such children to the adjutant, who dealt with the problem in two different ways, depending on whether an officer's or a soldier's child was

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[1] Regulations of the Army of the United States, op. cit., #578.

[2] Ibid., #570.

involved. If the child's father was an officer, a note was sent to him requesting correction of the child and assurance of good behavior in the future. Suspension for a week followed recurrence of any disruption, and a third offense brought final expulsion. If the problem involved a soldier's child, the parents were brought in for a private interview with the adjutant, and given instructions designed to prevent a recurrence. Soldiers' children, unlike those of officers', could not be expelled from school, but were merely to be "corrected, from time to time," until they behaved properly.

During the evening, following the sounding of the bugle call "retreat" which marked the end of the military working day, the school was in use by the soldiers themselves, utilizing the same teachers and the same texts as the children had from 9 to 3. Of course, if this was a post at which one of the four Black regiments was stationed, the prevailing pattern of segregation required two schools, or at the least, two separate rooms.[1] In their separate but "equally fitted up" classroom, the Black students might be taught by an assistant detailed from the white troops, while the instructor of the children's school continued his teaching day with the white soldiers. After several hours, the time varying with the seasons of the year and the availability of candles or lard, the soldier-scholars returned to their quarters with their textbooks, to study

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[1] Ibid.

until "taps" was sounded.

One of the primary obstacles to the establishment of a successful school system was the lack of qualified enlisted instructors. Those who might have been appropriate for the job were often considered, as they are today, too valuable as clerks, or as lower rank non-commissioned officers. The extra thirty-five cents per day was not a large enough inducement, even in that era, especially since the enlisted teacher was not exempted from any other duties his superior cared to require of him. Forcing a soldier to teach if he did not wish to often proved disastrous. In 1884, Fort McDowell and Fort Grant suffered the loss of their teachers through desertion, while at Fort Bridger the teacher was often too drunk to hold classes.[1]

Several suggestions for remedying the teacher shortage was proposed. The first desired a return to the practice prior to 1878, when civilian teachers had often been hired, especially for the children's school. The War Department did not wish to rely on individuals outside its military control, however, for even an offer by the Laramie, Wyoming Superintendent of schools to furnish a teacher without charge was turned down.[2] A second proposal came from the highest level, yet it too met with defeat. President Hayes remarked in his annual message to Congress on December 6, 1880

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[1] White, op. cit., p. 485.

[2] Ibid., p. 486.

that 2,305 enlisted men and children were presently in attendance at the 78 schools operated by the Army. To properly instruct so many scholars, Hayes recommended the immediate enlistment of 150 schoolmasters, each to receive the rank and pay of "commissary sergeants."[1] Though the House bill dealing with this subject was favorably reported from the Committee on Military Affairs in 1882, Congress did not choose to pass it.[2] President Hayes had previously requested Congress to supply the Army with a "more abundant and better supply of reading," as well as an increase of the extra per diem of soldier teachers, and a "liberal appropriation" for the erection of buildings for schools and libraries at different posts.[3] No increase in per diem was forthcoming, but as we have previously seen the Quartermaster General managed to assist in the area of books and buildings.

Normal schools were often suggested for training the number of teachers needed by the Army. One school teacher at Columbus Barracks, Ohio, even went so far as to submit a fully developed curriculum including, "The Science of Education, The Theory of Instruction, School Government, School Records, and Practice in Instruction."[4] A partial

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[1]Richardson, op. cit., Vol. VII, p. 618.

[2]White, op. cit., p. 485.

[3]Richardson, op. cit., Vol. VII, pp. 473, 499.

[4]White, op. cit., p. 486.

solution to the problem came in 1889, with a general order requiring that officers be put in charge of the post schools.[1] Though it was intended that enlisted men would provide the elementary instruction, while the officers would teach the higher level classes, many young officers found themselves teaching classes, many young officers found themselves teaching classes of near-illiterate soldiers, simply because they were the only available qualified instructors.[2] The same general order brought another change by switching the hours of instruction from evening to normal duty hours and making attendance mandatory. This helped alleviate the problem posed by physically exhausted students in a dimly lit classroom, as well as encouraging attendance by those who felt the school to be the lesser of two evils when compared with a day's duty.

During the rest of the 1880's and 1890's, between one and two thousand enlisted men were attending post schools annually, a sizeable percentage when one considers that the Army's total enlisted strength averaged slightly under 25,000 for the period.[3] A considerable number of soldiers thus were at least taught to read and write, if not to participate in classes of history, arithmetic, geography, penmanship, or natural science. Many enlisted men

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[1] War Department General Order Number 9, January 31, 1889.

[2] White, op. cit., p. 495.

[3] Ibid., p. 489; and U.S. Bureau of the Census, op. cit., p. 736.

who left the ranks of illiteracy were able to further achieve benefit from the libraries or reading rooms which every post possessed, or from the many unit literary societies. Here funds for books were raised by subscription--an initiation fee of one dollar and monthly dues of twenty-five cents being common.[1] For this expenditure the members had access, in one instance at least, to "the standard English works of prose and poetry, the 'Encyclopaedia Britannica,' and books of travel and general reference, besides the principal magazines and periodical published in this country."[2]

During the late Nineteenth Century, the Army was viewed as a force for Americanizing "diverse" elements in our society by at least a few of its officers. In 1890, a Major Powell urged the establishment of special army units composed entirely of Indians, to be supervised by white officers.[3] Powell felt that the Indian should be given the opportunity to "elevate" himself to our standard of civilization, and that the best way for him to do this would be by serving a term of service with the United States Army. The officers of the proposed units were to have a

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[1] W. W. Price, "Soldiers' Leisure Hours in a Western Army Post," The United Service, Vol. 17 (March, 1897), pp. 230-231.

[2] Ibid.

[3] William H. Powell, Maj. 22nd Inf. USA, "The Indian as a Soldier," The United Service, Vol. 17 (March, 1890), p. 234.

clear understanding of the "language" of their troops. Acquiring a command of English would be stressed during the training of the Indian soldiers and Powell notes that "the post schools now in vogue would insure this."[1]

Powell's recommendations do include some points of considerable merit. Especially interesting is his question,

> Why should not Indians be taught to keep their own trading stores, and instead of lining the pockets of white men with the profits derived from this privilege of trading, have the profits distributed in their own communities?[2]

Powell felt that the capital necessary for these small businesses could be accumulated readily by a thrifty soldier during his three-year enlistment. Indian soldiers would return to their reservations and set themselves up as storekeepers, bakers, barbers, blacksmiths, or shoemakers, all adapting some skill which they learned in the Army to their own profit and to the benefit of their tribe. Some might even become farmers because of seeing the worth of the vegetables which they learned to cook and eat as soldiers, and which they were taught to raise as company gardeners.[3] All things considered, Powell felt that such a program would serve both the cause of the Indians and of society as a whole, with every Indian secured by enlistment counting as two gains--one more member of the productive class and one

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

less member of the non-productive.[1]

In spite of their obvious merits, Major Powell's suggestions aroused no response from the War Department.

Regiments for Blacks at least had some chance of fulfilling expectations, four having been formally established by Congress in 1866.[2] The same Appropriations Act provided for appointment by the President, with the "advice and consent" of the Senate, of one Chaplain for each regiment of colored troops, this to be in addition to the usually authorized one chaplain per post.[3] The duties of this chaplain would include instruction of the enlisted men in "the Common English branches of eduction."[4] Several of the chaplains appointed over the years took this last injunction very seriously, devoting a great deal of their time and effort to the upgrading of the troops under their charge. The most effective of these, George G. Mullins of the 25th Infantry Regiment, later served as "Officer in Charge of Education in the Army.[5] Mullins managed to organize a post school with three daily sessions and compulsory attendance for its pupils. He also somehow

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[1] Ibid., p. 238.

[2] Acts and Resolutions of the First Session of the 39th Congress (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1866), Public Law #181, p. 347, section 30.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid.

[5] White, op. cit., p. 481.

succeeded in having a post order published which directed subordinate commanders to arrange their duty schedules so as not to conflict with school attendance.[1] Despite a host of additional duties placed on this ambitious chaplain--post garden, ground, and roads officer; disaster relief officer, preparation of a work on local flora and fauna at the War Department's request; etc.--he continued to strive for achievement of educational advancement of his Black soldiers, eventually expanding his concern to all enlisted men, and reaching a high position in the War Department.[2]

Another successful chaplain--educator was an ex-slave, Allen Allensworth, who had succeeded in graduating from college after the Civil War.[3] Realizing that the Army's systematic segregation, which even extended to "separate but equally well-fitted classrooms," could not be successfully challenged during his life-time, Allensworth chose to work within the limits imposed on him.[4] Allensworth was undoubtedly the successful Black Army educator of his time.[5] While on temporary assignments to college and recruiting duties he encouraged many able men of his race to enlist and follow one of the few roads to advancement

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid., p. 483.

[3] Ibid., p. 484.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid.

available in that period.[1] He was also one of the few Army officers who were members of the National Educational Association, and thus able to present an address to that body on Army education, as Allensworth did in 1891.[2]

The close of the Nineteenth Century also marks the end of the Army's involvement with non-military education on a haphazard and uncoordinated basis. After the Spanish-American War of 1898, the Army was no longer merely an internal security force devoted to the pacification of the Indian. With its new responsibilities, both at home and abroad, came increased requirements for well-planned non-military education programs.

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Allen Allensworth, "Military Education in the United States," Journal of Proceedings and Addresses (New York: National Educational Association, 1891), pp. 221-234.

III. EXPANSION OF THE ARMY'S NON-MILITARY EDUCATION RESPONSIBILITIES

Significant expansion of the Army's non-military education responsibilities occurred during the period 1900 to 1940, partially resulting from the assignment to War Department control of territories acquired in the Spanish-American War of 1898. In addition, the First World War brought increased requirements for non-military education to fill the leisure hours of soldiers, as well as to re-train those disabled in the war. The 1916 National Defense Act's provisions for vocational training of enlisted men were successfully implemented in the early 1920's, and Army responsibility for operation of the Civilian Conservation Corps included the establishment of educational facilities for the young men under its jurisdiction.

Despite its brevity, the Spanish American War had a lasting effect on the War Department's involvement with non-military education. In the major territories acquired from Spain--Puerto Rico and the Philippines--which were governed by the Department's Bureau of Insular Affairs, the education of the islands' inhabitants was an important part of the civil administration.

In the Philippines, the War Department placed the actual work of governing in the hands of the Second Philippine Commission, a group of prominent citizens which included the Honorable William H. Taft of Ohio, Professor Dean C. Worcester of Michigan, the Honorable Luke I. Wright of Tennessee, Professor Bernard Moses of California, and the Honorable Henry C. Ide of Vermont.[1] Their instructions of April 7, 1900 stated:

> It will be the duty of the commission to promote and extend, and, as they find occasion, to improve the system of education already inaugurated by the military authorities. In doing this they should regard as of first importance the extension of a system of primary education which shall be free to all and which shall tend to fit the people for the duties of citizenship and for the ordinary avocations of a civilized community. This instruction should be given in the first instance in every part of the islands in the langauges of the people. In view of the great number of languages spoken by the different tribes, it is especially important to the prosperity of the islands that a common medium of communication may be established, and it is obviously desirable that this medium should be the English language. Especial attention should be at once given to affording full opportunity to all the people of the islands to acquire the use of the English language.[2]

Following this order, the Commission passed an act (No. 74) on January 21, 1901 establishing a department of public instruction, under the direction of a general superintendent.[3] The new superintendent, Frederick W. Atkinson, a

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[1] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1900, p. 101.

[2] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1901, p. 216.

[3] Ibid.

former principal in Springfield, Massachusetts, was authorized to obtain from the United States 1,000 trained teachers, with monthly salaries of between $75 and $125.[1] A "normal school" for the education of the native Filipinos in "the science of teaching" was soon established in Manila, with 600 pupils enrolled, followed by a trade school and a school of agriculture.[2] With the arrival of 682 teachers from the U.S. in Army transport ships, 150,000 children were able to be enrolled in free primary schools. Three to four thousand native teachers were employed, and daily instruction for them in the English language was provided. In addition, more than ten thousand other adults were studying English in evening schools under American teachers. Despite the initial success in organizing an educational system, certain problems were soon evident. First, there were more people anxious for education than there were teachers to furnish it, and yet there were more teachers than there were buildings or rooms for them to teach in. Second, the close relations between church and state under Spanish rule had resulted in a dominance of religious over secular education in such public schools as had previously been in existence. To Americans, a complete separation of church and state seemed a necessary principle for the new government, yet

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[1] Annual Report, 1900, op. cit., p. 103; and Annual Report, 1901, op. cit., p. 216.

[2] Annual Report, 1901, op. cit., pp. 217-218.

such a move would "leave the inhabitants of the islands with but very few facilities for religious education." A compromise appeared necessary and was formalized in a provision of the above-mentioned education act (No. 74):

> Sec. 16. No teacher or other person shall teach or criticize the doctrines of any church, religious sect, or denomination, or shall attempt to influence the pupils for or against any church or religious sect in any public school established under this act. . . . Provided, however, that it shall be lawful for the priest or minister of any church established in the pueblo where a public school is situated, either in person or by a designated teacher of religion, to teach religion for one-half an hour three times a week in the school building to those public school pupils whose parents or guardians desire it and express their desire therefor in writing filed with the principal teacher in the school, to be forwarded to the division superintendent, who shall fix the hours and rooms for such teaching. But no public school teacher shall either conduct religious exercises or teach religion or act as a designated religious teacher in the school building under the foregoing authority, and no pupil shall be required by any public school teacher to attend and receive the religious instruction herein permitted.[1]

A record public school enrollment of 776,596 had been created in 1920 by the opening of 749 new primary and 111 new intermediate schools in the previous year, and a total of 17,000 teachers, only 356 of whom were American, were employed. These schools, it was reported, were rapidly spreading "health propaganda, scientific farming, and the use of the English language" throughout the population. Special efforts were being made to reach the three-quarter million non-Christians of the remote mountain and

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[1] Ibid., p. 217.

forest districts. One hundred and thirty-eight new schools were opened in non-Christian territories in 1919, employing 1,442 teachers and educating 51,029 pupils. Provision was also made for higher education, through government scholarships for 114 individuals sent to study in the United States.[1]

Throughout the Twenties enrollment continued to mount in Philippine public schools, reaching 1,111,566 in 1929.[2] In 1930 it was reported that another 50,000 were in attendance and that expenditures from insular appropriations for education amounted to 21% of total insular income. Educational research was also being stimulated by a gift of $160,000 from the International Board of Education.[3]

The island of Puerto Rico also benefited from the rule of the Bureau of Insular Affairs. Though coming under this jurisdiction ten years later than the Philippines, it soon showed the same degree of improvement over its previous condition as a Spanish colony.[4] By 1912 the advance in educational work was shown by a 20 per cent increase in student enrollment over the previous year, with 145,525

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[1] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1920, Vol. III, p. 28.

[2] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1929, p. 15.

[3] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1930, p. 25.

[4] Annual Report, 1929, op. cit., p. 12

pupils enrolled in the island's public schools.[1] In all, from 1899 to 1930 enrollment advanced from 29,182 to 221,248. During the same period the number of teachers was increased from 850 to 4,451, and expenditures for education rose from $185,866 to $4,000,000. At this point in 1930 over thirty-seven per cent of the island's revenues were being spent on education.[2] "Practical training" was deemed of utmost importance. Thirty-six rural secondary schools were built on farms of five to fifteen acres, and schooling in agriculture and manual training was given to the boys, while the girls were taught home economics. Approximately forty-five per cent of the children of school age were enrolled during the early Thirties.[3]

War Department influence over the educational affairs of the far-flung American territories appears to have ended some time in 1940, for the Bureau of Insular Affairs and its officer personnel are no longer listed in the Secretary of War's Report for that year, though they appear for the year previous.[4] This was possibly due to a growing concern of the War Department with its primary mission, national defense, in light of events in Europe.

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[1] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1912, Vol. I, p. 44.

[2] Annual Report, 1930, op. cit., p. 31.

[3] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1931, p. 16.

[4] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1940, "Tables of Strength"; and Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1939, "Tables of Strength."

According to an act approved June 3, 1916, the Army of the United States would in the future consist of the Regular Army, the Regular Army Reserve, the National Guard (when federalized), the Enlisted Reserve Corps, the Officers' Reserve Corps, and the Volunteer Army.[1] A little known paragraph of this act was the portion of section 27 which mandated vocational instruction for soldiers.[2] In addition to their military training, new Army members were to be given the opportunity for study and instruction along educational and vccational lines, in order that they might return to civilian life better equipped for careers in commercial, industrial, and general business occupations. Civilian teachers were to be employed to assist Army officers in providing such instruction, and the vocational portion could relate either to agriculture or the "mechanic arts."[3] The Secretary of War was given full jurisdiction over the program, and had the power to "suspend, increase, or decrease the amount of such instruction offered as may in his judgment be consistent with the requirements of military instruction

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[1] Statutes at Large of the United States of America, Vol. XXXIX, Part 1, chap. 134, "Public Law 85," p. 86.

[2] Josiah B. Miller, Lt. Col., Training and Training Policy in the U.S. Army, undated draft manuscript for chapter titled "Background for 20th Century Training 1899-1917" (Washington: Office of Chief of Mil. Hist., DA), pp. 111-112.

[3] Statutes at Large, op. cit.

and service of the soldiers."[1] According to its backers, section 27 was designed to improve recruting by assuring the soldier that his time spent in the military would not be wasted if he were to decide not to "go career." To many officers, however, this was the first legal backing for a scheme to divert the army's time, effort, and manpower from its traditional pursuits and turn it into a civilian educational institution. Such a policy was completely at odds with the General Staff's plan, which called for intensively training conscripts in military subjects for a short period of time, following this with a furlough to the appropriate reserve. Under this system, no time was available to be wasted teaching soldiers how to make money after discharge from the service. The new policy was also contrary to the basic dictum set forth by former Secretary of War Root--that the real purpose of an army is to prepare for war.[2]

When the subject of vocational training was first put before the Staff at the request of Secretary Garrison in 1913, there was practically unanimous opposition. Captain Douglas MacArthur, later General of the Army, expressed the commonly shared opinion that a soldier should need no excuse for being a soldier, and that such an honorable profession was worthy of having full time spent on it. He concluded that, "The plan is founded on fallacious principles and if attempted is

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Miller, op. cit.

certain to end in failure."[1] The Secretary was insistent, however, and the idea was given a trial on a small scale, though soon discontinued when the situation worsened along the Mexican border. Now the new legislation revived the plan and forced it on an unwilling military. Though appropriate regulations were promulgated by the War Department, preparation for and involvement in World War I postponed their extensive implementation.

With the entry of the United States into World War I, it became obvious that a prolonged war would require the services of skilled technicians in numbers far beyond those which could be readily drafted from the civilian economy. Accordingly, early in 1918 there was established within the War Department "The Committee on Education and Special Training," with Colonel Hugh S. Johnson, Deputy Provost Marshall General, Lieutenant Colonel Robert I. Rees, General Staff, and Major Grenville Clark, Adjutant General's Department, appointed as members.[2] Under the direction of the Army's Chief of Staff, Major General John Biddle, the committee studied the needs of the various service branches for technicians, and determined how these needs were to be met; if not by selective draft, then by special training in the civilian colleges and schools. The three committee members

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[1] Ibid., "Memo of Capt. MacArthur to Gen. Witherspoon."

[2] War Department General Order Number 15, February 10, 1918.

could not reach the proper conclusions in a vacuum, so they were to be assisted by an advisory civilian board, composed of representatives of major educational institutions appointed by the Secretary of War.

Among the universities engaged in the traning of special units of drafted men was the University of Pittsburgh. In March 1918 the board of trustees met to determine what contribution could be made to the plan of the Committee on Education and Special Training. Within a month after deciding to provide instruction in the field of "gas-engine and automobile mechanics," 326 men were actually in training at "Pitt." By May the total had risen to 650, with additional increases to 1,000 by June and 2,000 by August 1918 scheduled.[1] Instructors were obtained by selecting 45 of the city's best automobile repairmen and placing them under the supervision of faculty members. Since the course was designed to dwell entirely on the practical, with no more theory than absolutely necessary, the new instructors proved quite capable of achieving good results.

Material used in the course came from several sources. Some new engines and trucks were furnished by the government, while old and dilapidated cars were purchased by the university. In addition, cars and trucks in need of repair were obtained from individual owners and firms. No charge was

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[1] "The Training in Universities of Drafted Men," School and Society, Vol. VII (June 8, 1918), p. 672.

made for labor on privately owned cars, but the owners paid for all new parts installed. They were even given a choice as to whether their cars should be put in "first class," "fair," or "running" condition. The shop equipment and individual tool kits used by the students in repairing the vehicles were provided by the university.[1]

Housing problems caused by the large influx of new "students" were met at first by utilizing a local armory, as well as gymnasiums and other buildings which were temporarily adapted for sleeping purposes and for feeding the men. Barracks were then constructed that would accommodate the 2,000 men expected in the classes by August 1, 1918. A mess hall seating 1,200 was readied for opening in June and shops for 560 men had been constructed by late May.[2]

The "students" were expected to become proficient in military subjects in addition to the mechanical. But their officers reported that they showed their "excellent morale and fine spirit" in the energy with which they attacked the diagnostic problem of a broken-down car, and in the zest with which they went through their military drill manuevers.

A number of other programs at civilian schools were instituted within a few months of the initial organization of the Committee on Education and Special Training, but the one designed to have the greatest impact on the problem of

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[1] Ibid., p. 673.

[2] Ibid.

training technicians was the Student Army Training Corps. Formally organized on October 1, 1918, the "SATC" was created to "fill the demand for men suitable to be trained as officers and for specialists along technical lines.[1] Regularly enrolled students, especially those in medicine, chemistry, and engineering were to be given the opportunity to volunteer for the program. They would then be inducted into the United States Army and be placed on active duty, in uniform, as privates. The Army contracted with the colleges for their housing, subsistence, and instruction.[2] Eleven hours per week of military training would be provided in addition to the ordinary courses. After a period of observation by military officers and by technical experts in the students' fields, the men would be selected according to their performance and assigned to military duties. This could include transferral to an officers' training camp or a non-commissioned officers' training school, continued assignment at their present school for further intensive work in their specialty, or assignment to the vicational training section of the Corps for technician training at a lower level. If an individual did now show any promise, he was to be

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[1]Edward C. Smith, "The S.A.T.C. from the Military Viewpoint," Educational Review, Vol. LIX (May 1920), pp. 401, 404.

[2]U.S. War Dept. Committee on Education and Special Training, Committee on Education and Special Training: A Review of its Work during 1918 (Washington: War Dept., 1919), pp. 75-77.

transferred to a cantonment for duty with troops as a private.[1]

Almost immediately, however, the SATC ran into a series of setbacks, these being of such magnitude as to eliminate any chance of success for the Corps. First came the great influenza epidemic of Fall 1918, upsetting the carefully laid plans for the Corps and forcing the closing of many schools until October 25.[2] Then, less than three weeks later, the Armistice was signed. The war was "over" and the maintenance of high morale and strict discipline, easy under wartime conditions, became an impossibility. Demobilization and discontinuance of most SATC units followed in December, though a few simply changed over to Reserve Officer Training Corps.[3]

Given the mitigating circumstances stated above, it does not seem that the SATC was in full operation a long enough period of time to be properly judged. In addition, and perhaps more to the point, it was considered a success by the military, since 8,642 men were transferred to officers' training camps from SATC units and another 130,000 had received training which fitted them for officers camps

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[1] Ibid., p. 84. "The Students' Army Training Corps Descriptive Circular."

[2] Smith, op. cit., p. 414.

[3] "Military Training in Colleges," School and Society, Vol. IX (January 4, 1919), p. 25.

or the technical corps.[1] The successful collaboration of such institutions as the University of Pittsburgh with the Army in training specific types of technicians does seem to point to a strong possibility of success of the war and the SATC had lasted longer.

Most of the educational activities in the Army's U.S. based training camps seem to have been sponsored by civilian agencies. "War recreation boards" in many of the cities near the camps co-operated with the YMCA educational directors in securing teachers, especially for French language courses. Alexandria, Louisiana helped open a "grammar school" with evening classes in French and history. The Chatanooga Board of Education supplied the educational materials necessary for 300 men in a nearby camp, many of them enrolled in literacy classes. Atlanta, Georgia furnished French teachers for the YMCA program, and other cities--Burlington, Vermont; Chicago, Illinois; San Francisco, California; Minneapolis and St. Paul, Minnesota; Pensacola, Florida; and Indianapolis, Indiana--rendered similar services.[2]

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[1] Smith, op. cit., p. 419; see also Paul Boyd, "What and how far have Military Courses and Training Contributed to the College Curricula," School and Society, Vol. X (August 23, 1919), pp. 219-224.

[2] "Educational Work in the Training Camps," School and Society, Vol. VII (June 8, 1918), pp. 671-672.

Universities also contributed, with the University of South Carolina at Columbia giving courses in French, history, mathematics, and topography at a "nominal rate." The president of the University of Texas took over the educational work for the men at Fort Bliss, assigning five university instructors and three volunteers to the camp, where two thousand men had enrolled in classes. In Macon, Georgia, an educational course was arranged which gave high school and college credits, and the state universities of Wisconsin and California sent instructors to nearby camps.[1]

Not all work was strictly of an academic nature, however. At the Philadelphia Navy Yard, instruction was available in automobile mechanics, electricity, typewriting, and surveying as well. Elsewhere, classes were conducted in animal husbandry for men in charge of horses and mules, typewriting, shorthand, bookkeeping, and commercial law.[2] Some idea of participation can be gained from an examination of the following extract from a statistical report for the first three months of 1918.[3]

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[1] Ibid., p. 672.

[2] William Howard Taft, chairman, Service with Fighting Men: An Account of the Work of the American Young Men's Christian Associations in the World War (New York: Association Press, 1922), Vol. I, p. 349.

[3] Ibid.

Department	Books Circulated	Attend. at Lectures	Attend. at Classes
Northeastern	72,422	120,286	46,125
Eastern	419,607	330,702	183,714
Southeastern	277,198	675,194	521,118
Central	205,843	348,557	295,123
Southern	163,124	206,375	146,102
Western	108,114	208,932	85,138

One of the major problems in establishing an educational program was that of obtaining books and magazine for classes and for camp libraries. Many of the cities near camps set up collection centers at the city libraries, where the books could be sorted prior to donation to the men in uniform. Some libraries even went so far as to establish branches in the camps. The Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts held book drives, just as they had collected newspapers, tin cans, and peach pits for use in gas masks. In Atlanta, Georgia, the laundry wagons gathered books as they made their regular collections, and hotels were asked to donate the magazines left by their guests. Publishing houses like the American Book Company demonstrated their patriotism by providing textbooks free or at cost. Movie houses also provided advertising in the appeal for reading matter.[1] From the thousands of books listed as being circulated in the table above at least some of these efforts must have been successful.

The American Expeditionary Forces in Europe organized their educational programs under the authority contained in

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[1] "Educational Work in the Training Camps," op. cit., p. 672.

Section 27 of the National Defense Act of June 3, 1916:

> In addition to military training, soldiers while in the active service shall hereafter be given the opportunity to study and receive instruction upon educational lines of such character as to increase their military efficiency and enable them to return to civil life better equipped for industrial, commercial, and general business occupations. Civilian teachers may be employed to aid the Army officers in giving such instruction, and part of this instruction may consist of vocational education either in agriculture or the mechanic arts.[1]

At first these programs were mainly the result of the activity of the YMCA's "Army Educational Commission," which conducted voluntary classes in French, the causes of the war, European history, and mathematics.[2] Later, a series of general orders clarified the responsibilities of the army unit commanders as well as those of the attached non-military agencies like the YMCA. The initial order of October 31, 1918, required that all post, regimental, and detachment commanders establish "post schools" and appoint school officers in posts, hospitals, rest camps, or other areas which had a constant military population of five hundred or more.[3] Proper rooms, lighting, heating, and equipment would be provided by the Army if not otherwise furnished by "civil societies."

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[1] Statutes at Large, Vol. XXXIX, op. cit.

[2] United States Army in the World War 1917-1919, Vol. 14 (Washington: DA Historical Div., 1948), p. 432.

[3] Ibid., Vol. 16, p. 508.

Instruction was standardized as to requirements, textbooks, courses, and records according to the system developed by the YMCA's Educational Commission. In addition to the subjects mentioned above which has been taught in the "Y" classes, there were added "civics, courses in common school subjects, and special courses for examination for promotion."[1] Where the necessary facilities had been provided by civil organizations, special correspondence and university extension courses, as well as physical education could also be included in the school curriculum.

Attendance in these post schools was for the most part voluntary for officers and enlisted men. The commander did have the option of requiring attendance at any course which would be "necessary to the interest of the service." Individual soldiers who could profit by special mental or physical education might also be ordered to attend post schools, and all soldiers who entered any unit of a course of instruction were required to complete that unit.[2] Changes of military duties often interfered with course completion. In those cases, the school officer prepared a transfer card or progress record and forwarded it along with the student's army service records to the next unit. There, hopefully, he would get a chance to re-enroll and eventually receive his "certificate of proficiency."

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid., Vol. 16, p. 509

A second general order relating to educational work appeared in January 1919.[1] This one made some slight changes in curriculum, substituting "U.S. History" for "Causes of the War" and making attendance mandatory at post schools for all illiterates and any non-English speaking American soldiers.[2] These groups were undoubtedly large, since two writers involved in the testing of new recruits estimated that 25% could not read an English newspaper, write an English letter, or had not reached the fifth grade of school.[3] Another estimate of the time put the number at "no less than 121,000 illiterates among our men now in Frances."[4] According to at least one report, the illiterates were so eager to learn to read and write that they made this part of the system one of the most successful, with many organizations which had come to France with a high percentage of illiterate members returning home entirely literate.[5]

By February 1919, the Armistice had been in effect long enough to convince the General Staff that the bulk of the American forces would eventually be withdrawn from

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[1] Ibid., Vol. 16, pp. 605-606.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Caroline E. Myers and Gary C. Myers, "Educational Research and Statistics--A group Intelligence Test," School and Society, Vol. X (September 20, 1919), p. 355.

[4] "Teaching the Soldier," New Outlook, Vol. 120 (December 4, 1918), p. 531.

[5] Ibid.

Europe. Most citizen-soldiers, however, had strongly desired to go home shortly after the Armistice was signed. This being a physical, military, and political impossibility, the American Army had a dual problem: to reorganize itself into an even more effective fighting force, repairing the damage heavy casualties had wrecked on its units; and to keep its men so busily occupied that they would not dwell on thoughts of "home." For the first few months the reorganization brought great enough demands on the time of the troops, but gradually, as the divisions were brought up to full strength and winter quarters properly prepared, more attention had to be devoted to amusement, athletics, and educational activities for the soldiers.[1] Now the time seemed ripe for supplementing the previously established elementary and secondary education system of the post schools with more advanced education. Accordingly, General Order Number 30 provided for "divisional educational centers" in each army, corps, and division and in each section of the "Services of Supply."[2] Each center held classes in a large number of different vocational areas, among them: carpentry, telephone repair, telegraphy, wire and wireless, land surveying, road construction, horseshoeing, automobile repairing, cobbling,

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[1] U.S. Army in the World War, op. cit., Vol. 14, pp. 307-309.

[2] Ibid., Vol. 16, pp. 653-654.

tailoring, barbering, cooking, baking, and nursing.[1] Some of this training was also able to be combined with reconstruction work, assisting the recovery of the civilian populace in ruined areas of France and Belgium.[2] The most important vocational training center, however, was centered at Decize, France, in a great concentration of shops belonging to the Services of Supply.[3]

Other subjects of a general educational nature were to be offered if a local survey by a commander found enough interest. Some suggested subjects included: Algebra, trigonometry, mechanical drawing, agriculture, salesmanship, economics, American and English literature, advanced French, Italian, Spanish, German, and advanced history courses.[4] These courses provided a minimum of five hours of supervised study and instruction per day, five days per week, for a three month period. In certain cases provisional educational companies were organized in a command, with a maximum enrollment of fifteen per cent of the soldiers in that organization. The members of these companies received one hour of military training per day in addition to their

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[1] Ibid.

[2] "Teaching the Soldier," op. cit., p. 531.

[3] U.S. Army in the World War, op. cit., Vol. 14, p. 308.

[4] Ibid.

educational work.[1]

> Give me nine men and the YMCA and we will have a more effective fighting force than as though we had ten men without the YMCA.
>
> General Pershing[2]

The Young Men's Christian Association was recognized as an agency of the American Expeditionary Force in an order of President Wilson issued April 26, 1917.[3] Its personnel were to be rendered the "fullest possible assistance and cooperation" from the military authorities in the fulfilling of their mission. This mission was to include the setting up of clubs, cafes, hotels, education classes and lectures, and an athletic program, as well as a "direct and indirect attack upon the menace of prostitution."[4]

Shortly after the arrival of large numbers of United States' troops on the European scene in the autumn of 1917, the directors of the YMCA who had accompanied the American Expeditionary Forces saw the need for increased educational opportunities for the troops. Accordingly, they urged the Association's "War Work Council" in New York to send one or more of the leading educators of the day to France in order

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[1] Ibid., Vol. 16, p. 653.

[2] Percy Adams Hutchison, "At Home and Overseas--What the 'Y' did," Army and Navy Register, Vol. 65 (February 8, 1919), p. 161.

[3] U.S. Army in the World War, op. cit., Vol. 12, p. 225.

[4] Ibid.

that a survey might be properly conducted. Dr. Anson Phelps Stokes, Secretary of Yale University, arrived in France on January 8, 1918, and began preparing a report which was submitted to General Pershing's headquarters a month later.[1] On March 15, 1918, a reply was received from the Chief of staff that, "The C-in-C [commander in chief] approves the project in principle and has directed that proper facilities be given for this work throughout this command."[2]

On the basis of this reply and following the guide lines laid down in a draft of a new general order, the YMCA organized the Army Educational Commission, with Professor John Erskine of Columbia University, President Butterfield of Amherst Agricultural College, and Mr. Frank Spaulding, Superintendent of Public Schools in Cleveland as member, and undertook responsibility for educational work in the "A.E.F." This responsibility was made official in October 31, 1918, when the first general order on education was issued by the American Army Headquarters. The first paragraph of this order stated that:

> The Young Men's Christian Association, through the Y.M.C.A. Army Educational Commission, has organized, with the approval of the Commander-in-Chief, an educational system charged with the

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[1] Ibid., Vol. 15, p. 150; see also "Teaching the Soldier," op. cit., p. 530.

[2] U.S. Army in the World War, op. cit., Vol. 15, p. 450.

> standardization of educational methods and the establishment of schools for instruction of officers and soldiers on all of the larger posts, camps, and hospitals of the American Expeditionary Forces.[1]

In the days prior to the November Armistice, YMCA instructors were busily engaged in the education of the troops, with the stated purpose of increasing military efficiency and morale.[2] During that period an estimated 300,000 soldiers were studying French, while others in large numbers took courses in European history and geography. Lectures, pamphlets, and posters were used to help build up an "intelligent appreciation" of the achievements and ideals of our Allies, and of the "great aims" for which the Allied armies were fighting.[3] Another YMCA sub-section, the Department of Hygiene, acted in liaison with the Surgeon-General's office in an additional educational venture--an "unobstrucive campaign of sexual education," the work being conducted along "preventative lines."[4] Lectures to the troops at ports and camps were coupled with the distribution of literature and posters, the use of lantern slides and films, and the organization of discussion groups. Four films were particularly

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[1] Ibid., Vol. 16, p. 508, "General Order No. 192."

[2] Katherine Mayo, That Damn Y--A Record of Overseas Service (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920), Chapters 24-26.

[3] U.S. Army in the World War, op. cit., Vol. 15, p. 451.

[4] Ibid., p. 452.

"popular": "Fit to Fight," dealing with veneral diseases from the man's standpoint; "The End of the Road," veneral disease from a woman's standpoint; "How Life Begins," instruction in the biology of reproduction with an appeal for the best in family life; and "A Day in Gulick's Camp," which illustrated the preparation being made by the young women of America for their life duties, presumably of a domestic nature.[1] Discussion groups were formed in 58 centers under the direction of unit school teachers. Over 350,000 pamphlets were distributed, along with 3,000 posters and 2,300 books. A total of 579 lectures were presented from November 1, 1917 to January 1919, reaching an audience of over 300,000.[2]

The YMCA also encouraged the formation of "self-operating clubs" for debating, current events, music, as well as the reading and discussion of serious literature.[3] For those men lucky enough to be sent to the "Leave Areas" for recuperation from the rigors of life in the trenches, the "Y" even provided classes there, mostly on the history of the particular area.[4]

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Manual of Camp Work for Army and Navy Young Men's Christian Associations (Y.M.C.A., 1918), p. 17.

[4] James Albert Sprenger and Franklin Spencer Edmonds, The Leave Areas of the American Expeditionary Forces, 1918-1919: Records and Memories (Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1928), p. 17.

The Armistice brought with it a falling off of attendance at French classes and an increasingly expressed desire to study subjects relating to the United States, which would help the soldier prepare for his return to civilian life. YMCA educators helped satisfy this desire, assisting Army division and post commanders in establishing schools for every academic level, utilizing many of the 50,000 soldiers in the AEF who had been found to possess teaching qualifications.[1]

By March 1919, the Chief Secretary of the YMCA felt that the AEF's educational system had reached such a high point of development that it would be to the Army's advantage to assume complete responsibility for the Army Educational Commission and its staff. Accordingly, on March 14, 1919, inquiry to this effect was made to the General Headquarters.[2] The reply of the Commander-in-Chief indicated that authority had been obtained from the War Department to assume complete financial responsibility for the entire educational project, including the cost of the nearly 2,000,000 previously ordered textbooks and the "other items of current operating expenses of the Commission." All members of the Army Educational Commission, YMCA, and all persons within that organization who were required in educational work were to be placed under

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[1] U.S. Army in the World War, op. cit., Vol. 15, p. 451.

[2] Ibid. pp. 451-452.

military control.[1] On April 15, 1919 the YMCA completely severed its connection with the schooling programs in the Army, releasing all of its members who were performing educational duties to the Army's control.[2]

To supplement and expand on the educational opportunities available within the AEF, officers and soldiers were given the privilege of attending some of the most prestigious universities in France and in Britain during the spring term ending June 30, 1919. Those soldiers selected received a subsistence allowance for food of $2.00 per day and up to $1.00 per day for lodging, but receipts or affidavits for the actual expenses incurred were required to be furnished to AEF headquarters on "War Department Form No. 330," a typical Army paper work operation.[3]

Over 8,000 students participated in this program, 6,300 attending French universities and 1,956 attending universities in Britain.[4] Seventy-five per cent of those studying in France enrolled at either the Sorbonne in Paris or at Toulouse in south-western France, while the others were scattered among twelve other universities.[5]

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[1] Ibid., p. 452.

[2] Ibid., Vol. 14, p. 435.

[3] U.S. Army in the World War, op. cit., Vol. 16, "General Order 30," pp. 653-654.

[4] Ibid., Vol. 14, p. 436.

[5] School and Society, Vol. IX (January 11, 1919), p. 151.

The fact that a foreign language was involved was expected to prove an obstacle, but the superior group of students selected were "not only able to master the French language but were able early in the term to receive great benefit from the regular courses offered at each university," according to the official report.[1] This view was also held by Professor Stephen H. Bush, former head of the Department of Romance Languages at Iowa University who served as the AEF's dean in Paris. In his opinion, "the results were a magnificent justification of the generous opportunity provided by the Army."[2] One must realize that these students were indeed a "superior group," a high proportion drawn from college graduates in the officer ranks and including men with doctor's degrees. Enlisted men who were selected usually had completed at least two years of college.[3] It is really not so unusual, then, that they performed in such an "outstanding manner." Their grasp of the language was undoubtedly assisted by their complete immersion in the French atmosphere, living in French homes, and listening to three or four sixty minute lectures a day.[4] Courses were

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[1] U.S. Army in the World War, op. cit., Vol. 14, p. 434.

[2] Stephen H. Bush, "American Soldiers in French Universities," Educational Review, Vol. 59 (January, 1920), pp. 65-72.

[3] Taft, op. cit., Vol. II, pp. 16-17.

[4] Bush, op. cit., p. 67.

offered in French civilization, the History of the French language, and the History of France. One hundred eighty-nine "mature men," most of them practicing attorneys in civilian life, were enrolled in law courses. The sole problem area was that of the one hundred fifty doctors who were part of the student body. It seems that these men were very weak in the French language and were only interested in post-graduate courses, thus creating a problem that could not readily be solved. Nine out of ten of the other soldier-students, however, testified to the Students' Committee that their studies had been very successful, even with April and June exams plus five "resumes" a term.[1]

In Britain nearly 1,200 enlisted men and 800 officers attended classes, principally at Oxford and Cambridge.[2] Courses at Cambridge began on March 10, during the University's normally quiet spring recess. Thanks to a great deal of special effort expended by the school, a large number of short courses were available, featuring prominant lecturers. Of the 200 attending classes at Cambridge, over a hundred took the arts course, thirty took science, thirty law, twenty-three theology, and seven

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[1] Ibid., pp. 67, 69-70.

[2] Arthur E. Shipley, Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge University, "America in Cambridge" New Outlook, Vol. 122 (June 25, 1919), pp. 330-335.

agricultural and technical. About fifty per cent of the students already possessed their bachelor's degree and an additional seventeen per cent had advanced degrees. Though most soldiers were reported to be very pleased with the university life in which they found themselves, it was, of course, very different from what they were accustomed to in the United States. The absence of gymnasiums astonished some, while the lack of baths in certain colleges seems to have been a problem, though troops who had survived the privations of trench warfare should not have been too distressed. The "college" concept of Cambridge itself probably accounted for the most surprise, since many Americans expected the University at Cambridge to have a campus setting. It came as a shock, therefore, to discover that they were to be assigned to one of the many semi-autonomous "colleges" scattered all over the city, with their school buildings often separated by shops and houses and with lecture rooms sometimes a quarter of an hour's walk apart.[1] They soon adjusted, however, and for the rest of the term became full members of their respective colleges, returning to the United States as "Trinity men, Jesus men, Caius men, Christ's men, and so on."[2]

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[1] Ibid., p. 334.

[2] Ibid.

AMERICAN SOLDIERS AT CAMBRIDGE

College	Number of Soldiers Matriculated
Caius	23
Cheshunt	9
Christ's	15
Clare	10
Downing	6
Fitzwilliam Hall	15
Emmanuel	15
Jesus	10
King's	10
Magdalene	6
Queens'	10
Ridley Hall	16
St. John's	25
Sidney	6
Trinity	20

From the few documents and articles available it seems that overall, the soldier-students at British and French universities benefited from their experience. Possibly there was a modification of the Americans' basic provincialism when it was confronted by the accumulated weight of centuries of European civilization; hopefully some members of the French and British academic communities were as pleased with the "fine example of our young citizen," as was the Master of Christ's College, Mr. Shipley, who was previously quoted.

The problem of providing university level education for all who were qualified was solved with the establishment of the American Expeditionary Forces University at Beaune, France. The former president of Norwich University, Colonel Ira L. Reeves, was given responsibility in February 1919 for organizing this institution on the plains of Cote d'or in Burgundy.[1] Luckily, the site chosen was already equipped with suitable buildings, constructed to serve as American base hospitals, but it was still truly amazing that the colonel was able to have the first formal classes begin just one month later on March 19, 1919.[2] Beaune's camp contained approximately 10,000 soldiers at its height; over 6,000 students and the rest service troops, labor battalions, and motor transport units. For the troops in the latter categories, many of whom were illiterate or foreign-born, a post school was organized, with instructors provided from among the University's student-teachers.[3]

The 392 instructors for the 224 separate courses were selected by the Army through an elaborate card catalogue of officers and enlisted men who possessed teaching qualifications. A number of professors from the United

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[1]Taft, op. cit., Vol. II, p. 18.

[2]Frederick M. Foster, "The University of the American Expeditionary Forces," School and Society, Vol. IX (June 14, 1919), pp. 715-716.

[3]Frederick M. Foster, "The Post and Divisional Schools of the A.E.F.," School and Society, Vol. X (July 12, 1919), p. 52.

States also joined the faculty, among them Dr. Ezra Allen of the University of Pennsylvania, Professor Louis E. Reber, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and Joseph M. Gwinn, the Superintendent of Schools in New Orleans, Louisiana. The administration of the academic program was under the guidance of Dr. John Erskine, chairman of the YMCA's Army Educational Commission.[1]

According to Dr. Erskine, the A.E.F. University was well equipped with laboratories for student use, with labs in chemistry, physics, bacteriology, medicine, engineering, and music being available, largely supplied utilizing Army resources.[2] The University offered courses in a wide range of subjects, in general administration, elementary and secondary school management, psychology of education, history and philosophy of education, educational sociology, special methods in agriculture, in trade, and in high school subjects, as well as in the teaching of illiterates and adult foreigners.[3] The last courses had as an excellent practical laboratory the post school of Beaune, where student teachers could assist their illiterate and foreign-born compatriots to reach higher educational levels.

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[1]Schwartz, op. cit., pp.83-84.

[2]John Erskine, "Train Conscripts for War--and for Peace," Educational Record, Vol. XXI (October 1940), p. 441.

[3]Headquarters American A.E.F. University, The Catalogue: Part I (Cote D'or, France: The University, May 16, 1919), p. 61.

The primary purpose of the College of Education was to help prepare its students for future educational work in the United States. No "degrees" or teaching certificates were granted, but many students were able to benefit from review work and others took subjects which were advanced beyond the studies they were engaged in prior to their Army enlistment. The College's second aim was to act as a source of unification and improvement for the A.E.F's whole educational program. At a conference held at Beaune from April 7-9, 1919, the future educational activities of the Army and the Educational Commission were mapped out and provision was made for discussion by means of round tables of problems brought in from the field. The third aim of the College was to serve as a training ground for teachers in the A.E.F.'s post and divisional schools. Seventy-two men from each of the ten divisions which were to remain longest in France were sent to Beaune beginning April 14 to receive training in an intensive workshop of two weeks' duration. These soldiers received five hours per day of instruction arranged as follows: one hour of observation of expert teaching at the University's divisional school; one hour in group discussion of this teaching under the leadership of the instructor; and three hours spent in special work in the subject the student was to be expected to teach. Limited as this effort was, it could be expected to improve and somewhat standardize the instruction in the

field schools of the A.E.F., especially benefiting pupils who might be forced by military necessity to move from post to post.[1]

To supplement the College of Agriculture's more advanced work, the A.E.F. Farm School at Allerey was set up. The entrants in this school were not required to meet any academic prerequisites. Instead, an appeal for prospective students was made to those in the American Army who had been farmers, and the courses given were entirely practical in nature.[2]

In the field of fine and applied arts the demand for training was met by the A.E.F. Art Training Center at Bellevue, Paris, where classes were held in painting, sculpture, architecture, city and town planning, and interior decoration.[3] A College of Fine and Applied Arts was also one of the 12 colleges of the A.E.F. University at Beaune.

The University at Beaune flourished for one term of three months, ending as suddenly as it had begun. But from March 19, 1919 when formal instruction commenced, until June 7, when the term ended, hundreds of instructors and 8,895 soldier-students were busily at work proving that a comprehensive military and educational system could be successfully undertaken.

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[1] Foster, "University of the AEF," op. cit., pp. 717-718.

[2] U.S. Army in the World War, op. cit., Vol. XIV, p. 433.

[3] Ibid., pp. 433-434.

THE COLLEGES OF THE A.E.F. UNIVERSITY

Agriculture	Law
Arts, Fine and Applied	Letters
Business	Medical Science
Education	Music
Engineering, Industry and Trades	Science
Journalism	The Department of Citizenship

The above is the "official" history of the A.E.F. University. For some time it seemed that no one could say a harsh word about "the mightiest educational experiment in history," as one participant described it. Finally, however, an unpublished diary appeared which showed the University to be a lively place where soldier-students of a real army were in residence, not the uncomplaining super-scholars one meets in the official records.[1] The author of this slim volume was a very anti-Army member of the YMCA staff. Too old and too short to be permitted to enlist in the fighting services, he nonetheless managed to see a great deal of the European theater of war as a "Y" worker. The more he saw the more disillusioned he became; profanity, theft, blatant immorality, and dancing were everywhere in evidence. The Army, instead of succumbing to the Christian influence of the YMCA, had rather corrupted that fine

[1]George B. Thayer, Army Influence Over the Y.M.C.A. in France (n.p., 1920, private diary in Military Historical Research Collection (M.H.R.C.), Carlisle Barracks, Pa.).

organization. Mr. Thayer was an embittered man, and if unfavorable comments are desired on any subject relating to the Army, his diary contains them. Luckily, he was at Beaune from May 10, 1919 through July 13, 1919 so we have some benefit of his snide comments on the University. According to Thayer, the base hospital complex which became the A.E.F.'s campus was originally devoted in a large part to care of women workers who had contracted venereal diseases.[1] Certain other comments, complete with their original sentence structure, follow.

On intellectual freedom:

> The great question, however is military atmosphere, a condition where men do what they are ordered to do and little else even to think. Is such an atmosphere conductive to study where thought is so largely an element of success. For instance, some of the students in the School of Journalism thought they could print a small university bulletin. They succeeded fairly well till last week they printed the result of a straw vote on presidential candidates in which Debs Billy Sunday and others were voted for. The article was worked up much as college class books treat such votes with the result the publication was forthwith suppressed.[2]

On the subject of officer-student relations:

> A show Saturday night was booked in the theatre with seats reserved for officers and women workers. When an enlisted man escorted

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[1] Ibid., p. 28.

[2] Ibid., p. 29.

one of the girls to these reserved seats, he himself had to go way back and sit down. There was a good deal of college jollying which most officers took good naturedly. One, however, told the men to "cut it out" or he would call the show off. They replied with a loud "ugh" and the show ended forthwith. The feeling of unrest seems to be on the increase among the student soldiers.[1]

On the "Selling of the War Department":

By the way, if you see in the movies a big crowd of soldiers cheering and throwing up their caps with General Pershing and Secretary of War Baker on the platform here at Beaune, this is the way it was worked up. Both men had concluded their speeches, which were heartily applauded by hand clapping. Then many of us turned to go when we were told to stay till the movie man could get his work in. The order was given for the men to swing their arms and caps in the air but not till the signal was given. The signal was given and you will see the result.[2]

On student questionnaires:

This soldier-student university camp is now undergoing a sociological census. Each man is required, so far as possible, to fill out and answer such searching questions as these:--"Do you gamble now? Did you gamble before entering the army? Do you drink now? Did you drink before entering the army? In conversation do you prefer to listen or do all the talking yourself? Do you feel, since entering the army more tolerant of the opinions of others and more kindly toward them?" These answers, if truthfully given will have a value twenty years from now far in excess of their present worth. "The History of Company K in the Spanish-American War" illustrates this point but if the answers are given as frankly as they were then the

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

men, many of them, will land in the guard house.[1]

On racial discrimination:

> The ("Y") hut picked out for the colored men, to be sure, is the only tent used as a hut in the camp. All the other huts and there are eight, have either cement or wooden floors and walls. The floor, the dirt floor of our hut is also somewhat uneven, except when it rains. Then it is level, all on the level, water level. After the water has soaked into the clay soil the mud remains for some days, making policing each morning the work of some hours. But the colored men have a good time writing letters and tearing them up, even if the pieces scattered in the mud do stick in the morning. Without any heat in the tent still there is no compalint from the men, though I myself have felt chilly.[2]

Thayer also manages to disparage congressional delegations, officers in general, his "Y" predecessors in the hut who were ruined by association with the Army, and the climate of the "fertile Cote d'Or."

The cost of the educational programs of the A.E.F. was surprisingly low, though well over 1-1/2 million servicemen are reported to have participated in them. Originally, in early 1919 General Pershing had been given an allotment of $3 million by the Secretary of War for educational work.[3] Only slightly over half of this amount

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[1] Ibid., p. 30.

[2] Ibid., p. 28.

[3] U.S. Army in the World War, op. cit., Vol. 14, p. 435.

was used when the "final report" on educational activities was made in July 1919, however, most of it in a bulk purchase of textbooks which the YMCA's Educational Commission had previously ordered. Total cost of the programs can be broken down as follows:

Textbooks	$1,156,646.69
Salaries, Educational Corps	318,720.86
Emergency Purchases	6,184.07
Supplies not obtainable on requisition	18,450.42
Traveling expenses, members of the Educational Corps	24,000.00
Total	$1,524.002.04[1]

Against this expenditure we can balance the conservative estimate of 1,670,020 students who were at some time in attendance at one of the education program's many phases. This estimate only includes those students actually reported to the American Army Headquarters and therefore, omits those in a number of divisions which are known to have had a thriving school system, but which returned to the United States in such a feverish haste that they forgot to submit

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[1] Ibid., p. 436.

a report.[1] The "actual known accomplishments" of the A.E.F. education system include:

Post Schools	181,475 students	
Divisional Education Centers	27,250	
AEF University (including the Farm School at Allerey)	8,528	
AEF Art Training Center	367	
Mechanical Trade Schools	4,144	
French Universities	6,300	
British Universities	1,956	230,020
Farmers Institutes	300,000	
Business Institutes	160,000	
Citizen Institutes	230,000	
Educational Lectures	750,000	1,440,000
Total		1,670,020 Students

It is possible to discount the 750,000 figure for "Educational Lectures," a miscellaneous catchall for everything from the chaplain's "character guidance seminar" to a "lecture" from the battalion surgeon deploring the high rate of V.D. in the unit. A skeptical glance might also be directed at some of the "Institutes" as well, though they were evidently conducted

[1] Ibid.

by legitimate groups of qualified lecturers.[1] Still, enough legitimate educational activity took place to justify the War Department's expenditures.

World War I, as all wars, brought with it the problem of casualties. The dead were relatively easy to care for, a small plot of ground and an appropriate marker usually sufficing. The disabled, however, were quite a different matter. Society could send them home to live off the charity of their families, or to resort to begging, sitting pitifully in rags beside a main thorofare. A pension for wounds or service-connected illness was a more "civilized" device that Americans had adopted for veterans of the Civil War. But the disabled person was still a "burden," dependent on others to provide his livelihood; a situation not conducive to high self-esteem. According to many writers in journals of the period, this war would be different from all previous in regard to treatment of the disabled. This time there would be an effort to "wipe out the idea of having cripples after this war."[2] Instead of charity, when a man would return disabled by wounds or illness, there would be a program for rehabilitation, designed to bring him to a degree of working efficiency at least as great as he possessed previously, and

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[1] Ibid., p. 434.

[2] E. G. Brackett, "Rehabilitation of Diseased and Injured Soldiers Due to the War," American Journal of Public Health, Vol. VIII (January, 1918), p. 13.

guaranteed to earn for him the same wage or better that he commanded before the war.[1] One early suggestion was for a series of "Reconstruction Hospitals" to be established, each equipped with the means of teaching different occupations, and closely associated with employment bureaus to help obtain the veteran a job after training in the area where he wished to settle.[2]

Within the Army the Surgeon-General, William G. Gorgas of Panama Canal and yellow fever fame, was planning a program of his own for disabled soldiers.[3] Gorgas believed that rehabilitation, in order to be thoroughly successful, would have to begin in France at the time the wounded soldier first sat up in bed. The soldier would then be given physical therapy to help him regain as much normal use as possible of the injured parts of his body.[4] Following this would be "occupational therapy" or "bedside occupation" involving handicrafts and, finally, when physically able, the soldier would be introduced into a school or factory for final vocational training. Throughout the entire period the wounded soldier would remain entirely under military control.[5]

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[1] Ibid., p. 12

[2] Ibid., pp. 11-12.

[3] William Crawford Gorgas, Surgeon General of the Army, "What of the Workers Wounded in War?" Current Opinion, Vol. LXIIII (February 1918), pp. 92-93.

[4] C. A. Palmer, "Remedial Re-Education--Overseas" American Physical Education Review, Vol. XXIII (June 1918), p. 371.

[5] Gorgas, op. cit., pp. 92-93.

Upon his release from the Army, Gorgas favored providing the rehabilitated soldier with the opportunity to become a farm owner through a new homestead act.

In May, 1918 a joint hearing on vocational education of the disabled soldier was held by the education committees of the Senate and House: Senator Smith and Congressman Sears presiding.[1] Here it was decided that the wounded soldiers would be kept under military control of the Surgeon-General until completion of all medical and surgical treatment. After discharge they would fall under the control of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, thus emphasizing the principle that the making of civilians out of soldiers was a task which should be administered, at least in its later stages, by civilians.[2] This board, according to the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of June 27, 1918, was to co-operate closely with the War and Navy Departments to effect a continuous process of vocational training for the disabled soldier.[3] Members would serve in an advisory capacity in the planning and conduct of educational activity for the men while they were still in the hospitals.[4] Each disabled

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[1]"Hearings on Bills for Re-Education of Disabled Soldiers and Sailors," Manual Training Magazine, Vol. XIX (June, 1918), p. 371.

[2]C. E. Lakeman, "Aftercare of our Disabled Soldiers and Sailors," Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. LXXIX (September, 1918), p. 115.

[3]Ibid., p. 117.

[4]"Hearings on Bills," op. cit.,p. 371.

man was to be given free choice of occupation for which he wished to be trained, as well as free choice of any other type of re-education.[1] To help support the veteran, and to partially compensate him for his injuries, thirty dollars per month for total disability was paid, with additional amounts up to a total of seventy-five dollars being added for dependents. These funds were provided under the War Risk Insurance Act.[2] It was hoped that eventually the disabled veteran would be made totally independent of charity through the job re-training program. By the end of 1918, this program was well underway in general hospitals designated by the Surgeon-General as having responsibility for "physical reconstruction." Their task was to insure that the wounded soldier was brought back to full physical, mental, and vocational capability. At that time patients were being trained for service in a long list of specialties including: general and vocational teachers, typists, printers, tailors, cobblers, harness makers, welders, motor-mechanics, painters, machine workers, wood workers, bookkeepers, statisticians, telegraphers, photographers, telephone operators, and cooks.[3]

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[1] Lakeman, op. cit., p. 116.

[2] Ibid., pp. 123, 129.

[3] "Industrial and Reconstructional Education in the United States Military Hospitals" Industrial Arts Magazine, Vol. VII (October, 1918), p. 393.

In examining the types of cases, by disability, which were registered for educational work, one finds that the most prevalent condition was "pulmonary tuberculosis," which far outnumbered "diseases and wounds," "amputation," or "gassed."[1] The total enrollments in hospital schools reached the 460,000 mark by December 21, 1919, with each patient taking an average of three subjects.[2] A complete listing of all subjects of instruction, featured the Academic, Technical, Commercial, Agricultural, and Recreational areas.[3] Most popular courses were English and math, textile work, typewriting, "General Farming," and physical training. For the six month period January to June, 1919 the major subject areas had the following enrollments:

Academic	50,869
Technical	127,926
Commerical	27,760
Agricultural	9,431
Recreational	33,249
Total	249,474

Four years later most of the work of rehabilitating the war wounded had been completed. By then over 700,000 individuals had put in claims for wounds or sickness incurred during World War I. Of these about 300,000 were

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[1]Arthur Griswold Crane, Education for the Disabled in War and Industry; Army Hospital Schools (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1921), p. 4 "Table I."

[2]Ibid., p. 15, "Table VI."

[3]Ibid., pp. 23-25, "Table VIII."

declared eligible for training under the vocational rehabilitation acts passed by Congress.[1] Over 175,000 from this group had enrolled for training and education, receiving stipends of $80 to $165 per month for maintenance and support. Ninety-five thousand had completed training in one of five hundred separate and distinct occupations.[2] Brigadier General Frank Hines, head of the Veterans' Bureau, noted in 1925 that disabled veterans had also been registered for regular educational courses in "practically every college and university in the United States.[3]

Though much time was spent in discussing how to re-educate the disabled veteran, a few individuals were also giving some thought to the problem posed by the return of 3-3/4 million healthy unemployed veterans. Senator Arthur Capper of Kansas proposed that demobilization be accomplished on an industrial basis.[4] Under this system the first men to be mustered out should be those who were recruited from the farms, in order that they might return at once and engage in the production of human and animal food. Next, men would be discharged who could secure employment in the food processing

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[1] "Rehabilitation Work of United States Veterans' Bureau," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. XXI (September, 1925), p. 641.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

[4] "Dangers of Hasty Demobilization, Unemployment, and Profiteering," Current Opinion, Vol. LXVII (August, 1919), p. 132.

industries, and so on. In this view, Senator Capper was sharing the opinion of the British, who had been studying the problems posed by demobilization for several years.[1] Other writers stressed the need for coordination among federal and state agencies to help find jobs for veterans.[2] One response was the creation of the United States Employment Service in 1918 out of a collection of former immigrant employment officers and the United States Public Service Reserve, which had handled government service placement of executives and professional men.[3] The new agency immediately established training schools for "examiners of skilled labor" and struggled to set in motion the machinery for placing the disabled, as well as healthy officers and enlisted men.[4]

All this was very fine for those veterans with job experience or specialized training prior to the war, but many lacked such tickets of readmission to the job market. One editorial mentioned the newly organized Federal Board for Vocational Education, which was providing vocational

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[1] S. S. Long, "Right and Wrong Methods of Demobilization," Nineteenth Century and After, Vol. LXXX (October, 1916), pp. 661-674.

[2] B. S. Morgan, "Problem of the Returning Soldier," North American Review, Vol. CCVIII (October, 1918), pp. 534-535.

[3] I. W. Litchfield, "United States Employment Service and Demobilization," Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. LXXXI (January, 1919), p. 22.

[4] Ibid., pp. 26-27.

courses to men who had been disabled in the war. In order to tide the country over a dangerous period of readjustment and reorganization, why should not this board give vocational education to all returning soldiers who needed it, whether disabled or not?[1]

A second voice, that of the President of New Hampshire College, made an alternative suggestion to the War Department; use the colleges of the United States as a "way station" for those soldiers who might not readily find a place in the American industrial machine, and who could profit from such an educational experience.[2]

Though the war department did not respond to these suggestions, one state did make an effort to aid in the education of its veterans--Wisconsin.

One of the most interesting pieces of state legislation directed toward veterans of World War I was the Educational Bonus Law, passed by the Wisconsin legislature on September 10, 1919.[3] Wisconsin had previously led the nation in outlining a comprehensive program for expressing its gratitude to soldiers returning from the late war. Provision was early made to appropriate $500,000 for the operation of the "Service Recognition Board" which gave immediate aid to

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[1] "Re-Educating the Able as Well as the Disabled," Industrial Arts Magazine, Vol. VII (October, 1918), p. 391.

[2] "Colleges and the Returning Expeditionary Force," School and Society, Vol. VIII (December 7, 1918), pp. 676-677.

[3] "Educational Bonus Law of Wisconsin," The New Outlook, Vol. CXXV (May 5, 1920), p. 8.

disabled soldiers during their period of convalescence. The second part of the program provided a cash bonus to all soldiers. Persons who had been in the armed forces less than five months received a minimum payment of $50.00 while the others were paid $10.00 for each month of service. To raise the $15 million needed for this gift of appreciation, an income tax on 1918 earnings was instituted as well as a special property tax. The third portion of the program was the educational bonus, originally allotting thirty dollars per month to ex- "doughboys" while they were in regular attendance at college level institutions.[1] This bill was vetoed by the Governor, who felt that the stipulation of "college level" education was too restrictive. He then set the State Board of Education and the Adjutant-General to work out a better proposal, and that is the one which was finally accepted in the special session of September, 1919.

The Educational Bonus Law established a fund of ten million dollars which could be spent in the following five year period. Ex-service men had the opportunity to take advantage of three different educational benefits. First, there was the "bonus," a maximum of $1,080 which was payable in monthly installments of $30.00. A veteran could receive this monthly check for full-time enrollment at an educational institution. No restriction was placed on the grade level

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[1] Ibid.

at which he was enrolled or the type of courses he was taking. Some indication of the breadth of interest of the veterans can be seen in a brief listing of a few of the "specialized" institutions involved: an academy of fine arts, college of dental surgery, a theological seminary, a veterinary college, a school of aviation, a flute playing school, a textile school, a college of opthalmology, a school of watchmaking, an institute of technology, and an institution for the blind.[1] Five thousand were attending colleges within the state, five hundred were in normal schools, three hundred and thirteen in the high schools or elementary schools, three hundred in out-of-state institutions, and the rest scattered in schools such as those listed above.

The second form of education benefit afforded veterans was the services of the University Extension Division. Four hundred correspondence courses were available without cost to any Wisconsin "bonus man" who was not in full time attendance at an educational institution. Over two thousand were enrolled under this provision.[2]

The final possibility for educational advancement of the veteran was special classes, organized by the State Board of Education. These classes, on any subject desired, would be established in the home town of any group of at

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

least fifteen veterans who would join together and petition the State Board for course instruction. Fifteen such classes had been organized by mid-1920.[1]

Various other states were examining the possibility of similar educational bonuses, and requesting information on the successful operation of the Wisconsin experiment from the Secretary of the State Board of Education, Major Edward A. Fitzpatrick. Interest was rather brief, however, as no further references to this type of activity can be readily discovered in the literature. Most efforts met with the fate of an almost identical bill in Maryland, which was passed by acclamation in the Assembly, and then was bottled up and killed in the Senate Finance Committee.[2] Veterans benefits are usually quite popular after a war, but the taxes required to support them often meet with a great deal of opposition.

The Veterans' Bureau, an agency established by the Sweet Bill in August 1921, brought together the responsibility for the care and education of the disabled veterans that had previously been shared by the US Public Health Service, the Bureau of War Risk Insurance, and the Federal Board for Vocational Education.[3]

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

[3] "Administration of the Veterans' Bureau" The New Outlook, Vol. CXXXIII (March 21, 1923), p. 518.

Within a year and a half of its formation, complaints began to appear in the news media about the waste and inefficiency surrounding the operation of the Bureau.[1] More specific charges were to follow: the "contract hospitals" housing most of the disabled veterans were a "disgrace"; there were too few professionals involved in vocational training and advising.[2] Little supervision was exercised over the vocational "placement training" where a veteran was apprenticed in trades such as plumbing. Some of the "apprentices" had been quite proficient in a trade prior to the war and were fraudulently collecting for training in the same field.[3] Many of the vocational schools utilized had grossly inadequate facilities, while in others men whose physical disabilities were such as to prohibit success in delicate hand work were supposedly being trained in watch making and jewelry manufacture.[4] One investigator, Frost, blasted the patronage job holders in the Bureau who were not trained to help the veteran, the loafing and wasted time of individuals placed in "snap" courses, and the failure rate in training, conservatively estimated at 25 per cent plus. As he put it, "The final failure of the deserving politicians

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[1] Ibid.

[2] "Veterans' Bureau called Wasteful and Inefficient," Literary Digest, Vol. LXXVII (April 14, 1923), pp. 67, 69.

[3] Ibid., p. 69.

[4] Ibid., p. 70.

was that they were unable to make sure either that the trainee applied himself or that the work did any good."[1] In mitigation Frost does mention that the Bureau was deluged with far more applicants than it could have anticipated, and that its employment placement branch was being well handled.[2]

With public outcry becoming stronger, Congress was goaded into action; the Senate organizing an investigative committee in late October, 1923.[3] Soon the committee was hearing testimony on alleged mismanagement of the Veterans' Bureau, and "crushing charges" had fallen on Colonel Charles R. Forbes, former head of the Bureau. Forbes, a good friend of President Harding, had been appointed head of the War Risk Insurance Bureau following Harding's inauguration in 1921. When the Veterans' Bureau was established in August of that year he had been given the task of supervising that agency.[4] Now he was facing charges of malfeasance in office, leveled at him from many witnesses. General Frank T. Hines, the new Director of the Veterans' Bureau, testified to having discovered many major and minor irregularities. Six million

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[1] S. Frost, "Grab-Bag Training for Veterans" The New Outlook, Vol. CXXXV (September, 26, 1923), p. 144.

[2] Ibid.

[3] "Colonel Forbes Under Fire," The New Outlook, Vol. CXXXV (November 21, 1923), p. 477.

[4] "Ugly Mess in the Veterans' Bureau," Current Opinion, Vol. LXXVI (April, 1924), pp. 398-399.

dollars worth of gold had been purchased for "dental work" which was unaccounted for. Personnel were totally unsupervised; one individual was discovered to be receiving a salary of $4800 per year for two hours of work. By instituting normal management controls, Hines had been able to reduce expenses by $16 million.[1] Additional witnesses accused Forbes of soliciting and accepting bribes on contracts. A group of contractors testified that Forbes was to receive one-third of the net profits on the construction of western veterans' hospitals, an average "payoff" of about $50,000 per contract.[2]

The Colonel vehemently denied all charges, but the temper of the time demanded further investigations; the past administration of the Bureau had been corrupt, and the "sordid and selfish" politicians involved must be punished.[3] Therefore, it was no surprise to the public when a Chicago Federal grand jury indicted Forbes on charges of bribery and conspiracy in connection with contracts for veterans' hospitals. Two members of the House of Representatives were also implicated.[4] A year later, Forbes' conviction on these counts was trumpeted by the Literary Digest, which featured

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[1] "Colonel Forbes Under Fire," op. cit.,p. 477.

[2] Ibid., p. 478.

[3] "Getting After the Culprits in the Veterans' Bureau Scandal," The New Outlook, Vol. CXXXV (December 12, 1923).

[4] "Ugly Mess in the Veterans' Bureau" op. cit., p. 398.

a photograph of the ex-Director with the caption "Traitor" under it. It was felt that a fine of $10,000 and two years in a federal penitentiary were light punishments indeed, and that "when one profits by money appropriated for wounded, blind, and crippled war veterans, he ought to be known as the meanest man in America."[1]

As specified in a 1921 regulation, the task of giving general education and vocational training to enlisted men was delegated to the post schools.[2] Commanding officers of Army installations were to be responsible for general supervision of these schools and were to analyze the needs of their organizations for the services of technicians and vocational specialists, in order to determine a priority for training classes. Instructors for these classes, if not available within the units, were to be obtained by sending promising individuals to special service schools, or by hiring civilians. The operating personnel of post schools included: the post school officer; senior instructors; instructors; and assistant instructors. The post school officer was detailed by the post commander for this duty and was charged with the direct supervision of instruction.[3] Senior instructors were officers, warrant

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[1]"Conviction of Colonel Forbes," Literary Digest, Vol. LXXXIIII (February 14, 1925), p. 11.

[2]Army Regulation 350-2505, August 25, 1921, "Military Education: Post Schools," p. 1.

[3]War Department Circular Number 97, April 12, 1921.

officers, enlisted men, or civilians who functioned as heads of the various educational and vocational departments. Instructors were drawn from the same four categories, while assistant instructors were to be enlisted men.[1]

Post schools were supported by funds appropriated for the Army under the heading "Vocational Training." Commanders were also authorized to utilize funds which they derived from local educational projects or which they specifically raised for educational purposes. Equipment and supplies were drawn through the usual Army supply channels, except where the funds had been allocated in the basic Army appropriation.[2]

Students consisted of: 1) Enlisted men lacking vocational skill for the duties they were to be required to perform; 2) Non-English speaking or illiterate recruits who failed to pass the required literacy test; and 3) Enlisted men who volunteered for the program. Those individuals needing instruction in the English language, i.e., Category 2, were to be required to attend classes in reading and writing until they had acquired sufficient knowledge to "discharge satisfactorily their duties as privates."[3] All others were to pass preliminary tests or present educational records appropriate for the particular

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[1] AR 350-2505, op. cit., p. 2.

[2] Ibid., p. 3.

[3] Ibid., p. 4.

training desired. Following acceptance in the course, attendance was compulsory, with termination for neglect of studies or unsuitability.

The proficiency rating system used in the classes was of great potential importance to the students in courses such as welding, tire repair, plumbing, or carpentry, which had definite civilian job applicability. Instructors recorded a student's achievements on proficiency rating cards, the scale providing a range of 10 units, running form 1, little or no proficiency, up to 10, representing the proficiency of an expert. Classifications such as "apprentice," "journeyman," "expert," or "master" were to be applied if applicable. For vocations like typewriting, stenography, and most agricultural occupations, such terms as "proficient," "skilled," or "expert" were used. After completion of the prescribed course, the student was presented with a certificate attesting to his skill in the various elements of his trade. For most courses this would include a proficiency rating of "unskilled" to "expert" on each of the unit operations involved in the craft, a final proficiency rating on the student's performance in the whole course, and a prediction of "probable trade ability" ranging from "inferior" to "superior."[1]

The regulation of 1921 which has been referred to was designed to provide a strong inducement for recruiting

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[1] Ibid., p. 10-11.

new soldiers, since by November, 1920, enlistments were not supplying the Army with sufficient manpower. It had been preceded by a series of educational conferences attended by both military and civilian personnel. Camp Grant, Illinois, was the site of an Education and Recreation School where nearly 1,000 gathered, including 148 Education and Recreation Officers, 334 civilian instructors, 329 enlisted men who were to be trained as librarians and service club stewards, 17 hostesses, and 54 civilian supervisors of libraries, dramatics, music, and motion pictures. The camp's staff was also responsible for preparing vocational training instruction programs and manuals; testing their products on classes of real soldiers in the Camp Grant School.[1] Elsewhere, large scale literacy training schools were opened. In Camp Upton, New York, 2000 recruits and a faculty of 27 teachers were involved in a Recruit Educational Center spanning grades one through six.[2] Almost half of the students were American-born illiterates, while the others represented some 45 "racial groups." The learning of the English language was not limited to the classroom in Camp Upton, but was carried into the theater, the recreation rooms, the reading room, and drill field. Every effort was made to teach the men to "forget all racial antipathies and acquire the American viewpoint." The Recruit

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[1] C. R. Mann, "Education in the Army 1919-1925," The Education Record, Vol. I (April, 1926), supplement, p. 20.

[2] Ibid.

Educational Center itself was viewed as a "missionary" enterprise in Americanism, with the hope of the school being not only to train and educate illiterates for the Army, but also to utilize these men as "missionaries" to the adult members of their home communities. This would spread the wish to learn to read and write and "stimulate sentiment in favor of better educational opportunities for coming generations."[1] Meanwhile at Camp Lee, Virginia, 333 men were enrolled in vocational training, plus 201 in educational classes. The vocational courses at Lee included such offerings as automobile repair, truck driving, and upholstering.[2]

Support began to develop for these educational programs at the highest levels of the War Department, with General Pershing himself being quoted as saying,

> I think that, by all means, a plan should be carried out by which the men in the Regular Army, those who voluntarily entered, should have educational training at the same time.
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> The United States Army offers many opportunities and advantages to the young men of today. Much progress has already been made in instituting in the Army a system of educational and specialized training, and today the soldier while serving in the Army is given every opportunity to learn some

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[1] The Educational System of the United States Army: The Army as a National School (Washington: The Adjutant General of the Army, 1920), pp. 20-21.

[2] The Army School Camp Lee, Virginia (Camp Lee: The Camp, n.d.).

> craft or trade which will enable him to gain advancement in the service if he chooses to remain in it, or to take a more important position in civil life after he completes his enlistment.[1]

Just as the programs were becoming established, however, a blow was struck which spelled the end for another few decades of a truly comprehensive Army education system. In the usual spirit of post-war cutbacks, a joint resolution of Congress forced the Army to cease enlistments so that Regular Army strength could be reduced to 150,000 by October 1, 1921. Enlisted men were given the opportunity of applying for an early discharge in order that the deadline be met.[2] This reduction of nearly a third of the Army manpower so limited the need for recruiting that more literate applicants for service were available than could be accepted.[3] Drastic cuts were made in educational expenditures, with the 1921 educational budget of $3,500,000 followed by a budget of only $1,300,000 in fiscal year 1922. Participation in vocational work dropped accordingly, plummeting from the 1920 figure of 65,000 down to 15,000 in 1925.[4]

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[1] Educational System of the U.S. Army, op. cit. p. 31.

[2] Leonard L. Lerwill, The Personnel Replacement System in the United States Army (Washington: Department of the Army, 1954), p. 231.

[3] Ibid., p. 223.

[4] Mann, op. cit.,p. 24.

Despite the cutbacks, the top echelon of the War Department still remained hopeful for a few years. In 1926 The Secretary of War cited the Army as a "considerable factor in education" and presented the results of a survey showing that 44,700 enlisted men were engaged in military duties or were taking courses in Army schools which directly prepared them for civilian occupations, although the classes were undertaken for military purposes. Nine thousand, three hundred were administrators, accountants, managers, or clerks; 5000 were in food handling and inspection; 4500 in communications; 7800 in motor transportation; and 1300 in building and carpentry.[1] By the 1928 Annual Report, however, only 6000 enlisted pupils were enrolled in the post schools; 1500 in educational courses and the remainder in vocational training.[2]

Though very little activity took place in the field of education in the Army itself during the late 20's and 30's, some did occur in an agency for which it had responsibility. As part of his effort to relieve unemployment, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed into law on March 31, 1933 an act establishing the Civilian Conservation Corps. This organization was initially composed of 250,000 men, many former soldiers, who were to be "usefully employed" in

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[1] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1926, pp. 23-24.

[2] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1928, pp. 240-241.

the prevention of forest fires, floods, and soil erosion, and in the construction of paths, trails, and fire lanes in the national parks and forests.[1] Originally the Army's role was to be merely that of "in-processing" the corpsmen and transporting them to their campsites, where they would then be under the control of Agriculture or Department of Interior officials. These individuals, quite competent in their own technical fields, were soon to prove incapable of managing the care, housing, and discipline of large groups of men. The Army, therefore, was given full responsibility for the entire conduct of the camps, as well as enrollment, processing, and transportation.[2] Selection of young men for the "junior" camps was accomplished by the Department of Labor, while the Veteran's Administration selected and certified ex-servicemen for the "veteran" camps. So successful were the Army's efforts that a daily average enrollment of 8540 was maintained until the full authorized strength of the Corps was reached, a daily average greater than that recruited in the United States during World War I for both the Army and the Navy. By June 30, 1933, only seven weeks after the first enrollments were authorized, 250,000 men were occupying 1330 camps in the nation's forests. Supervising them were nearly ten thousand officers and enlisted

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[1] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1933, p. 192.

[2] Ibid., p. 4.

men of the Regular Army and the Officers' Reserve Corps.[1]

Under the heading of "Welfare of the Corpsmen," the Army soon organized educational and vocational training programs.[2] Camp "advisers" or education directors were hired, most of them unemployed educators possessing university diplomas.[3] For their services in setting up literacy classes and other courses at all academic levels, the advisers were rewarded with a salary of $1980 per year. Corps area advisers, supervisors responsible for the education of 25,000 to 55,000 men, were given $4800 per year plus an allowance for travel.[4]

The variety of courses was quite extensive, especially in the early days of the program, with cooking and accounting, motor mechanics and journalism featured in adjoining classrooms in some camps.[5] Health, first aid, and safety were also among the more common offerings. Most of this schooling was presented in the evening on a voluntary basis, with the exception of literacy training. Elementary level courses were usually taught by a Works Progress

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[1] Ibid., pp. 192-193.

[2] Ibid., p. 6.

[3] Frank E. Hill, The School in the Camps (New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1935), p. 18.

[4] Ibid., p. 21.

[5] Rudolph Schwartz, Non-Military Education in the United States Army and Air Force, 1900-1960 (unpublished doctoral dissertation: New York University, 1963), p. 104.

Administration instructor, though the camp adviser, an Army officer, or some volunteer from among the Corpsmen were sometimes involved.[1] The official estimation of illiteracy in the C.C.C. camps was about 3 per cent of all incoming corpsmen. This figure, however, included only those individuals so untutored as to be unable to sign a payroll.[2] Tests given to 9000 new enrollees indicated that about 22 per cent lacked the ability to read at a fourth grade level.[3]

The War Department received a great deal of assistance in its C.C.C. educational efforts from the Commissioner of Education, Department of the Interior. His role included aid in recruiting educational advisers and the supply of appropriate educational material and resources. By 1939, the Office of Education had prepared and was issuing large quantities of standardized readers and workbooks for elementary school subjects.[4]

After the initial period of experimentation, the educational program was structured, to attempt to fulfill the eight specific goals announced in 1936 by the C.C.C's

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps, 1940 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940), p. 36.

[3] Kenneth Holland and Frank E. Hill, Youth in the C.C.C. (Washington: American Council on Education, 1942), p. 174.

[4] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1939, p. 90.

educational director, Howard W. Oxley. These were: 1) The elimination of illiteracy; 2) The removal of deficiencies in common school subjects; 3) Training on the job; 4) General vocational and avocational training; 5) Cultural and general education; 6) Health and safety education; 7) Character and citizenship training; and 8) Assistance to enrollees to find employment.[1] Problems arose, however, to limit success. In addition to the salaries of the education advisers, only 50¢ per man per year was provided for education in the camps. Since most camps averaged 200 men, only the paltry sum of $100 was available to satisfy the needs of the camp school.[2] Students were often dissatisfied with the educational atmosphere of the school, reminding them of the public institutions from which many of them had dropped out. Punishments for failure to attend classes which were supposedly "voluntary" irritated many. Also, not enough vocational training could be offered in the small camps to satisfy the disparate interests of the corpsmen. Nonetheless, in 1939-40, the final year of Army supervised operation, over 6000 pupils received elementary school certificates, while 750 high school diplomas and 16 college degrees were awarded.[3]

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[1]Schwartz, op. cit., pp. 105-106; See also H. W. Oxley, "Education of the War Veteran in the C.C.C.," School Life, Vol. XXV (January, 1940), p. 109.

[2]Hill, op. cit., p. 15.

[3]Holland and Hill, op. cit., pp. 60-65.

In all, the C.C.C. program reached 3,311,836 men during its 8 year span of existence, raising the academic educational levels of some, providing vocational training for others, and, for the majority, serving as their only possible means of employment.[1]

It has been shown then, that during the years 1900 to 1940, the involvement of the U.S. Army with non-military education was continuous, though not at the same level throughout the period. The assignment to the War Department of civil administration for Puerto Rico and the Philippines brought responsibility for the school systems as well. The National Defense Act of 1916 contained a commitment to train the Army's soldiers in civilian vocations as well as military, and to thus enable them to return to civil life better equipped for the job market. With the rapid mobilization of troops for World War I came an increase in non-military education programs, most sponsored by civilian organizations like the Young Men's Christian Association. In Europe following the Armistice, large scale non-military educational and vocational training programs were instituted by the American Expeditionary Forces to occupy the idle hours of soldiers awaiting shipment home. The First World War also saw involvement by both civil and military authorities in the re-education of the war-disabled soldier, as well as an

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[1] Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1940, p. 66.

attempt by one state, Wisconsin, to reward all veterans with an educational bonus act.

For several years after the war it appeared that the Army would be used as an educational institution for the "Americanization" of the sons of the new immigrant groups. With the sharp cutback in troop strength ordered by Congress in 1921, however, this possibility vanished. Instead, non-military education within the Army returned to its former level--basic literacy training in the post schools--and remained there until the mobilization for World War II.

In addition to the responsibility for the school systems and other civil affairs in the Philippines and Puerto Rico, one other major non-military education program was assigned to the War Department. The Civilian Conservation Corps, in its eight year existence, gave over 3 million young men the opportunity for further educational and vocational training, as well as employment during the darkest years of the Depression.

IV. WORLD WAR II--NON-MILITARY EDUCATION AGAIN PROVES ITS WORTH

During the years 1922 to 1940 little effort appears to have been made within the Army to create comprehensive educational programs. The post schools were still in operation, but limited to the period not "set aside for field training and combined field exercises."[1] With the rapid mobilization of forces in 1941, however, it was again apparent that new educational provisions would have to be made for service personnel. Based on the recommendations of the Joint Army-Navy Committee on Welfare and Recreation which met in February 1941, the Army established a separate Morale Branch with a subsection "Education" under the major division of Welfare and Recreation.[2] In September 1941, Frederick H. Osborn, former chairman of the Joint Army-Navy Committee, was commissioned a brigadier general and made Chief of the Morale Branch. Because of his own interests and those of the assistants whom he selected, a significant expansion occurred in the education and information program. Of particular importance to Osborn was the

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[1] Army Regulation 350-2505: Change 4, "Military Education: Post Schools" (November 30, 1931).

[2] U.S. War Department, SO 353:8, Subject: Creation of a Separate Branch for Military Morale (March 14, 1941).

need to provide soldiers with an understanding of their own country, its foreign policy, and the reasons for their being in uniform while the nation was still theoretically at peace with the Axis powers.[1]

Shortly after Pearl Harbor and our formal entry into the war, education was placed under the jurisdiction of Special Services. From this point in January 1942, basic plans for non-military education began to rapidly emerge, with the development of individual correspondence courses and off-duty classes. Large scale on-duty programs of the post-Armistice type were also to be initiated when hostilities ended.[2] Problems in implementation of thses plans continually arose, however, since the parent division, Special Services, was more concerned with expanding welfare and recreational activities. Possibly for this reason, Information and Education, or "I and E" was separated from Special Services in October 1943, and transferred to the Office of the Director of Military Training. There the Army Education and Information Division was established, consisting of the Education, Information, and Orientation branches.[3] Most confusion as to the administrative status

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[1]Rudolph Schwartz, Non-Military Education in the United States Army and Air Force, 1900-1960 (unpublished doctoral dissertation, New York University, 1963), pp. 111-112.

[2]Ibid., p. 112.

[3]Ibid.

of "I and E" was eliminated in August 1944 when its operations were defined by U.S. War Department circular 360, and its duties at all command levels specified.[1]

An example that best illustrates the effectiveness of the "I and E" program at the combat unit level is found in the 33rd Infantry Division, a 12,000 man organization which was heavily involved in the 1945 campaign for recapturing the Philippines. In an article by Colonel Frank J. Sackton, division operations officer (G-3), the full scope of the Army's efforts to "prevent boredom through enforced idleness during those periods when units are in rest camps" are evident.[2] First there was individual study via Armed Forces Institute self-teaching courses, Armed Forces Institute correspondence courses, and university extension correspondence courses. Then, in those subjects for which sufficient interest was generated, group study classes were available. The division's Information and Education Officer had, with the assistance of the "I and E" officers of each regiment and separate unit, prepared the educational plans for the rest camp during the period the division was in combat during the Luzon campaign. Students were enrolled for later study, teachers were selected, texts procured,

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[1]Alonzo G. Grace, Educational Lessons from Wartime Training (Washington: American Council on Education, 1948), p. 153.

[2]Frank J. Sackton, Col., "Voluntary Study in the New Army," Military Review, Vol. XXV (November, 1945), p. 72.

programs organized, and preparation made for the administration and physical facilities for the classes.[1] A canvass of sixty-two per cent of the personnel in the division produced 8,174 enrollments for some type of study during the rest and rehabilitation period. On this basis it was estimated that over 10,000 would participate once they reached the rest camps. Of the individuals responding, 60% desired self-teaching courses, 39% correspondence courses, and 1% university extension courses.[2] Group study was favored by slightly over half, while a fifth opted for individual study, and the remainder did not indicate a choice. Subject matter areas chosen were rather varied. Mechanical and electrical courses accounted for 44% of the selections, with auto mechanics the dominant choice. Business and commercial subjects, especially bookkeeping and accounting, received the vote of 20% of the men. Sixteen per cent desired math and science, twelve per cent English, and five per cent Social studies. A sizeable bloc, fourteen per cent, were enrolled in the study of languages other than English.[3] An interesting cartoon poster utilized in the division's "I and E" publicity depicts a tough, hairy-chested first sergeant seemingly directing the soldiers of the division to "Study For the Future--See your Company or Battery I and E

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid., pp. 72-73.

Officer." The only course given as an example is "English Grammar."[1]

Elsewhere, in other theaters of the war, Information and Education Officers were also hard at work. An engineer battalion in the wilds of New Guinea organized its own "GI Jungle University." Courses in analytic geometry, differential calculus, and even a West African dialect called "Fanti" were offered at a base in Accra, British West Africa. The Twelfth Air Force in the Mediterranean Theater set up thirty-five courses for its men, many utilizing USAFI materials. At home in the states such installations as Ft. Monmouth, New Jersey and Camp Crowder, Missouri developed extensive off-duty classes, featuring subjects like Spanish, German, history, music, and criminology, with instruction conducted by soldiers who had been teachers in civilian life.[2]

For the most part, education proceeded in the manner described above. Since the Information and Education program was a single unit, however, there existed the possibility that the local "I and E" Officer might come to take on more of the aspects of a propagandist and less of those of the educator. That this actually became an official Army policy at one point is indicated by an excerpt from the July 1945 edition of the War Department technical manual,

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[1] Ibid., p. 73.

[2] Schwartz, op. cit., pp. 125-127.

The Information and Education Officer:

> . . . 3. Second, as to training: The Information and Education Officer should be so trained that he will distinguish clearly among the following different fields of ideas, and will vary the handling of his subject in accordance with what is proper in each of these fields.
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> . . . In such matter [policies of commands and Government] he should lead the soldier to them and encourage acceptance of them. The unity which is essential to success in war can be obtained only by cheerful obedience to commands which, in the orderly processes of American government derive their authority from the will of the majority.[1]

The collapse of the Third Reich and its allies forestalled a total transition of the "I and E" Officer in this direction, and set him free, for a short period, to organize a massive educational program to relieve the boredom of the occupying serviceman's idle hours.

As in World War I, the Army's demand for highly trained manpower during the Second World War was estimated to be too great for the civilian economy to bear in the long run. Accordingly, on December 18, 1942, the Army Specialized Training Division was created in compliance with Army Service Forces Circular 95.[2] Colonel Herman Beukema was named director of this division, and with the assistance of a civilian advisory committee proceeded to organize the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) for

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[1]U.S. War Department Technical Manual 28-210, "The Information-Education Officer," Sec. III, par. 7-9 (July, 1945), pp. 6-9.

[2]Henry G. Herge, et al., Wartime College Training Programs of the Armed Services (Washington: American Council on Education, 1948), p. 26.

the start of its opening phase on March 29, 1943. Members of the committee included prominent educators from major universities: President Isaiah Bowman of Johns Hopkins University; President Robert E. Doherty of Carnegie Institute of Technology; President Clarence A. Dykstra of the University of Wisconsin; President Robert I. Gannon of Fordham University; and President Ralph D. Hetzel of Pennsylvania State University.[1]

The basic purpose of this program was to insure a steady flow of technical and professional personnel into the Army, with those of primary importance being in the fields of medicine, dentistry, veterinary medicine, engineering, personnel psychology, and foreign areas and languages.[2] An initial quota of 150,000 trainees was established by the commanding generals of the Army Ground Forces, Army Service Forces, and Army Air Forces. Two hundred thousand enlisted men applied, but by the time the candidates had been processed by screening boards, the quota was not reached. Chief of Staff General George C. Marshall sought to remedy this situation with a letter addressed to the above mentioned commanding generals, requesting the wholehearted cooperation

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[1]Malcolm M. Willey, "The College Training Programs of the Armed Services," Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences, Vol. 231 (January, 1944), pp. 17-18.

[2]J. S. Diekhoff, "General Education in Wartime: A Lesson from World War II," School and Society, Vol. 72 (October 14, 1950), p. 242.

of every echelon to insure the program's success. His letter of April 1, 1943, explained how:

> With the establishment of the minimum Selective Service age at 18, the Army was compelled to assure itself that there would be no interruption in the flow of professionally and technically trained men who have hitherto been provided in regular increments by American colleges and universities.
>
> The Army Specialized Training Program was established to supply the needs of the Army for such men. The objective of the program is to give specialized technical training to soldiers on active duty for certain Army tasks for which its own training facilities are insuficcient in extent or character. To that end the Army has contracted with selected colleges and universities for the use of their facilities and faculties in effecting such training of selected soliders in course prescribed by the Army.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> The number of eligible men recommended for training under the Army Specialized Training Program has been disappointing. I desire that every echelon of command support this program and make it a success. I desire further that prompt action be taken by you to insure that all in your command are informed of these facts and of the need for wholehearted cooperation.[1]

It is not surprising then that there was "renewed interest" in the program and a rapid increase in the number of men processed, enabling the ASTP to become fully effective in mid-June 1943 with regular twelve week terms being inaugurated.[2]

All ASTP trainees selected were required to have completed 13 weeks basic military training at a reception center

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[1] Herge, op. cit., p. 27.

[2] Ibid.

before being assigned to a college or university.[1] For those individuals who had no prior college experience, a "basic course" was provided, giving them a broad foundation in mathematics, history, English, physics, physical education, and military science. Following two terms of this type instruction, the programs became more specialized, preparing the student-soldier for the job he would ultimately hold.[2] If an inductee was sent back to college by the Army he could look forward to a work week of 52 to 60 hours spent in the classroom or the laboratory. With the exception of Saturday evenings and Sundays, his workday would begin at 6:30 A.M. and end at 10:30 P.M., counting time spent in required physical conditioning and study.[3] Terms in both the basic and the advanced programs were twelve weeks in length, and no provision was made for free choice or "electives."[4]

Colleges and universities were more than willing to lend their support to ASTP, due both to the patriotic fervor of their administrators and the economic necessity of maintaining a student body in the face of the draft. Ivy

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[1] Willey, op. cit., p. 20; see also Army Specialized Training Division, Essential Facts about the Army Specialized (August 30, 1943).

[2] Education in the Army: A Discussion Digest (New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1941), p. 17.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Berge, op. cit., p. 36.

League colleges could expect to have almost no civilian students except for a small number of "4-F" and female graduate students. Many large state universities would have a greatly reduced complement of women because of the call of industry, and again, almost no civilian men. Harvard therefore was quite happy to find on June 1, 1943, that its student contracts with the Army and Navy numbered over 4,000. Yale, at the same time, had a mere 3,000. Large universities like Chicago often gained training contracts in or near three figures.[1] College facilities were also being utilized for such things as officer candidate schools, administrative schools, and vocational instruction where the Army provided the faculty but paid for the use of the college's physical plant.[2]

In December 1943, the program reached its peak, with 135,629 soldiers in training at 202 colleges and universities.[3] The colleges were finally geared up for "war production" of trained soldiers. Then, just two months later, General Marshall, as Chief of Staff, detailed the urgent need for more infantry men in the foxholes overseas and the Army Specialized Training Program was one of the casualties of the stampede of subordinate commanders to again

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[1]U.S. War Department Office of War Information, Education in the Armed Forces (mimeo., August 15, 1943), p. 17.

[2]Herge, op. cit., p. 211.

[3]Ibid., p. 27.

comply.[1] So another era of Army involvement with the universities ended, this time the victim of a manpower buildup rather than the cutbacks occasioned by an "armistice."

The educational level of American draftees was strikingly higher in the Second than in the First World War, with about half having completed the tenth grade, forty-one per cent having completed high school, and twenty-four per cent having attended two or more years of college.[2] Fighting a modern war, however, requires that the average serviceman be able to read easy technical material, messages, and signs, write messages, and do at least simple arithmetic. Despite the vast pool of educated individuals, there still remained many intelligent and able-bodied men who could not meet the minimum qualifications. Four of our states had 36 per cent or more adult illiterates, and the Army estimated that three-quarters of a million men from these states and others in the same category could be utilized if they could be taught to read and write English and perform mathematical operations at the level of a fourth grader. To attack illiteracy and to reclaim these men for service in the new technically oriented Army, there was established on January 15, 1942, the first of a series of Special Training Units which soon were in operation in Replacement Training Centers

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[1] Schwartz, op. cit., p. 144.

[2] A Design for General Education: For Members of the Armed Forces, Series I, Vol. VIII (Washington: American Council on Education, June, 1944), p. 5.

throughout the country. These were to receive and train a number of adult illiterates, that number not to be greater than five per cent of the total inductees.[1] By late 1943 there were over 250 Special Training Units, and the program had reclaimed over 85,000 men for the Army in a year and a half. Over 80 per cent of the illiterates sent to them up to that point had successfully completed training and 55 per cent were enabled to go on to some type of specialist training and eventually fill one of the Army's technical vacancies.[2]

Illiterates were initially screened at the Induction Center and given a "visual intelligence test," usually the Army Beta, a non-verbal instrument which required the subject to respond to a series of picture subtests. This theoretically insured that only individuals of normal intelligence but limited educational opportunity were admitted to the program. Once in the Special Training Unit, the soldier received up to thirteen weeks training in elementary reading, writing, and arithmetic. He was also exposed to some drill, training in first aid, military customs and duties, and physical conditioning. Three hours per day were devoted to class while the rest was spent in study, drill, and conditioning. For the average illiterate, this training lasted a total of eight weeks, with 144 hours

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[1] Education in the Armed Forces, op. cit.

[2] Ibid., p. 18.

spent in class. By this time he had risen to the fourth grade level in the basic subjects, graduated from the course, and moved on to basic training.[1]

The classes were taught primarily by enlisted men, most of whom had had considerable professional and academic training in civilian life, but not usually in the instruction of adult illiterates.[2] A "multi-media" approach was used whenever possible. Film strips were prepared to help teach the men the rudiments of Army discipline and routine. These featured such subjects as: "How to Wear Your Uniform"; "A Soldier's General Orders"' and "Military Discipline and Courtesy."[3] The Army Reader and the Army Arithmetic were the standard texts, each lesson dealing with familiar problems for the new soldier: proper maintenance of the barracks, purchases at the Post Exchange (PX), letters from home, etc. A list of the most frequently used words in a soldier's daily life, appropriately censored, were incorporated into "The Story of Private Pete," a book relying heavily on pictures to convey and reinforce the message of the text.[4] "Our War," an illustrated eight page magazine, was issued monthly to these men, providing them with

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[1] Ibid.

[2] P. A. Witty, "Guiding Principles in Reading Instruction; Teaching the Functionally Illiterate During World War II," Education, Vol. 85 (April, 1965), p. 478.

[3] Education in the Armed Forces, op. cit., p. 18.

[4] Witty, op. cit., p. 476.

stories, pictures, cartoon strips, map and word games, and official announcements, all written at no more than the fourth grade level. A single sheet supplement to the Army information bulletin, Newsmap, was also sent out weekly to "translate" important items into language the trainees could understand. For motivation, a booklet entitled "Your Job in the Army" was issued which explained to the men in the Special Training Units the different types of Army jobs for which they might qualify after completing their current course.[1]

Evaluation of the accomplishments of the men in the STU's was by means of formal and informal tests and procedures. Objective tests played the most important role in the program's academic phase, with the men being advanced from one grade level to the next only after their demonstration, on unit reading tests, of sufficient ability to obtain the prescribed critical score. Graduation from the academic department also required certain "passing" scores on objective tests in reading and arithmetic. In military subjects, simple true-false and completion tests were utilized. For men in the lowest levels the questions were usually presented orally, while very simple language was used in the tests at levels three and four. Tests of a performance type were given in subjects like infantry drill, first aid, and the manual of arms, with the soldier

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[1]Education in the Armed Forces, op. cit., p. 18.

being rated by officer personnel.[1]

Special Training Units in different sections of the country encountered different "types" of illiteracy. One unit in Texas, for example, found that 95 per cent of the soldiers with whom it was dealing were non-English speakers of Spanish or Mexican background. Other units found that they were faced with a wide variety of education levels and "IQ's" due to a lack of proper testing at the Induction Center.[2]

From an analysis of fourteen months of data from August 23, 1943 to October 31, 1944, Brigadier General A. G. Trudeau of the Army Service Forces reported that eight times as many blacks as whites were classified as Grade V, slow learning. It was soon realized that this difference was the result of lack of educational opportunities rather than any defects in genetic heritage. Differences in scores between Northern and Southern whites as well as those between Northern and Southern blacks graphically revealed this to be the case, and the black soldier received his compensatory education, though in segregated units, just as did the others in need of it. Many were thus enabled to go on to technical skill training when in past wars their forefathers had been limited by prejudice

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[1]Cyril O. Houle, et al., The Armed Services and Adult Education (Washington: American Council on Education, 1947), p. 186.

[2]Witty, op. cit., p. 475.

and lack of education to only the most menial tasks.[1]

In spite of the problems involved in dealing with the many cultures, intelligence levels, and educational backgrounds, the overall "salvage rate" for the Special Training Units of over 90 per cent in an average instructional period of eight weeks. The work of these units also served to demonstrate the importance of strong interest and motivation in fostering learning as well as the value of clearly defined objectives and specific goals.[2] In all, the Special Training Units received 302,838 men between June 1, 1943 and January, 1946. Of these, 254,272 successfully completed the program and were assigned for regular training, 44,499 were discharged, and 4,067 were transferred to a non-duty status.[3]

During the 1941 mobilization period, the armed forces realized the need for establishing educational facilities which would aid the soldier in using his leisure time to better advantage, for the benefit of both his military efficiency and future civilian career. One method of providing this educational opportunity was correspondence study. In August 1941 a memorandum from the Chief of the Army Morale Branch suggested that:

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[1]A. G. Trudeau, "Army Experience and Problems of Negro Education," Education for Victory, Vol. 3 (April 20, 1945), pp. 13-15.

[2]Witty, op. cit., pp. 478-479.

[3]Houle, op. cit., pp. 176, 188.

> In order to have a well-rounded program of voluntary recreation during the leisure hours, educational activities should be made available for those who wish to devote a portion of their spare time to study. . . .
>
> The method of instruction by correspondence provides the flexibility desires for leisure-time education in the Army. Each man may proceed at his own rate of progress, studying when leisure time is available and in a course suitable to his needs, even if he is the only one interested in the study of that course at that time.[1]

Already at this time official arrangements had been made with private correspondence schools for enrollment of soldiers in their courses at the uniform rate of four dollars per month. At Scott Field, Illinois, the Army Air Corps had set up the Air Corps Institute, a correspondence school offering free basic courses to men of limited education stationed anywhere in the world.[2] On December 24, 1941, however, the foundation was laid for a much broader and more far reaching program, the Army Institute, later to be known as the United States Armed Forces Institute. The objectives of this organization were to:

> a. Provide personnel of the Army, during their leisure time, an opportunity to undertake a formal course of study by the correspondence method.
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> b. Provide educational opportunities to meet the requirements of the command.

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[1] W. W. Charters, Opportunities for the Continuation of Education in the Armed Forces: Findings and Recommendations of the USAFI Evaluation Study, 1951 (Washington: American Council on Education, 1951), p. 3.

[2] Education in the Army: A Discussion Digest, op. cit., p. 10.

> c. Furnish assistance to personnel of the Army who lack educational prerequisites for assignment to duty which they are otherwise qualified to perform and to meet the requirements for promotion.
>
> d. Enable those whose education is interrupted by military service to maintain relations with educational institutions and thus increase the probability of the completion of their education upon their return to civilian life.
>
> e. Improve the value of Army personnel as citizens upon return to civil life.[1]

Actual operation of the Institute began on April 1, 1942, with the original staff at its Madison, Wisconsin headquarters consisting of five officers and 61 enlisted men.[2] Initially 64 correspondence courses were offered, mostly in technical areas, with a few academic courses at the secondary and junior college levels. The Institute soon gained such popularity that its expanded offerings were made available to the enlisted personnel of the Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard on September 16, 1942. In recognition of its broader appeal, the Institute was redesignated as the United States Armed Forces Institute in February 1943 and soon became familiarly known as "USAFI." Commissioned officers were permitted to enroll on the same basis as enlisted personnel in July 1943 and have since provided USAFI with some of its steadiest

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[1] Army Regulation 350-3100 (December 24, 1941).

[2] Francis J. Brown, "Off-Duty Educational Services in the Armed Forces," Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences, Vol. 231 (January, 1944), pp. 47-48.

"customers."[1] The first overseas USAFI was established in Australia in 1943 and the peak of this activity was reached in 1945, with ten USAFI's servicing the overseas areas of Africa-Middle East, Alaska, Antilles, Central Pacific, Europe, India-Burma, Mediterranean, Panama, South Pacific, and Southwest Pacific.[2]

Courses were rapidly expanded to well over 7,000 during the war years, with a range from "Advertising" to "World Problems."[3] "Foxhole University," as the Institute was nicknamed, offered: USAFI correspondence courses at the high school and college level; university extension courses; self-teaching courses; and off-duty classes. The soldier paid two dollars for the first USAFI and self-teaching course, receiving succeeding courses free, while the government would pay one-half of the cost of the university extension courses up to a maximum of twenty dollars.[4] Though complete official statistics are not available because of the widely scattered overseas branches, it is conservatively estimated that, including locally organized classes,

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[1]W. L. Brothers, "Education in the Armed Forces," Adult Education, Vol. 9 (Summer, 1959), p. 244.

[2]Charters, op. cit., p. 7.

[3]U.S. Armed Forces Institute, How to Learn and Like It: A Handbook for Off-Duty Hours (n.p., 1943), p. 28.

[4]U.S. War Department Information and Education Division, Basic Record on U.S. Armed Forces Institute (mimeo., September 11, 1944).

well over two million members of the armed forces made use of study materials distributed by USAFI. In August 1945, enrollments in the Army alone indicate that 575,000 individuals were active at the time, quite an increase from the 1,255 who were enrolled in the Army Institute's correspondence courses in July 1942.[1]

One little known area of effort by USAFI was in education for personnel of the United States armed forces who were held as prisoners of war. Of the 92,956 Americans captured and held by Germany and Japan, those in German prison camps fared far better educationally.[2] The 22,837 Americans in the Far Eastern prison camps received only the benefit of whatever educational activity they themselves could organize and sustain. Despite the fact that nearly 60,000 books were shipped to Japan by such agencies as War Prisoners' Aid of the World's Committee of the YMCA, and the National Catholic Welfare Conference, few educational supplies reached the prisoners until late in the war. In the summer of 1944 a shipment was sent to Japan which included a very considerable number of USAFI textbooks. The unfortunate prisoners rarely saw such consignments and were reduced to such devices as that reported by Captain C. Jay Nielsen, a navigator in the Doolittle raid on Tokyo

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[1]Houle, op. cit., p. 96.

[2]David R. Porter, "Education Among American Prisoners of War," The Educational Record, Vol. 27 (January, 1946), pp. 68-69.

in 1942:

> Then luck sent us a treasure--a pencil stub found in a trash-heap. Using this gem, we summarized on toilet paper (also almost priceless) all the war news we could jointly remember, and everything else we could learn or deduce about the war.
>
> . . . Sgt. De Shazer had memorized a long poem, "The Pleasures of Hope," from a typewritten copy lent him briefly by a Japanese. We all picked up parts of it. . . . If we had been granted a longer period, Hite would have taught us scientific agriculture, De Shazer literature, and I would have made the two into keen architects.[1]

By June, 1945, only three thousand education manuals and two thousand USAFI correspondence courses had somehow managed to find their way to POW's in Japanese camps.[2]

For those prisoners in Germany the educational situation, at least, was incomparably better. In the early days of American involvement in the war, captured Americans, especially airmen, were usually taken to camps where British prisoners were already collected. There they frequently enrolled in educational classes which the British had already established, and in some cases took examinations made available through the University of London. With the arrival of increasing numbers of Americans in POW camps in 1943 and 1944, many requests were made by prisoners for a similar American system to be made available.[3] Accordingly,

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[1] Ibid., p. 70.

[2] Houle, op. cit., p. 88.

[3] Porter, op. cit., p. 73.

in January, 1944, U.S. Armed Forces personnel who were held as POW's were permitted to become members of USAFI without payment of fees. Subsequently over 100,000 education manuals and 13,000 USAFI correspondence courses were furnished to War Prisoners' Aid of the YMCA for distribution to American POW's in Europe.[1] A special branch of USAFI was set up in Geneva under the sponsorship of War Prisoners' Aid to facilitate study counseling and testing. Cooperation from the American Council on Education, the Bureau of International Education, and the Swiss Department of Education was easily achieved, but the German censor found the USAFI catalog and other USAFI materials unacceptable for a number of months. Fortunately, many thousands of volumes of the same textbooks as were in use by USAFI, but not bearing the USAFI imprint, had been previously shipped to Geneva and were able to be distributed in the camps. Textbooks were often written within the camps themselves, or courses taught by qualified instructors without using printed textbooks. Records of educational achievement were kept both in the camps and in the Geneva branch, but many of the camp records were destroyed in the last weeks of the German collapse, causing some prisoners to lose the possibility of having their studies accredited when they returned home. One young officer, however, came home to his college after a lengthy period as a prisoner in Germany, presented evidence

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[1]Houle, op. cit.

of having carefully studied 134 "serious books," took ten examinations, and was granted a diploma with honors.[1]

Accreditation for its courses was problem that USAFI had to face early if the long hours of study put forth by its students were to be recognized as having value by civilian educational institutions. In April, 1942 a special committee of the American Council on Education recommended that the then Army Institute's correspondence courses provide proper appraisal of the students' skills, attitudes, and knowledge through the use of standardized tests. Soldiers not enrolled in a formal course were also to be given the opportunity to take these examinations. A special examination staff was established the following month by the University of Chicago, working under a contract with the War Department. Three major types of examinations were developed: 1) USAFI end-of-course tests; 2) examinations used for determining a student's proficiency in a special field like mathematics, physics, or American history; and 3) general educational development examinations for gauging the educational level at which a student might begin further work either in the service or upon his return to school or college.[2] Many of these exams were later made available to civilian educational institutions through the Cooperative Test Service

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[1]Porter, op. cit., pp. 78-79.

[2]Houle, op. cit., p. 94.

and Science Research Associates.[1]

The most important step in obtaining proper credit for GI's inservice education was the American Council on Education's bulletin Sound Educational Credit for Military Experience, published in February, 1943. This booklet recommended that school and colleges make use of USAFI examination reports in determining the award of credit to returning servicemen, rather than either awarding "blanket credit" or demanding exact records of class room hours attended.[2] In December, 1943 the Council also began development of a handbook for school and college officials which would enable them to more intelligently grant credit for a soldier's training school programs. A Guide to the Evaluation of Military Experiences in the Armed Forces has been through numerous revisions in the years since World War II, and is today viewed as a useful tool by many college admissions counselors.[3]

Upon return to civilian life of the first 7,000 veterans applying for accreditation, 98 per cent obtained some high school credit, while 28 per cent were awarded diplomas. Out of every 100 applicants for college credit,

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[1] Ibid., p. 98.

[2] Charters, op. cit., p. 94.

[3] Cornelius P. Turner, Lt., "Credits Where Credits Are Due," Army Information Digest, Vol. 1 (September, 1946), pp. 25-29; see also Charters, op. cit., pp. 95-96.

95 obtained credit, and 20 received diplomas.[1]

After the Second World War, USAFI continued to play a major role in Army education. As a novel approach in the late '40's, in addition to its usual methods of reaching the troops through local education officers, USAFI introduced mobile tractor-trailer course registration and counseling centers which toured the continental United States and certain overseas areas, bringing educational assistance to servicemen in isolated areas.[2] In 1941 USAFI began operating under the Armed Forces Information and Education Division of the Office of the Secretary of Defense. Shortly thereafter, in January, 1950, direction and control of USAFI was vested in a civilian director, in order to achieve stability and continuity for its operation.[3] By December 31, 1950, nearly two million course enrollments had been processed since the April, 1942 opening.[4] On USAFI's twelfth anniversary in 1954 the total rose to three million, and the four million mark was reached in 1958.[5] At this time a number of major policy changes became effective. The

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[1]Charters, op. cit., pp. 97-98.

[2]Glenn L. McConagha, Maj., USAFI Commandant, "USAFI Takes to the Road," Army Information Digest, Vol. 4 (May, 1949), pp. 27-29.

[3]Brothers, op. cit., p. 244.

[4]Charters, op. cit., p. 5.

[5]Brothers, op. cit.

old two dollar initial enrollment fee for correspondence study was raised to five dollars in an effort to reduce the number of "casual" enrollments and possibly raise the rate of course completions. The self-teaching method of study was discontinued after a long gradual decline in popularity, and a requirement was instituted for formal enrollment in all group study classes, including elementary course and spoken languages. At long last USAFI was able to compile accurate statistics on this area and receive proper credit for its involvement.[1] Other changes at this time included a complete revision of USAFI's elementary program to eliminate the cumbersomeness of 27 separate texts and workbooks in 15 separate courses, and the organization of the Defense Advisory Committee on Education in the Armed Forces (DACE). This committee was composed of 21 voting members, all eminent civilian educators who could make available professional advice to the staff of USAFI.[2]

In the last decade, the United States Armed Forces Institute has continued to prove its value to Army education, constantly revising its course offerings and adding new titles of current academic and vocational interest. Despite permanent changes of duty station, isolated assignments, or combat tours, the individual soldier receives his

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[1] Ibid., p. 245.

[2] Ibid., pp. 246-248.

course work and graded lessons as long as the U.S. Mail or the Army Postal System operates.

By May, 1944 the Allied Forces had reached the point in their war effort where plans could be made for post-hostilities education programs for the occupation forces. The experiences of the American Expeditionary Force after World War I proved rather valuable background material for those planning the "Army Education Program" (AEP) for the Second World War Period. It had been noted then that an adequate substitute for military duty must be available or a profound and rapid deterioration in morale and discipline would result, with cases of absence without leave, desertion, insubordination, petty misdemeanors, and serious crimes mounting week by week.[1] Accordingly, extensive AEP courses of two types were planned: general information courses for all personnel returning to civilian life; and specialized academic and vocational courses which would help develop individual qualifications and provide training for civilian jobs or further study. The first type included civilian employment information, information about national, state, and local problems likely to confront returning servicemen, and international problems facing the United States in the post-war world. The specialized training program was designed to cover a wide range of courses including literacy training, and vocational training

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[1]Houle, op. cit., pp. 121-122.

involving both on-the-job experience as well as formal classroom instruction. A comprehensive system of school would be required to implement the AEP, especially in those areas where large numbers of troops would be held while awaiting demobilization. "Unit Schools" would offer literacy training and general education at the elementary and secondary levels. Centralized "technical schools" would offer vocational and technical training. "University centers," either similar to the one at Beaune, France in 1919, or working in cooperation with civilian institutions, would be established. It was felt at the time that the staff necessary to run these universities could be drawn from the ranks of the military. This later proved to be an incorrect assumption, and it was found that civilian specialists had to be recruited from the United States in order to insure familiarity with the most recent developments in certain fields of study offered in the technical school and university center.[1]

It must be noted that planning for the AEP did not meet with the approval of many officers while the war was still being fought. These men were totally concerned with the problems involved in destroying a still dangerous enemy. Thus, the AEP had a very low priority and might even be considered dangerous in that it distracted attention from the "real business" of fighting. Despite the availability of

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[1] Ibid., pp. 123, 126.

detailed plans, including the manual for education officers, Army Education Program for Inactive Theaters, most theaters were not well prepared to put the AEP into operation after VE and VJ days.[1] A number of higher education programs were developed on short notice, however, and according to certain sources operated quite successfully in late 1945 and early 1946 for periods of about six months.[2] The Mediterranean Theater was the first to organize a university center, beginning planning sessions in January, 1945 and opening for classes on July 1, 1945. Though Rome was originally selected as the best location for the university, it proved impossible to obtain facilities, and on June 15 the site was changed to the ancient city of Florence. Of this new location one participant wrote:

> Certainly no better place could have been selected for university study. Few cities are as rich as Florence in works of historic and artistic significance. Florence was the home of Michelangelo and Raphael, of Leonardo da Vinci and Cellini, of Dante and Galileo, of Savonarola and the Medici, and of Amerigo Vespucci--for whom America was named. Here are found the famed duomo and its companion built by Giotto, the baptistry and the Pitti Palace, and dozens of famous churches, museums, gallaries, libraries, monuments, and palaces filled with world-renowned

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[1] Ibid., p. 127.

[2] John D. Russell, "The Army University Centers in the European Theater," The Educational Record, Vol. 27 (January, 1946), p. 23; see also Oliver J. Frederiksen, The American Military Occupation of Germany 1945-1953 (HQ, U.S. Army Europe: Historical Division, 1953), p. 106.

> paintings, frescoes, statuary, and relics of earlier civilizations. What a site for a GI university![1]

Arrangements were also made with the University of Florence (founded in 1321) for the use of many of its lecture rooms, museums, and laboratories. The most important reason for the selection of Florence, though, was the presence of the vacant campaus of "the late unlamented Mr. B. Mussolini's" favorite institution, the Royal Fascist School of Applied Aeronautics. Here during the next four months 10,000 American GI's would be enrolled, attending classes in the marble halls of the eight main buildings, recently renamed "Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Cornell, Duke, Vanderbilt, the Citadel, and Stanford."[2] Of the 200 faculty members, three quarters were drawn from all ranks of the Army, from privates to colonels, with the choice depending on academic training and not on military rank. Thus only half were commissioned officers, while many non-commissioned officers with doctorates were present, representing such schools as Yale, Harvard, Duke, and the University of Michigan.[3] Over forty civilian instructors were recruited from government positions and universities in the United States and flown to Florence after the opening of the university center.

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[1]Walter C. Eells, "How Mussolini Provided for a G.I. University," The Educational Record, Vol. 27 (April, 1946), p. 180.

[2]Ibid., p. 178.

[3]Ibid., p. 181.

The student body was a rather mixed one, including officers as well as enlisted men. Fortunately for academic discipline, a requirement was made that instructors wear ties with their uniforms, to distinguish them from the students, and lieutenants, captains, and majors often "took orders" in the classroom from privates and corporals who were their instructors.[1] The students were a much more mature group than the average college student body in the United States; half of those enrolled for the first semester were over twenty-five. High school graduates with no prior college experience made up half of the student enrollment, half had had some college work, and about one in fourteen was a college graduate, pursuing some special work under the personal supervision of the faculty. Though most students were men, 117 WACs and nurses were enrolled, adding a flavor of coed life to the campus. Surprisingly for the still segregated Army, several hundred Negro soldiers were students each session, as well as many Nisei, Japanese-American members of the 442nd Regimental Combat Team, the "fightingest and most honored outfit in the American Army in Italy." According to Eells, there was little or no evidence of racial prejudice, and "colored troops, white troops, Japanese-American troops, Jewish troops, lived together, ate together, swam together, studied together, and learned to respect each

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[1] Ibid.

other."[1] To bolster his argument, Eells cites the fact that the first chairman of the student council was a Nisei, the third a Black man from Denver; the first secretary was a WAC technical sergeant, and the most honored athlete, Sergeant Willard Stargel, was a Black from Cincinnati. He reports also that the entire student council registered a formal protest in the Italian edition of the Stars and Stripes when a racist American Congressman, Rankin, publicly stated, "we are trying to keep the flag flying over a white government."[2]

The college curriculum available was quite respectable. Some 300 courses in all were offered, in ten Departments: agriculture, biological sciences, business administration, English, education, fine arts (art, architecture, music), languages, mathematics, physical sciences, and social sciences (economics, history, philosophy, political science, psychology, sociology). More than half of the students were enrolled in a language course, with Italian being the most popular. Courses in business administration were well subscribed, as many servicemen expressed an ambition to set up small businesses after their discharge. Agriculture and forestry also received heavy enrollments due to the availability of nearby cooperative farms, and a national forest and experimental

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[1] Ibid., p. 187.

[2] Ibid.

station at Vallambrosa in the Apennine Mountains. Students in journalism published a weekly, the USCollegian, noted for the unusual typographical errors put into print by its Italian compositors. Those enrolled in the education department visited schools for underprivileged children, a "progessive" Pestalozzi school, the exhibits of the National Didactic Center, and a modern technical high school in addition to their formal class hours. Physics and astronomy had access to the Florentine Observatory, where Galileo had worked, and the Museum of Science, where the instruments and notes of many great Italian scientists were kept. The physical sciences had the "Instituto di Geologia e Paleontologia" at their disposal, with the Tyrolean Alps, Mt. Vesuvius, the marble quarries at Carrarra and the mercury deposits at Monte Amiata within field trip distance by Army truck. Fine arts classes had the entire city of Florence to draw on, with lecturers able to discuss aspects of the world's most famout art works and then take the students to view the collections first hand. For those interested in research, a 10,000 volume library was assembled within the university center, while the libraries of the University of Florence and the Biblioteca Nazionale, with 75,000 volumes in English, were available for student or faculty use.[1]

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[1] Ibid., pp. 183-186.

Athletic programs were not neglected, taking advantage of the ample facilities of the former Fascist campus, which included stables for 60 horses, a large outdoor swimming pool, and courts and fields utilized for baseball, football, badminton, tennis, horseshoe pitching, boxing, basketball, softball, and volleyball. In addition, the athletic director, Captain Wayne Bartholomew, former coach at Santa Ana Junior College, was able to stage a competitive sports program with other Army units, playing in the "Spaghetti Bowl," the local athletic stadium. All this was enthusiastically received by the students, many of whom, as one Corporal Derendal put it, expected "the same old Army calisthenics with the ordinary routine."[1]

With so much to draw on it is no wonder that the four month-long sessions were deemed by both students and faculty to be extremely worthwhile. At the least, one can say that ten thousand men and women were assisted in their transition to civilian life, and given a taste of the academic atmosphere to which many would shortly return, all courtesy of the U.S. Army.

In the European Theater of Operations two university centers were established. The first, at Shrivenham, England, opened on July 30, 1945, while the second, at the French coastal resort of Biarritz, was delayed until

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[1] Ibid., p. 183.

August 21, 1945.[1]

Plans for Shrivenham and Biarritz, or rather, for several university centers at as yet unknown locations, began in November, 1944. At this point Major S. J. DeBrum and Captain R. G. Bone were brought into the newly created Army University Centers Section to work under the European Theater Education Officer. During the rest of the winter these men and their assistants surveyed many potential sites, wrote a catalog of courses, and drew up policies. Sessions at the university centers were planned to last eight weeks; each lecture-discussion class would meet for 50 minutes a day, five days a week; and each laboratory class would meet for 110 minutes a day, five days a week. Like Florence, the universities in the European Theater were divided into departments: Agriculture, Commerce, Education, Engineering, Fine Arts, Journalism, Liberal Arts, and Sciences.[2]

In March, 1945 a survey of sites in England revealed the presence about 70 miles from London of Shrivenham

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[1]To the delight of those interested in personal eyewitness accounts of historically significant educational events, a slim volume has been published on each. Shrivenham's chronicler, Captain Robert G. Bone, was the University Historian, while J. G. Umstattd served as Dean and Academic Advisor at Biarritz. U.S. Army, A History of Shrivenham American University (England: Swindon Press, Ltd., January, 1946); J. G. Umstattd, Instructional Procedures at the College Level: An Analysis of Teaching at Biarritz American University (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1947).

[2]A History of Shrivenham, op. cit., pp. 12-13.

Barracks, a former British Army training school which the report stated could, "be used acceptably as a site for an Army University Center for approximately four thousand students and necessary station complement." Permanent brick buildings existed with seven mess halls, comfortable accommodations for over 6,000 people, 124 class rooms which could hold 6,000 people at one time, adequate office and storage space, and excellent recreational areas. Because of the obvious suitability of Shrivenham, it was selected as one of the European Theater's University Centers, and the commanding officer, Brigadier General Claude M. Thiele, was appointed on April 17, 1945. The school, with a staff and faculty, was to be ready for operation for four thousand students sixty days following "Victory in Europe" (VE Day).[1] To publicize the availability of this and other institutions of higher education in the postwar period, the Education Branch drew up a directive on "The Army Education Program--Post Hostilities" which was disseminated on April 2, 1945. Paragraph 7a of this directive states:

> (1) This headquarters will be responsible for the establishment of Army University Centers to provide general pre-professional and professional training at college and university levels, and Centralized Technical Schools to provide specialized vocational and technical training for qualified military personnel.

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[1] Ibid., pp. 15-16.

> (2) Entrance requirements for such centers and quotas for the major commands will be announced by this headquarters. Military personnel will be placed on detached service while attending Army University Centers and Centralized Technical Schools.[1]

After much study, General Thiele and his associates determined that the Shrivenham Center would require at least 250 instructors. Once requisitioning began, however, it became apparent that, while sufficient qualified military instructors with graduate degrees and college teaching experience existed, they occupied such key positions in their units that most could not be released. Therefore, an intensive search for civilian instructors for both Shrivenham and the other University Center at Biarritz began, with 25 men working around the clock at the "Bureau of Utter Confusion," in the Pentagon, Washington, D.C. On the fourth of July, 1945, one hundred and forty-three civilian instructors sailed on the Queen Elizabeth. Ninety-four of them were brought to Shrivenham, a contingent later augmented by two further "shipments" of instructor personnel on the 24th of July and first of August.[2] Obtaining the necessary textbooks and supplies for these institutions

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[1] Ibid., p. 15.

[2] Ibid., pp. 130-146. Of interest to the writer for purely personal reasons is the fact that the academic institutions of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania were well represented: Robert F. Edgar and W. Irwin Short of the University of Pittsburgh's Engineering Department; D. D. Lessenberry, Secretarial Studies; William G. Crouch, Liberal Arts; and Fred J. Evans and George N. Porter of Carnegie Institute of Technology's Engineering Department.

proved such an imposing task that Shrivenham opened one month behind schedule, twelve weeks after VE Day. Still, in late July while welcoming the incoming students, General Thiele was able to state:

> The Shrivenham American University is not just another Army school; it is unique in that it is a University in every sense of the word although in the Army and on foreign soil. As most of you have been to college for one or more years you will understand what I mean when I say the curriculum you will take here corresponds closely to the summer school courses given by our colleges and universities at home. Here you have a choice of 257 courses in Agriculture, Commerce, Education, Engineering, Journalism, Liberal Arts, Fine Arts, and Science. To give these courses we have assembled a faculty of 220 member drawn from 149 of our leading institutions of higher education. This faculty consists of civilian professors and professors in uniform, both officers and enlisted men. I am very proud of our faculty and do not believe that there is any institution in our country which has a better one.[1]

A brief perusal of the roster of faculty members reveals that General Thiele's statement is not really too exaggerated, at least as far as any American university is concerned which aspired to excellence in so many areas of studies. So at last Shrivenham was ready to begin its short career as a university. Now it could bring to the American GI, as the Deputy Director, Mr. Elmer Peterson of the University of Iowa put it,

> . . . all the trappings and characteristics of an institution back home--library, laboratories, seminars, catalogues, registration, counseling, lectures, competitive athletics, football team, coaches, and cheer leaders, a yell and a song,

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[1] Ibid., pp. 9-10.

> dramatics, band, orchestra, art exhibits, dances, dates, radio, recreation, hobbies, arguments, loafing, cokes, and bull sessions.[1]

The staff and faculty did their best to see that all of these were available to the students.

The "typical" or median student of the 7,795 who attended Shrivenham's two eight-week sessions was an unmarried 23 year old corporal who had been in the Army two and one-half years. He had been overseas for 15 months and away from civilian schooling, where he had completed one year of college, slightly over three years. This soldier scored 121 (in the upper sixth of all inductees) on his Army General Classification Test and 115 (top quartile) on his Mechanical Aptitude Test. Following training as a combat soldier or skilled technician he had survived some type of combat experience, either front line fighting or enemy bombardment. As a conscientious soldier he "tried to do a fairly decent job" when given an order, but did not wish to be labeled an "eager beaver."[2] Instructors found that the soldier made an eager student, however, with a great deal more maturity and interest in his studies than his counterpart on American college campuses.[3] We shall see later that this judgement was soon to be borne out for the American servicemen as a whole, when

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[1] Ibid., p. 10.

[2] Ibid., p. 74.

[3] Ibid., pp. 78-83.

they began to flood the colleges and universities in the months following VJ Day. As one instructor reported, "The first thing I learned is that the veteran is not a psychopathic case, as so many articles in American journals have portrayed him." Another stated, "These men are eager to learn, prone to overload themselves with work in order to make up for the many lost months." As far as "rustiness" caused by long absence from academic surroundings was concerned, instructors noted that students were "rusty in background subjects," but "adjust themselves much more easily than I had thought possible."[1] Many, students and faculty alike, felt that the soldier-scholars had the best of both worlds, military and civilian. Thanks to the presence of a large force of German prisoners of war, almost all of the usual deadening tasks of the military such as "KP" and grounds maintenance were eliminated. The GI could therefore bask in the combination of civilian-style academic freedom and the security of the military as regards the necessity of life: food, clothing, shelter, and entertainment.

Alas, Shrivenham's days of glory were numbered. With the rapid demobilization following VJ Day, the need for a university in the British Isles soon diminished, and the closing exercises of the second session became the valedictory of Shrivenham American University. In spite of hopes of the faculty and certain prominent Britons that it

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[1] Ibid., p. 81.

might be continued as an Anglo-American University, Shrivenham ended as an educational experiment on December 5, 1945.[1]

The story of the second University Center in the European Theater, Biarritz American University (BAU), is rather similar to that of Shrivenham, since such problems as locating supplies and faculty, and the selection of students were handled at Theater level. Approximately 10,400 soldiers attended one of the three terms at BAU, commencing August 21, 1945. One per cent were women, about the same as at Shrivenham, and the rest were a similar composite of enlisted and officer personnel.[2] A total of 398 instructors taught one or more terms, along with 81 assistant instructors and technicians. Due to turnover, however, the number of instructors in any given term was never over 290. Of those 281 instructors on the staff at the end of the first term, 145 were civilians, 99 were officers, and 37 were enlisted men. Especially interesting to note are the qualifications of the faculty members: 176 held doctorates, 137 master's degrees, 50 bachelor's degrees, and 35 had specializations which compensated for their lack of academic credentials.[3]

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[1] Ibid., pp. 66-68.

[2] Umstadt, op. cit., p. 7.

[3] Ibid., pp. 6-7.

Biarritz, the famed French vacation resort, was an exceptionally welcome aid to the infant educational institution. The nearby Pyrenees Mountains also provided many opportunities for valuable field trips in such courses as geology, meteorology, geography, forestry, and engineering. During the first term over 15,000 miles were logged in 329 field trips using Army transportation. The Fine Arts section made the most use of field trips, taking 116 different ones involving 3,014 students to scenic spots where suitable objects for painting and photography were located. In later terms many trips were made to a fifty million dollar art collection owned by a private citizen of Biarritz. Field trips were used extensively in Animal Husbandry to supplement lectures and laboratory exercises, since no livestock was kept at BAU. Farms and breeding establishments were visited and discussions were held on French methods of farm management versus those in the United States. The Education faculty was not to be outdone by Agriculture in the use of a teaching method, on one occasion spending two days visiting the University of Bordeaux and the entire public school system of the city.[1]

The main emphasis at BAU, as the university is presented by Umstadt, was on relevance and on experience type learning rather than that found in the formal lecture. Except

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[1]Ibid., pp. 111-121.

for mathematics, which spent three-quarters of its class hours so occupied, most fields devoted less than twenty per cent of their class time to the formal conditions of the traditional lecture.[1] Instead, the discussion method with student panels and forums was popular. In certain classes these panels and forums were made available to large groups, through the use of public auditoriums and the university radio station. This was especially true in the Department of Psychology and Sociology, where between three and five hundred non-enrolled students attended the forums on "How to Study," while forty-five hundred attended a series of eight forums on marriage, the family, and socio-sexual adjustments, which were given by three instructors plus a medical officer. Four radio forums were also conducted by this Department on marriage and the family.[2]

Special aids to the student at BAU included coaching, tutorial assistance, clinical aid, and general advising. Due to the continued effort to keep class size to a minimum, the median class having 18 students, the faculty had the opportunity and time to take a deep personal interest in the welfare of the individual student. Comprehensive coaching programs were worked out by departments, with some instructors being relieved of one class in order to spend an hour per day in a room set aside for student assistance, or

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[1] Ibid., pp. 38-39.

[2] Ibid., pp. 75-76.

supervised study. Tutorial assistance was rendered to many upper class and graduate students who were enrolled in special projects. The clinical aid was available through several departments. Academic adjustment was handled by one member of the Psychology Department, while others dealt with more severe personal problems. The Department of Theater and Radio Arts set up a clinic to help students overcome speech handicaps. As regards general advising, enough staff members were selected by the Deans of each department to limit the advisor's load to approximately eighty advisees. Each was seen initially for a twenty minute interview during the four day registration session, then scheduled for an interview in the third week of the term. After that, or before if academic problems arose, the student was free to "drop in for a chat" at any regular office hour or any other time he might find his advisor free. Many students availed themselves of these opportunities to discuss everything from poor study conditions in the billets to personal problems--finances, love affairs, care of families at home, difficulty with Army red tape, etc. Records of interviews were maintained and forwarded to the chief of the counseling section, where problems relating to the general welfare of the student body might be dealt with.[1]

Following three terms of successful GI university education, Biarritz American University, like the others in

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[1] Ibid., pp. 81-98.

Britain and Italy, closed its doors. By February 1946, demobilization, even of occupation forces on the Continent had reached the point where no further need for such a program, in the Army's opinion, existed.

In addition to the above university ventures, the Warton American Technical School at Warton, England, was opened on September 15, 1945. Due to the difficulty of sending shop and vocational education equipment overseas, it proved to be the sole technical institution for GI's in Europe. With a faculty of nearly two hundred men from American industry, Warton served as a refresher school for men in the skilled trades. Four thousand students were enrolled in twenty-one trade courses, each of eight weeks duration.[1]

Elsewhere after VJ Day other education centers were opened, in Austria, the Hawaiian Islands, the Philippines, Okinawa, and Japan, but little information seems to be available on these activities.[2] Unit schools were established in many areas, but again, most did not submit reports to major command headquarters, and detailed information is lacking. An exception was the Mediterranean Theatre of Operations which did collect such data. In June 1945 there were sixty-six duty-time and forty-five off-duty unit schools in existence in that Theater. Twenty-one thousand

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[1] Houle, op. cit., p. 128.

[2] Ibid., p. 127.

students were enrolled in 161 different courses and on-the-job training assignments. Approximately 1000 instructors were selected from military personnel available to the Command, usually from within the units participating.[1]

It is estimated that considering the European and Mediterranean Theaters as a whole, at least 500,000 soldiers had taken part in the unit school program by February 1, 1946. In the Pacific Theater the sudden collapse ofJapan created an enormous problem of troop demobilization. Public creis to "bring the boys home" reached such an hysterical pitch that little could be done for most men except herd them on the next transport for San Francisco.[2] Fortunately for those soldiers who were thus returned to the civilian economy without any preparation for their readjustment, provision had been made for a period of unemployment compensation. The "GI Bill" was also available to assist many in furthering their education.

In 1942 the United States was deeply committed to the campaign against the Fascist forces of Gemrany, Italy, and Japan. Its industrial potential had been turned from the production of consumer goods to military hardware--from Chevrolet sedans to Sherman tanks. Its men either voluntarily or through the draft left factories and schools for the front. Even at this time, however, when so much emphasis

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[1] Ibid., p. 128.

[2] Ibid., p. 129.

was placed on the war effort, throught was being given to the postwar period and to the millions of servicemen who would be returning to their interrupted careers and education. At the national level, President Roosevelt appointed the "Armed Forces Committee on Postwar Educational Opportunities for Service Personnel," a panel composed of leading educators whose recommendations would eventually be transformed into the "GI Bill" legislation.[1]

A year later, in his annual report, George F. Zook, President of the American Council on Education, mentioned the preparation by the council of a pamphlet Sound Educational Credit for Military Experience in order that, "educational institutions (will) have established a sound basis for the granting of academic credit before the end of the war, when otherwise they might easily have been tempted to repeat the mistake of granting indiscriminate blanket credit, as was widely done following the First World War."[2] Shortly after the Armistice, even Harvard was under pressure from its board of overseers to "consider the expediency of granting a degree, 'honoris causa,' or with other appropriate designation" to men whose military service prevented them from completing their college

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[1]George F. Zook, "Postwar Planning for Educational Adjustment," The Educational Record (hereafter E.R.) Vol. XXIV (July 1943), p. 217.

[2]George F. Zook, "Accreditation of Educational Values in Military Experience," Educational Record, Vol. XXIV (July, 1943), p. 216.

course.[1] Tests were to play a major role in this advanced placement of veterans, with the "end of course" exams (for correspondence courses), field or subject exams, and tests of General Educational Development (at the high school and college level) being recommended.[2] Various colleges and state education departments turned to the problem, in addition to the agencies at the national level. The University of Illinois planned in September 1943 to modify "traditional entrance and curricular requirements of the university . . . to meet the individual back-rounds and needs of the returning veterans."[3] A special committee was to handle the problems of admission, paying particular attention to the veteran's special training in the service, his foreign travel, maturity, etc.

In New York, the State Education Department authorized the granting of up to 10 semester hours for "general military experience" of six months or more with additional credits possible for service schools and Armed Forces Institute correspondence courses. Colleges were to be permitted (until June, 1948) to offer non-credit high

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[1]"College Degrees and Soldiers," School and Society (hereafter S.S.) Vol. LX (February, 1919), pp. 236-237.

[2]E. F. Lindquist, "The Use of Tests in the Accreditation of Military Experience and in the Educational Placement of War Veterans," Educational Record, Vol. XXV (October, 1944), pp. 363-364.

[3]"The University of Illinois Plans for Returning Veterans," School and Society, Vol. LVIII, No. 1498 (September 11, 1943).

school courses to those individuals who did not complete their senior year because of the war, but whose records would otherwise indicate qualification for college admission.[1]

On June 22, 1944 Congress Public Law 346, commonly referred to as the "GI Bill of Rights." This particular piece of legislation upset the calculations of all the educators who had so conscientiously been planning for the veterans' return. By providing 12 months of educational benefits (basic) plus the number of months spent in military service for all veterans in over 90 days, this law was to, in effect, give full tuition scholarships plus a stipend of $50 to $75 for living expenses to millions who could never have considered further training or education. Very few of the educators had an inkling of the numbers involved, however. In September, 1944 the Veterans Administration estimated that about 1 million could be expected to take advantage of the educational benefits. Dr. Francis J. Brown of the American Council on Education felt the great majority of them would be interested in "functional training" of a vocational and technical nature, not general liberal arts education.[2]

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[1] "Adjustments of College Work to Veterans' Need in New York State," School and Society, Vol. LIX, No. 1534 (May 20, 1944).

[2] "The Veterans' Education Program," School and Society, Vol. LX, No. 1550 (September 9, 1944), pp. 164-165.

Even this estimate worried some academicians, and 1945-46 saw a number of them rush into print with dire predictions. One wondered, "How they (the college authorities) will deal with the students returning from military service who will react against their experience with military discipline without having developed corresponding self discipline for a peacetime way of life."[1] Another, the president of Boston University, asked the question, "Will the 'GI Bill of Rights' Turn Veterans Into 'Educational Hobos'?" Though he was responding to critics who felt that unemployed GI's would turn colleges into educational hobo jungles, his pessimistic comment was that this would be better than for the veteran to turn to the streets or the "literal hobo jungles" of the Depression years.[2]

There was fear that special treatment of veterans "regardless of either native capacity or potential usefulness" would "jeopardize the subsidization of non-veteran students best qualified for advance education by virtue of high intelligence and the promise of greatest service to society."[3] But despite predictions of doom, logical plans were being put into action. At the University of Illinois

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[1]Harold W. Dodds, "Compulsory Military Training? No!," Educational Record, Vol. XXVI (January, 1945), p. 23.

[2]Daniel L. Marsh, "Will the 'GI Bill of Rights' Turn Veterans Into Educational Hobos," School and Society, Vol. LXI, No. 1571 (February 3, 1945), p. 71.

[3]William Randel, "Implications of the 'GI Bill,'" School and Society, Vol. LXIII, No. 1641 (June 8, 1946), p. 413.

a "Division of Special Services for War Veterans" was established in April, 1944. Since 60 per cent of the veterans responding to a questionnaire were married or planned to marry before returning to the university, apartment buildings were to be erected to take care of some of the families. An attempt was also being made to find part-time jobs for veterans and their wives. Special refresher courses were offered to returning students, while testing and counseling were available for the many veterans who did not meet established entrance requirements. In the latter case, these individuals were enrolled in the "Division of Special Services for Veterans" and given high school work to enable them to meet the requirements, while also taking any college course in their field for which they had proper preparation. Illinois even went so far as to arrange individual curricula for those ex-GI's desiring study in a vocation for which no established curriculum existed.[1]

Brown University's president, Henry M. Wriston, remarked in School and Society on the shortage of teaching personnel in science, math, and engineering, and the lack of books due to the paper shortage. Because of the numerous additional students, Brown was starting immediate construction on a new 900 student classroom building, besides trying to secure from the Federal Housing Administration "more

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[1]Sidney E. Glenn, "When the Veteran Comes Back to Illinois," Educational Record, Vol. XXVI (April, 1945), pp. 67-75.

temporary housing facilities than are presently available." He was sorry to report, however, that the plan to establish "Rhode Island Veterans College" was not meeting with the approval of the other colleges in the area.[1]

As to the critical housing situation, mentioned by both Brown and Illinois Universities, the influx of veterans to focal points such as campuses forced the creation of "The Veterans Emergency Housing Program" in the first quarter of 1946. By August 1946, 166,139 family units and 76,033 dormitories of what was known as "temporary re-use construction" had been allocated to public bodies and educational institutions, while construction had been started on 132, 623 family units and 55,166 dormitory units.[2] Four months later, it was reported that 97,000 "accommodations" had been made available to colleges alone, while 79,000 more were scheduled to be completed with local funds.[3]

The trickle of veterans into the colleges was beginning to swell to a flood, as tens of thousands per month were released after VJ Day. Total applications for education under the GI Bill amounted to 1,687,000 by March 31,

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[1]Henry M. Wriston, "Brown University's Adjustment to the Veterans' Problem," School and Society, Vol. LXIV, No. 1646 (July 13, 1946), p. 21.

[2]"Temporary Re-use Units," Veterans Emergency Housing Program, Vol. I, No. 4 (September, 1946), p. 6.

[3]"Temporary Re-use Housing," Veterans Emergency Housing Program, Vol. I, No. 8 (January, 1947), p. 6.

1946.[1] By December 31, 1946, almost 40 per cent of the 12 million potential had applied for certificates, while 2-1/2 million were actually enrolled in training and education, with half in colleges and university programs. This may be compared with the most optimistic estimates of "not more than 8 per cent" and "1 million total" made shortly after the passage of Public Law 346.[2] Classes were increased in size (in one institution to 1200), and the percentage of students taught by graduate assistants "had reached an alarming proportion."[3] In a valiant effort "to prepare the veteran for transfer to another college at the end of a two year period after pressure would be somewhat lighter on other institutions," Hunter College, for 77 years exclusively a womens' school, opened its doors to a special session for 507 male veterans.[4]

Numerous problems arose because of the late payment of subsistence money to the veteran, as well as of the tuition money to the school. Sometimes it was the veteran's fault, sometimes the schools', often a bureaucratic failure, but in most cases it resulted from the burial of Veterans

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[1]Gen. Omar N. Bradley, "The Education of Veterans" Educational Record, Vol. XXVII (July, 1946), pp. 377-380-384.

[2]Francis J. Brown, "Opportunities and Dangers for Higher Education," Educational Record, Vol. XXVIII (April, 1947), pp. 207-208.

[3]Ibid., p. 212.

[4]Ruth G. Weintraub & Ruth E. Salley, "Hunter College Reports On Its Veterans," School and Society, Vol. LXVIII, No. 1752 (July 24, 1948), p. 59.

Administration offices in the unexpected avalanche of applications. In one case a training officer discovered the opposite extreme--a veteran receiving subsistence for his college work even though he had left the institution almost seven months before.[1] Still the applications poured in, 5,842,290 by February, 1947 with 1,775,000 already enrolled in colleges and another 700,000 in on-the-job training.[2] Three months later, the Veterans Administration reported spending $2,283,000,000 in all phases of its work under Public Laws 346 and 16 (Disabled Veterans).[3] Not just content with colleges in the 48 states, the well-traveled veteran had enrolled in 903 institutions in 68 countries from Iceland to New Zealand, forcing the Veterans Administration to rely on the State Department for investigation of the schools' status and to keep an account of the students.[4]

Surprisingly, only about one per cent of veterans who were not high school graduates seemed to be taking advantage of the GI Bill's provisions in this regard. Many reasons could be thought of to explain this fact, but the

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[1] Gen. Omar N. Bradley, "The Education of Veterans," Educational Record, Vol. XXVII (July, 1946), p. 384.

[2] "Veterans and the GI Benefits," School and Society, Vol. LXV, No. 1687 (April 26, 1947), p. 304.

[3] "Expenditures on Veterans Education," School and Society, Vol. LXVI, No. 1700 (July 26, 1947), p. 54.

[4] "Overseas Education for Veterans," School and Society, Vol. LXIV, No. 1670 (December 28, 1946), pp. 456-457.

lack of desire to return to the regular high school and associate with children probably contributed, for few cities provided any other means to attain a diploma.[1] One might also look on these non-graduates as a "hard core" since many GI's took the opportunity to obtain their high school diplomas while in service.

Expectations for success of the veterans varied widely. On one side we have the predictions of "educational hobos," on the other reports from such places as the Shrivenham American University in Britain where GI's awaiting shipment home were enrolled in college courses. There instructor comparison of BAU students with prewar college groups revealed a feeling that the GI's were "vastly more mature," more interested in academic work, more willing to study, and with general intellectual ability, ability to concentrate on studies, etc., rated at "about the same" as for pre-war groups.[2] Balancing the fact that these men were a captive audience against their eager anticipation of the voyage back to the USA, it can be expected that something better than the total educational disaster predicted by many would occur. Upon examination of the studies performed at the various colleges in the years after the war, such expectations prove to be justified.

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[1]Francis J. Brown, "Veterans are Persons," Educational Record, Vol. XXVI (October, 1945), p. 323.

[2]Kimball Young, "What Kind of a Student Will the Veteran Be?," Educational Record, Vol. XXVII (April, 1946), p. 171.

The first report, from Boston University at the end of 1946, brought this news: "Data suggest that the veteran student at BU is doing work equivalent to and perhaps better than the non-veteran classmate." He was definitely not "on a free educational joyride."[1] Edgar A. Taylor Jr., in a study made during the period November, 1945 to June, 1946 at the University of Southern California, states that in freshman English (a required subject) the veterans received a much higher percentage of A and B grades and a far lower percentage of failing grades than did non-veterans. Reasons suggested by instructors include: 1) Veterans are a more mature group agewise; 2) Forced delay in education has led to stronger motivation; 3) Marriage and children provide pressure to get through; and 4) Grades rather than fraternities and social affairs were totally on their minds.[2] A later comparison by Louis M. Hansen and Donald G. Paterson of veterans' records with their own pre-war grades indicated a substantial rise of one or more letter grades in 63.4 per cent of the cases and was also felt to be the result of a lack of emphasis by veterans on extracurricular activities.[3]

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[1]William C. Kvaraceus and James Baker, "The Achievements of Veterans and Non-Veterans in One Required Course at Boston University," School and Society, Vol. LXIV, No. 1666 (November 30, 1946), p. 385.

[2]Edgar A. Taylor Jr., "How Well are Veterans Doing?," School and Society, Vol. LXV, No. 1682 (March 22, 1947), pp. 210-213.

[3]Louis M. Hansen and Donald G. Paterson, "Scholastic Achievement of Veterans," School and Society, Vol. LXIX, No. 1786 (March 12, 1949), pp. 195-197.

As to what these veterans had chosen as fields of study a survey by Stanford University of 4,159 of their number revealed the following: the social sciences (696), engineering (519), law (474), and business (414). Forty-four per cent of the veterans were working toward an advanced degree, this group accounting for 71 per cent of all graduate students at the University.[1]

A number of studies were published which attempted to show the superiority of the veteran as a scholar: Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College reported 2.53 average on a 4 point scale for veterans, 2.42 for non-veteran men;[2] Brooklyn College dismissed only 2.1 per cent of veterans for poor scholarship as compared to the normal rate of 3 per cent;[3] and Hunter only had 2 per cent withdrawal for poor scholarship.[4] In "A Note on the Alleged Scholastic Superiority of Veterans," however, Robert H. Shaffer sought to refute the opinion that it is the military training which leads to academic superiority. He believed that the higher age of veterans was the deciding factor, and

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[1]"Scholastic Interests of Veterans" School and Society, Vol. LXVIII, No. 1756 (August 21, 1948), p. 119.

[2]M. G. Orr, "Grade-Point Average of Veterans at Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College," School and Society, Vol. LXVI, No. 1701 (August 2, 1947), p. 94.

[3]Harry D. Gideonse, "Educational Achievement of Veterans at Brooklyn College," Educational Record, Vol. XXXI (October, 1950), p. 457.

[4]Ruth G. Weintraub & Ruth E. Salley, "Hunter College Reports on its Veterans," School and Society, Vol. LXVIII, No. 1752 (July 24, 1948), pp. 62-63.

compared credit point ratios of veterans and non-veterans by year of birth for the academic year 1946-47. The veterans' overall average was higher but "non-vets of the same age were found to exceed vets of the same age in every case."[1] This study was supported by findings at Brooklyn College in "A Study of the Performance of Some 2400 Veterans in the Period From February, 1946 to June, 1949."[2]

To most educators, however, the significant item was how well the group "Veterans" fared, containing as it did so many individuals who would never before have considered pursuing a degree completion program. Unfortunately, the rise in the cost of living (and the lack of Congressional interest in substantially increasing the veterans' benefits) began to force a large number of vets to drop out of school in the late 1940's.[3] Devotion to an educational goal is one matter, but trying to reach it while working full-time to provide the necessities is quite another. Never again was Congress to be quite as generous, and never will such a large number of men be given the opportunity to advance to higher income tax brackets.

The effects of the World War II "GI Bill of Rights" (Public Law 346), then, should be broken down into "direct"

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[1]Robert H. Shaffer, "A Note on the Alleged Scholastic Superiority of Veterans," School and Society, Vol. LXVII, No. 1733 (March 13, 1948), p. 205.

[2]Harry D. Gideonse, op. cit.,p. 459.

[3]B. S. Aaronson, Lack of Money and the Veterans' Withdrawal From School," School and Society, Vol. LXIX, No. 1776 (January 8, 1949), pp. 28-31.

and "indirect" categories. The greatest direct effect was the totally unexpected increase in attendance. This increase was unexpected because the educators had examined the 1920-25 period after World War I and found that "by and large, the men who entered college after having been in service were men who had either left college to enter service or men who had entered service confidently expecting to enter college after demobilization."[1] The increased enrollments brought overcrowded classes, forced expansion of classroom and dormitory spaces, and sparked a search for additional teachers.

"Indirect effects" cannot be ascribed with one hundred per cent certainty to the GI Bill, but are still related with some degree of probability. First is the continuing percentage increase in attendance at institutions of higher education, even after the last World War II GI's finished. Some of this increase undoubtedly resulted from the example of a veteran brother, cousin, uncle, or (later) father; the first "college man" in a family giving a younger member the idea that he or she could aspire to a degree and climb into the white collar or professional classes.

Another indirect effect would be the impetus to further and increasing federal support of higher education.[2]

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[1]Frank H. Bowles, "Placement and Advisory Program for Veterans in College," Educational Record, Vol. XXVIII (January, 1947), p. 156.

[2]Francis J. Brown, "Opportunities and Dangers for Higher Education," Educational Record, Vol. XXVIII (April, 1947), p. 214.

By 1947 it was estimated "that more than 38 per cent of the income for publicly supported institutions . . . was derived from student fees ($202,000,000) of which almost two thirds ($129.271,000) came from the federal government as payment for veterans' tuition."[1] Private institutions also came in for a sizeable share through acceptance of additional funds for defense research contracts, HEW projects, etc. Considering both direct and indirect effects then, Public Law 346, "The GI Bill of Rights" can be viewed as one of the landmark pieces of educational legislation.

It is evident, then, that with the mushrooming of the Army's troop strength in World War II came an increase in non-military education programs for the serviceman. The "Information and Education Officer" in each unit set up off-duty classes in subjects at all educational levels, while the United States Armed Forces Institute monitored correspondence course study from Greenland to Guam. The Special Training Program helped new recruits achieve a basic competence in the skills of reading and mathematics. At the same time, the Army was utilizing civilian colleges and universities to produce large numbers of highly trained specialists in medicine, engineering, and other scientific fields.

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[1] H. K. Newburn, "The Financing of Public Higher Education in the United States" Educational Record, Vol. XXX (January, 1949), p. 24.

Once the war had been won, non-military education programs had increased importance, serving again to occupy the time of the millions of servicemen and women in overseas areas. In addition to schools at the unit level, several large universities and technical schools were established in Europe and the Mediterranean Theater.

Back in the United States, the newly discharged servicemen were rewarded for defending their country with the educational benefits of the "GI Bill of Rights," which kept them from flooding the job market, but overcrowded the colleges and universities for several years.

V. THE DEVELOPMENT OF A COMPREHENSIVE PROGRAM OF NON-MILITARY EDUCATION

Non-military education for servicemen finally came to be recognized as a necessary and permanent part of the Army shortly after the close of World War II. Formally designated the "General Educational Development Program," it was staffed to an ever-increasing extent by civilian advisors and instructors. Over the past twenty-five years it has expanded to assist both the officer and the enlisted man in meeting the constantly rising educational prerequisites for promotion and service school entry.

In spite of the drastic reduction in the size of the Army in the period immediately following the defeat of the Axis powers, a force of well over half a million men was maintained, throughout the decade, far above the level of the post World War I era. Increasing tensions of the cold war and the escalized conflicts of Korea and Vietnam in the '50's and '60's also brought with them a further rise in the manpower level. Thus, although the elaborate programs of the war years and early occupation period could not be continued, the need existed for troop information and education in an Army still made up to a large extent of short term soldiers provided by the selective

service system. Accordingly, a comprehensive "Army Education Program" was gradually developed by Department of the Army in the late 1940's to give

> instruction in subjects normally taught in civilian academic and vocational institutions for the purpose of raising the educational level of the individual, and which is not a part of the training programs established to meet military requirements.[1]

Both commissioned and enlisted personnel were to be eligible for the benefits of this program, an adjustment to the new reality that not all officers were West Point or university trained and they could often be in need of seeing a school room in a capacity other than that of instructor. Five educational levels were recognized for the purpose of planning. The "Basic" covered instruction in English and Mathematics for those individuals falling into one or more of the following categories: a) had not completed the fifth grade; b) had not attained an Army General Classification Test (AGCT) score of 70 or had not attained a score of 70 on the Aptitude Area I of the Army Classification Battery (ACB); c) could not read and speak English with the fluency of an adult who had completed the fifth grade. The "Intermediate" level covered grades six, sven, and eight, while "High School" included grades nine through twelve. "College," naturally, dealt with education above high school level, and "Vocational" covered the usual

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[1] Army Regulation 355-30, "Troop Information and Education: Army Education Program" (June 21, 1949), p. 1.

vocational subjects at either high school or college level. To achieve the ends of eliminating the basic and reducing the intermediate educational groups within the Army, assisting the soldier in meeting educational requirements for promotion, and raising the educational qualifications of officers, the Army Education Program provided, and still provides, a wide variety of services:

a. Educational courses, services, and materials offered by the United States Armed Forces Institutes (USAFI's) and by cooperating colleges.
b. Group-study classes, under competent instructors, in basic, intermediate, high-school, technical, vocational, and college subjects.
c. Enrollment of individuals in extension classes of accredited high schools, colleges, and universities.
d. Student advisement.
e. Testing and examination services.
f. On-the-job training, exclusive of hobby shop activities.
g. Assistance in obtaining academic credit in civilian institutions for accomplishments under the Army education program and for service experiences.[1]

At the heart of the above program is the "Army Education Center." Varying greatly from one installation to the other in physical plant, staff, and educational offerings, the centers all fall under the army definition "that portion of an installation, together with its personnel and equipment, provided and designated by the commanding officer for Army education program activities."[2] Some posts might provide a one room office for the "center" while

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[1] Ibid., p. 2.

[2] Ibid.

others provide a whole building and still others a complex of buildings housing administrative and clerical offices as well as testing facilities, storage areas, and class rooms. Originally each separate battalion and larger unit was required to maintain a center but gradually responsibility was placed at the installation level, with every installation over 750 troop strength being ordered to maintain at least one education center.[1] Posts with smaller populations were often satellited on the closest large military base for educational purposes, and might be served by personnel traveling a circuit in the manner of certain 19th century ministers or judges.

As a further departure from the old post school system, an ever increasing emphasis was placed on the role of the civilian education advisor. Though the program was often in the beginning under the control of the military Troop Information and Education Officer, the civilian education advisor was considered indispensable for a number of reasons. First, he or she would establish continuity in the installation's education program, something previously lacking due to the frequent transfer of military troop information and education officers. Second, he could, because of his expertise, advise troop information and education officers on educational matters. Third,

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[1] Army Regulation 355-30, "Troop Information and Education: Troop Education," (August 10, 1955), Change 2 (April 28, 1956), p. 1.

being outside the military rank system he could give educational counseling more easily to both officers and enlisted personnel, without embarrassment to the former or too much pressure on the latter. Lastly, as a professional educator, he might more readily deal with local civilian authorities and institutions.[1] It should be noted that the history of the Army education center since the late '40's has been a history of the growth of civilian involvement and control, with both civil service personnel and part-time civilian instructors far outshadowing the military presence. On many installations the education center came under full civilian control with the elimination of the old Troop Information and Education Program in 1956, and its separation into two distinct entities "Troop Information" and "Education." Most civilian advisors breathed a sigh of relief at this action, as did General Palmer, who justified the separation with these words:

> It would appear that most of us finally arrived at the same conclusion: the TI&E program was an artificial combination of two things, both of which would work better if separated.
> . . . Accordingly, it was with heartfelt pleasure that I recently received a recommendation to separate troop information from the education aspects of the old TI&E program once and for all.[2]

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[1] Special Regulation 355-30-1, "Troop Information and Education: Army Education Program-Administration," (September 8, 1949), p. 10.

[2] William B. Palmer, Gen., "A Fresh Start for Troop Information," Army Information Digest, Vol. 11 (November, 1956), pp. 2, 4.

To encourage participation, classes in basic subjects through the fifth grade level were offered during normal duty hours.[1] This policy has been gradually expanded, adding intermediate and high school classes to the on duty list, until at the present time it is almost certain that a soldier will be "voluntarily selected" to attend high school classes leading to his achieving an equivalency certificate sometime during his initial enlistment. This policy is of special significance to minority group members who fall in the category of school dropout in far higher percentage than do the white middle class soldiers. One of the first programs in basic education after World War II was designed with this thought in mind. In 1946 at Fort Benning, Georgia an on-duty education program was established for men in the all-Negro 25th Regimental Combat Team who had less than an eighth grade achievement level.[2] Based on the results of this effort, the European command opened a school at Kitzingen Basic Training Center, Germany, on December 1, 1947. The goal of this school was to aid the black soldier in achieving a 12th grade equivalency through on-duty time classes. Though discontinued on February 10, 1951, since it supposedly violated the executive order

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[1] AR 355-30, op. cit. (June 21, 1949, p. 2.

[2] D. A. Lane, "Army Project in the Duty-Time General Education of Negro Troops in Europe 1947-51," Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 33 (Spring, 1964), p. 118.

banning racial discrimination in the service, the Kitzingen Center managed to generate some respectable statistics in its three years of existence: 1,169 Black soldiers completing the fifth grade; 2,150 completing the eighth grade; and 918 receiving their high school equivalency.[1] Another overseas educational venture, though at a higher level, was that sponsored by stateside universities. University of Maryland classes had first been held at the Pentagon Building in Washington, D.C. with an initial enrollment of 40 in September, 1947. Rapid growth to 1,000 a semester by 1949 sparked an offer by the University to provide courses under contract in the United States Occupation Zone in Germany. The success of these classes in the 1949-50 school year brought the University of California into the picture, with classes for servicemen in Okinawa and Japan in May, 1950.[2] Louisiana State University later was given a contract for the Caribbean area.[3] The major advantages of their classes over those conducted using USAFI materials are the possibility of enrolling in a degree completion program

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[1] Ibid., pp. 119, 121-122.

[2] R. M. Connolly, Lt. Col., "Army Education Program and Military Effort," Higher Education, Vol. VII (October 1, 1950), pp. 31-32; see also Albert R. Brinkman, "The Army Education Program in the Far East Command," School and Society, Vol. 77 (April 11, 1953), p. 226.

[3] H. Maza, "Overseas Education for the Man in Uniform," Institute of International Education News Bulletin, Vol. 30 (May, 1955), p. 16.

with the sponsoring institution, and the increased likelihood of credit transferability to other colleges. Thousands of students attend University of Maryland classes in overseas centers ranging from the icecap of Thule, Greenland to the desert sands of North Africa, in 16 countries on four continents. Courses taught include business administration, economics, English, foreign languages, psychology, sociology, and speech.[1] Today, in addition, the University of Maryland's courses are available on a fulltime regular 16 week semester basis at the Munich campus, McGraw Army Caserne. Four hundred and twenty-nine students are in attendance including servicemen stationed in Munich as well as the dependents of servicemen and government employees. Admission requirement is a 2.0 or "C" average in major subjects taken during the last two years of high school. After completion of two years the student may continue his education with junior-senior level courses in Maryland's evening program, at one of 100 different American bases in Europe. Or, he might, upon returning to the United States after discharge, go to the main campus at College Park, Maryland. Credits obtained are also readily transferable to other colleges and universities.[2]

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[1]S. J. Drazek, "Maryland Overseas Program," School and Society, Vol. 83 (April 14, 1956), pp. 132-133.

[2]Dr. Winfield Hutton, "Educational Opportunity in Europe," Army Digest, Vol. 25 (September, 1970), pp. 34-35.

For those individuals making the service a career, opportunity exits for fulltime attendance at colleges within the continental United States under the so-called "Bootstrap" or Degree Completion Program. Soldiers wishing to take advantage of this program must be able to obtain a baccalaureate degree within six to 24 calendar months, or if an advanced degree candidate, within one semester or two quarters. In return for continuation of full pay and allowances during the period in residence at the college or university, the soldier is obligated to remain in the Army for two years for every year or fraction thereof he spends in school.[1] While the Army does not pay for tuition, fees, and books, assistance in this area is available under the educational benefits provisions of Public Law 89-358 the 1966 "GI Bill."[2] There are presently at least nine colleges throughout the country which are actively seeking "Bootstrap" participants. Included are such large institutions as the University of Maryland and the University of Nebraska at Omaha, as well as smaller schools like Park College, Missouri, Marion College, Indiana, and Campbell College, North Carolina, most with a long history of cooperation with nearby military installations. These schools are most often selected by

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[1] Army Regulation 621-5, "General Educational Development" (November, 1964), with Changes 1 through 8 (February 10, 1971), pp. 14-15; see also Peter A. Greene, "Grow Your Mind--How to go to School in the Army," Army Digest, Vol. 25 (November, 1970), pp. 48-49.

[2] AR 621-5, op. cit., p. 19.

the military student because they permit him to make use of every possible credit he might have accumulated toward a degree, whether it be Bachelor of Liberal Studies, a Master of Liberal Studies, or the more usual BA, or MS. As a typical example, Park College will accept the following, up to a total of 93 credit hours:

1. Residence credits earned at other colleges and universities.
2. Extension credits at other colleges and universities (maximum 30 hours).
3. USAFI Subject Examinations, End-of-Course Tests or Subject Standardized Tests (maximum 30 hours).
4. Correspondence Courses--USAFI or civilian colleges and universities (maximum 30 hours).
5. College comprehensive Tests (CLEP)--up to six semester hours in each of the five parts provided a score at the 25th percentile or higher is reached.
6. Service school credits--as recommended by the American Council on Education's A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Forces.
7. Military Service--eight semester hours.

Coupled with six months of resident work at Park College, taking 27 or more semester hours, a hard working soldier

can obtain a degree in the Social Science Division. For those with eleven, eighteen, or twenty-four months available, the Natural Science Division is offered, with the major fields of mathematics, chemistry, biology, and physics.[1]

In following this plan of accepting a wide variety of credit sources, some of the colleges have laid themselves open to charges of diploma devaluation. Since the national trend appears to be toward increased acceptance of credit by examination and credit for "life experiences," however, it appears that the military is in the educational vanguard as usual.

The above mentioned programs are all part of the Army's General Educational Development plan offered through the Army education centers. They are peripheral, though, to the main activities of the centers. Many soldiers come to education centers to complete their high school equivalency classes.[2] During fiscal year 1970 alone 55,000 soldiers completed high school or received equivalency certificates, while 500 others received baccalaureate or

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[1]Park College Brochure, "The New Degree Completion Programs for Military Personnel" (Kansas City, Mo.: Park College, undated), pp. 1-3; obtained at Ft. Dix, N. J., June, 1972.

[2]C. R. Cox, "High School Drop-outs Drop-in," Adult Leadership, Vol. 11 (September, 1962), p. 68.

advanced degrees through the GED program.[1] Some enroll in courses of the United States Armed Forces Institute (USAFI), either by correspondence or group study during off duty hours.[2] Others take advantage of the testing facilities and earn credits for knowledge gained outside the classroom. This can be done through the five part College Level Examination Program General Examinations (CLEP--Gen. Exams) or the USAFI end-of-course tests or subject standardized examinations. Education advisors then help the individual submit a request for a Department of the Army two year college equivalency evaluation which may be useful for promotion and retention on active duty. Still another activity of the major centers is the on post college classes presented by local cooperating colleges and universities. Usually offered in concentrated terms of ten weeks, these courses allow many conscientious students to rapidly precede toward his chance for "Bootstrap," often completing 24 or more credit hours per calendar year. An added benefit is the tuition assistance provision of 75 per cent of tuition and fees, payable by the Army with no requirement for additional service except in the case

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[1]W. C. Westmoreland, Gen., "Education and Training in the Army," ERIC ED C47 599 (Washington: Nat. Assoc. of State Univ. and Land Grant Colleges, November 10, 1970), p. 3.

[2]"Military Service: An Open Door to Learning for America's Young Women," Adult Leadership, Vol. 14 (January, 1966), pp. 229, 240.

of officers.[1] The final major offering of the modern Army education center is a program of rather recent vintage, Project Transition. Transition will be examined in detail, since as the ultimate example of non-military education, it seeks to educate soldiers for civilian life.

While the GED program has greatly benefited many soldiers only a few could hope to match one general's experience. Entering the Army as a ninth grade dropout, he completed high school in the service and then went on to obtain his college degree picking up credits by participation in all phases of the Army education center's activities.[2] Many, however, find it unique in their educational experience since it takes a man or woman at whatever educational level they are presently and attempts to bring them up to maximum potential.[3] By this process and that of offering tangible rewards--promotions and better jobs--for success, the GED program is able to salvage a sizeable percentage of those educational casualties of the public school system that it receives.

As the Vietnam conflict gradually escalated into an undeclared war in 1965-1966, the Department of Defense

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[1] AR 621-5, op. cit., p. 23.

[2] William Maxwell, Jr., "Some Purposes and Means of Army Education," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 48 (May, 1967), p. 457.

[3] L. H. Strehlow, "Army and Edult Education," Adult Education, Vol. 13 (Autumn, 1962), p. 33.

became interested in salvaging some of the 600,000 young men per year who were found unqualified for military service under current fitness standards. One half of these individuals failed to qualify because of medical problems, while the remainder suffered from educational deficiencies. After examination of this potential manpower pool, Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara decided to turn the vast educational and medical resources of the Armed Forces to the task of raising these men to an acceptable level of performance. Accordingly, in a speech to a Veterans of Foreign Wars' convention on August 23, 1966, McNamara announced the start of a new program, initially enrolling 40,000 men who currently fall into the disqualification category. This included the men who failed to score well on standard aptitude tests, but who, when exposed to intensive military skill instruction and practical on-the-job training, could qualify as "fully satisfactory soldiers." It also included those whose physical deficiencies could be corrected with proper health care within a period of a few weeks, usually overweight or underweight individuals. After the first experimental year, 100,000 men were to be accepted into the Armed Forces from that group formerly considered draftable only in a declared war.[1]

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[1]D. W. Robinson, "Schoolmaster McNamara," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. XLVIII (October, 1966), pp. 94-95.

Those requiring medical assistance were placed in the competent hands of Armed Forces physicians, but the majority were those falling in category IV, the lowest aptitude level of the Armed Forces Qualification Test battery.[1] It was soon discovered that many of the Project 100,000 men were deficient in basic literacy and arithmetic skills. Thirty per cent read at or below the fourth grade level and eighty per cent read at or below the seventh grade levels.[2] Recognizing the fact that reading at these levels would definitely handicap soldiers in today's technical military evniroment, the Armed Forces placed category IV men with severe reading limitations in 3 to 8 week full time remedial education courses, usually prior to their entrance into the regular basic training program. A former director of Project 100,000, I.M. Greenberg, reports that over 80 per cent of individuals given this opportunity completed their courses, showing gains averaging 1-3/4 grades.[3]

The Army's remedial reading program for the "New Standards Men" got underway in April, 1968. At first the instruction was provided upon completion of basic training, but after September, 1968 this was changed to the

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[1]C. Braddock, "Project 100,000," Education Digest Vol. XXXII (May, 1967), p. 18.

[2]Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense, (Manpower and Reserve Affairs) "Characteristics and Performance of 'New Standards' Men" Project One Hundred Thousand (September, 1968).

[3]I. M. Greenberg, "Project 100,000: The Training of Former Rejectees," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. L (June, 1969), p. 571.

period prior to basic training. Designated Army Preparatory Training (APT), the course gave students 4 hours per weekday of reading instruction, 1 hour of arithmetic, 1 hour of social studies and 2 hours of military training. Saturday morning was devoted entirely to military training. With this preparation the students were able to enter the second week of basic training after completing APT. Selection for APT was predicated on inability to read at the 5th grade level, while completion of the course meant demonstrating an attained reading level of 5th grade or higher. Some men were released during the detailed diagnostic tests, which proved they already had the requisite reading ability. Others reached the objective in 3 weeks time, while some had to stay in APT for a full 6 weeks.[1] At one Army Training Center, Ft. Dix, a special section of the Education Center was organized for the Project 100,000 personnel, with classrooms housed in a converted World War II barracks. Utilizing contract civilian supervisors and specially selected enlisted instructors, most of whom had Master's Degrees in education, a highly successful "salvage" operation was in effect, making use of the latest in reading instruction techniques and equipment.[2]

In order to properly judge the success or failure of training programs for the "New Standards Men," detailed

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[1]Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense, (Manpower and Reserve Affairs), Project One Hundred Thousand--Characteristics and Performance of "New Standards" Men (December, 1969), p. 44.

[2]Personal observation during the period 1968-1970.

studies were performed to determine the group's educational, geographic, and ethnic composition.[1] It was determined that nearly 40 per cent of the men inducted under Project 100,000 were Negro, as compared with 9 per cent in an established control group. Forty-seven per cent were from the South as against 28 per cent in the control group, and the average percentile score on their initial testing battery was 14 as compared with 54 for those in the control group.[2] Educationally, the following information is available:[3]

	PROJECT 100,000	CONTROL GROUP
Percent High School Graduates	43.3	75.8
Average Number of School Grades Completed	10.6	11.9
Reading Ability Median Grade	6.1	10.9
Percent Reading Below 4th Grade Level	14.4	1.1
Percent Who Failed or Repeated School Grades	47.0	UNKNOWN

Following the remedial education described previously, most "Project 100,000" soldiers went on to basic

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[1]Howard H. McFann, HumRRO Research on Project 100,000 (Alexandria, Va.: Human Resources Research Organization, December, 1969), Professional Paper 37-69; also Project One Hundred Thousand--Characteristics and Performance (December, 1969), op. cit.

[2]Greenberg, op. cit.,p. 570.

[3]Ibid., p. 571.

training. Ninety-six per cent graduated, only 2 per cent less than the control group.[1] In their skill training courses, ten per cent failed to graduate, as compared to four per cent in the control group. Training and assignments in the Army for "New Standards Men" were varied, although 41 per cent were trained in combat skills. The majority of the men were placed in "soft skill" areas of the military rather than in technical fields. These would include such occupations as food service supply, administration, combat engineering, military police, automotive equipment repair, and wire communications.[2] Over the long run, a full 20 months of service, only a 2 per cent difference was noted in the number making E-4, corporal, or specialist: 52 per cent for Project 100,000; 54 per cent for the control group. Annual court martial rates were low, less than 3 per cent, contrary to the expectations of many in the military when the program was first announced.[3] Ninety-one per cent of the "New Standards" soldiers were rated Excellent in conduct and efficiency by their supervisors.[4] Even allowing for the usual military tendency to inflate ratings of this sort, it is evident that these

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[1]L. M. Bartlett, "Education in the Department of Defense: Unrecognized Giant," College and University, Vol. XLIII (Summer, 1968), p. 397.

[2]Project One Hundred Thousand--Characteristics and Performance (December, 1969), op. cit., p. XVII.

[3]Greenberg, op. cit., p. 571.

[4]"Success--Project 100,000," Army Digest, Vol. XXIII (September, 1968), p. 2.

previously unacceptable soldiers were at least making satisfactory progress in their adjustment to the Armed Forces.

The Nixon Administration continued Project 100,000 for two years to help maintain the draft pool. Because of a reduction in the size of our South East Asia commitment, however, only 52,000 were accepted the third year. Further reductions in the Armed Forces in late 1971 and early 1972 spelled the end of McNamara's creation, as directives issued by the Department of Defense revoked mandatory quotas which had been in effect since late 1966.[1]

> We are now moving toward the goal that no man who honorably completes his military service should have to face unemployment because he does not have a marketable civilian skill. Project Transition can point the way to assuring for these men that their time in military service will be not a detour in their lives, but rather, as President Johnson phrased it, "a path to productive careers."
>
> Honorable Stanley R. Resor, Secretary of the Army, 1968[2]

In his Manpower Report to the Congress of April, 1967, President Lyndon B. Johnson set in motion the program that was to become Project Transition with these words, "We must make military service a path to productive careers." Secretary of Defense McNamara was then requested to "make available, to the maximum extent possible, in-service training and educational opportunities which will increase their

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[1]Mike Miller, "Low IQ Military Plan is Dying," The Pittsburgh Press, Vol. LXXXVIII (Friday, December 10, 1971), p. 30.

[2]Bill Church, "From Army Green to Payroll Green," Army Digest, Vol. XXIII (March, 1968), p. 27.

chances for employment in civilian life."[1] By June, 1967, pilot training programs were established at Fort Knox, Kentucky; Treasure Island Naval Station, California; Camp Lejeune, North Carolina; Randolph Air Force Base, Texas; and Walter Reed Army Hospital, Washington, D.C.[2]

The Walter Reed pilot project was directed particularly at the special training of servicemen who had been disabled. Their first venture, a "Postal Service Orientation," seemed to be well received by the patients. Of the 14 who took the two week course, two moved into postal positions shortly thereafter when released from active duty. The others received certificates of completion and a feeling that they had "a better than even chance for jobs" when they would leave the service.[3]

The Army's overall pilot program, at Fort Knox, lasted until December, 1967. During that 6 month period, 4,339 eligible soldiers were interviewed, with 2525 requesting some type of training. By early December, 612 men had completed 11 courses. These ranged from postal work and data processing machine operation to on-duty high school and pre-high school studies. Nearly 225 men were

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[1]Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Manpower), "Project Transition: A Statement of its Aims, Content, and Operational Program" (Wahsington: 1968), p. 1.

[2]Department of Defense Pamphlet FS-50/Department of the Army Pamphlet 360-601 "Project Transition" (May, 1968), p. 2.

[3]Church, op. cit., p. 28.

still engaged in on-the-job training in occupations spanning the spectrum from fish and wildlife management to advanced data processing.[1]

From the results of this and other pilot studies, the Department of Defense judged the Transition Program to be capable of implementation throughout the Continental United States. Accordingly, on January 2, 1968, most major military installations embarked on the new educational venture by appointing some staff member of the "education center" as "Transition Director."

The first problem of the many that would appear was locating those men eligible for the program; those within six months of discharge. Once this was accomplished, on large posts usually by obtaining a computer printout from the Personnel Services Division, the men had to be notified of their status and brought in to the education center to complete the "Project Transition Questionnaire," CONARC Form 998-R.[2] This form served several purposes: giving the counselor the educational and vocational background of the soldier; providing the counselor with the soldier's future plans; and, most importantly at the start of the program, indicating the soldier's desire to be trained in one of the following occupations:

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[1] Ibid., p. 29.

[2] CONARC Form 998-R (December, 1967), "Questionnaire-Project Transition."

Auto Mechanics	Machinist
Clerk	Aircraft Mechanic
Cook	Radio-TV Repairman
Retail Salesman	Welder
Draftsman	Plumber
Automatic Data Processing Machine Operator	Post Office Worker
Computer Programmer	Air Conditioning Repairman
Electrical Appliance Repairman	Other (state job title)

No training courses were able to be promised definitely at this point because none were in existence. The completion of several hundred questionnaires, however, soon provided a bank of enough interested individuals to give the directors some idea of what courses were in demand. Accordingly, the first class established was usually the "Postal Orientation Course." The reasons for this vary, but it is probable that many servicemen, especially retirees and minority group members, were looking for the stability and security represented by a civil service job. The larger post offices near Army bases were also extremely helpful in providing personnel to teach these two week courses. Once one class was established, others rapidly followed. As the directors examined the resources available to them, they found a number of training possibilities. First to come to mind was the vast Army formal school system for training personnel to fill military jobs. At the larger posts, most of which

are training centers and schools, classes are continuously in session for courses in administrative and technical areas, many of which have direct applicability to civilian occupations. If a vacancy in a class existed there was usually no objection to placing a "Transition" soldier in it.[1] This situation, unfortunately, did not occur too often at the beginning of the Transition Program, since the Vietnam War was still in high gear and the constant turnover of drafted personnel made training for military jobs the top priority. As American forces in Vietnam were withdrawn over the next few years, more spaces became available in these schools for Transition participants, especially in technical courses like welding.

On-the-job training (OJT) proved a solution to the problem of meeting individual demands for "one time only" courses, when otherwise a man might to told, "Sorry, we don't have that course to offer, there has been no demand for it in the past." Now the possibility existed of placing a man in an "apprenticeship" situation either on the Army post or in some nearby community where the occupation was practiced. This approach was very often the backbone of the Transition Program at small bases, where eligibility of only a few hundred soldiers a year made formal classes an impossibility. At Fort Story, Virginia, for example,

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[1]James Hogue, "Project Transition--Training for Tomorrow," Army, Vol. XVIII (October, 1968), pp. 54-55.

thirteen state, federal, and local governmental agencies, and over 50 civilian companies in the Norfolk-Virginia Beach area were utilized. Soldiers could train as policemen, welders, qutomobile mechanics, heavy equipment operators, disc jockeys, game wardens, and in many other occupations on the job, while still collecting their Army pay and living in military housing. Bob Steele, the Transition Coordinator for Fort Story, set up the training program carefully in order to avoid possible abuses. First he ensured that a firm accepting soldiers for training would agree to provide meaningful job experiences for the men and not just have them "running for coffee." If a soldier desired employment as an automechanic he was placed with an auto dealer's service department and spent his time working under a line mechanic. Any firms which were found to misuse their "GI" labor were immediately dropped. A training monitor from Fort Story visited each soldier at his training site once each week. There he checked on attendance and progress of the serviceman on the job.[1]

This type of training, then, had its definite uses. The Army found it beneficial because there was no cost for instructors, equipment, or facilities; the firms were pleased with a supply of free, eager labor, and with the possibility of hiring a trained employee after the

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[1]"Under Project Transition--'Short-Timers' have a Lot to Learn," The Voice, Vol. VI (Friday, November 19, 1971) First U.S. Army, Ft. Meade, Md., p. 10.

serviceman's discharge; and the GI was happy to be receiving some valuable training, job experience, and just getting away from Army duty for half a day. On the negative side, however, such training was hard to supervise, sometimes led to "hooky playing" on the part of a few soldiers, and was difficult to certificate for those soldiers going home to other areas of the country.

A third training source was provided by the large industrial firms and associations, who responded immediately to requests for assistance. This was especially true if a Transition director could show that he had a sizeable pool of men to draw on for students, with hundreds of new soldiers eligible each month. General Motors was quite active in 1968, having opened up 30 Transition training sites by October with courses in auto mechanics and car sales provided.[1] Radio Corporation of America (RCA) came in with a Radio-TV repair course; Bell Telephone provided lineman's classes in several states; and the Humble Oil Company conducted a number of successful service station manager's on Army installations. Many other large corporations which were located near Army bases also provided training, but were not able to offer the possibility of nationwide job placement that was available through the above-named super giants. These firms also had large established budgets for

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[1]Hogue, op. cit., p. 55.

training on which to draw, and "factory" training centers near certain Army bases. Examples that readily come to mind are General Motors Training Center near Morristown, New Jersey, and the RCA Training Center in Cherryhill, New Jersey: both of which proved to be within easy commuting distance of Fort Dix. In this period of labor shortage and inflation, national firms like the ones mentioned above were extremely interested in getting their hands on trained employees whose draft vulnerability was zero. Knowing that they would not have to pay the servicemen taking their courses or be responsible for insurance or any benefits, they welcomed the chance to come to the Army posts and assist Transition. Of course a problem soon arose. In their understandable desire to obtain good workers, these firms were accused of "skimming off" the best individuals in a class and offering them jobs after graduation, instead of hiring the lower ability level soldiers who really needed the work and would have difficulty finding a job. Most firms denied these charges, countering along the lines of General Motors, which stated that, "our dealers don't hire everyone to be a service manager; we need mechanics and tire changers too."[1] Other companies, however, like Bell Telephone, made no effort to conceal their desire to take the best. New Jersey Bell was especially notorious for its use of a pre-course

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[1] Ibid., pp. 55-56.

screening test which one director swore selected men who stood a better chance of completing four years of engineering school than of staying two years as lineman for the phone company. After many complaints, New Jersey Bell examined its employment records and found, amazingly, that the Transition director was correct; they were hiring men as linemen who were over-qualified, and who left Bell as soon as they could get some job experience time. The test was eliminated as a requirement and men from lower ability levels were accepted into the training courses.

The next training sources to be utilized were those technical schools and instructors whose services could be contracted for under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) programs.[1] Since this involved lengthy coordination with other governmental agencies like Health, Education, and Welfare and the Department of Labor, as well as the submission of detailed training proposals, most Transition directors did not make extensive use of this source for the first year or two of operation, though Fort Belvoir brought in a professional computer training firm under Department of Labor MDTA funds in the Fall of 1968.[2] As the inflationary economic situation gave way to a recession, however, the training budgets of large corporations

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[1]Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Manpower and Reserve Affairs) "Fact Sheet: Transition Program" (December 1, 1971), p. 3.

[2]Hogue, op. cit., pp. 54-55.

melted away, and funding from other governmental agencies began to be sought to salvage programs deserted by industry. The Department of the Army (DA) helped to some extent as it had in the past, mostly in the area of counselor's salaries. A problem with DA funding which continually plagued directors was the fact that substantial sums of money would be allocated for Transition at DA level, but that money would be passed down through the various levels of comman, gradually being siphoned off, until it finally reached the installation in a much depleted state. Even there it was a part of the commander's discretionary fund, to be used for other purposes than Transition if the commander so desired. Directors, then were much happier with MDTA funding, even though considerably more effort was necessary to obtain it, and have made increased use of this source in the last two years. The presence of these funds contribute to the stability of Transition and make ever more remote the possibility that a quick decision at Department of the Army headquarters could eliminate the program because of a "critical need" for money elsewhere.

The final source of training came from programs offered through the Army Education Center itself.[1] First and foremost there was the effort to assist those soldiers who had dropped out of high school in preparing for the

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[1]Richard C. Maurer, Capt., "Project Transition--to the Future," Army Digest, Vol. XXIV (October, 1969), pp. 6-7.

nationally recognized GED test; whose results many schools and businesses will accept in lieu of a high school diploma.[1] Once this deficiency in their educational background has been remedied, usually in six to eight weeks of half day classes scheduled during normal duty hours, the soldier is ready for further involvement with the Education Center. This might mean correspondence courses and group study courses in hundreds of subject areas from USAFI, United States Armed Forces Institute. Or, it could be registration with a cooperating local college which was conducting degree programs on the Army post. At Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri the soldier was able to take advantage of an opportunity offered by Webster College in St. Louis. This college in its "Project Vault" presented ten semester hours of credit in on-base instruction at the fort. When the men were discharged from the service they moved to the campus in St. Louis and continued work toward a bachelor's degree, receiving financial assistance under the Veterans' Readjustment Benefits Act of 1966 (the new GI Bill). Graduates of this program will eventually become teachers in the inner city schools.[2] Many other intallations had similar arrangements with colleges which the serviceman in Transition was able to utilize: Campbell College near

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[1]"Under Project Transition--Short-Timers' have a Lot to Learn," op. cit., p. 10.

[2]Hogue, op. cit., p. 53.

Ft. Bragg, North Carolina; Trenton State College near Ft. Dix, New Jersey; Marion College near Ft. Benjamin Harrison, Indiana; etc. These will be more thoroughly discussed when the Transition programs at certain representative posts are detailed.

By the time the year 1968 had passed, the Department of Defense was able to state that 400,000 men of the 900,000 eligible during the period had completed questionnaires. Eighty-three per cent of these men had received some counseling in regard their future academic and vocational plans. Of the men deciding not to remain in service, 75 per cent indicated a desire for training. Due to a lack of established courses, prerequisite skills, or low aptitude, only 35 per cent were able to enter training; but of these 93 per cent completed their courses. A breakdown of these figures by race indicated nineteen per cent were non-white.[1]

Due to the large numbers requesting training and the limited facilities available, priorities for individuals had to be established. The first concern, as in all past wars, was for the combat disabled soldier, with that category eventually expanding to include any individual with a service connected disability. In Priority Two were placed those soldiers ineligible to reenlist, for other than disciplinary reasons, who did not possess a saleable civilian

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[1]Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense "The Transition Program" ERIC ED 047 191 (May, 1969), Manpower and Reserve Affairs, p. 10.

or military acquired skill. Priority Three was for other enlisted personnel who did not have skills which would enable them "to obtain gainful employment after separation." Priority Four held those who desired additional training to improve civilian employment opportunities.[1] The determination of which individual belonged in which category was normally left to the Transition counselor. When training opportunities were available the counselors tended to be fairly flexible in assigning categories, as the following early staff memorandum from one chief counselor indicates.

> The classification of soldiers by priorities will be accomplished as follows:
>
> PRIORITY
>
> 1 = Combat disability. If the man was a healthy physical specimen when he came in the Army and received a significant battle wound impairing him in any way, then he fits this category.
>
> 2 = Unable to re-enlist or limited education--most Project 100,000 personnel ("67" serial number) and any man lacking his high school diploma or equivalency fall under "2."
>
> 3 = No saleable civilian skill or no military skill immediately convertible to civilian use. To test the civilian value of an MOS, assume that the enlisted man will walk into an employer, explain what he did in the service, and ask for a job. If you don't think that he can easily get a job on the basis of his Military experience, then he is a "3."
>
> 4 = All others. Only individuals in priority groups 1, 2, and 3 are eligible for on-duty Transition training, but being in 1, 2, and 3 does not require that the individual be placed in on-duty training.

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[1] "Transition," Army Digest, Vol. XXVI (April, 1969), p. 71; see also CONARC Regulation 621-4 (March 6, 1970), " "Education--Project Transition Directive," p. 2.

> Establishment of priority categories is independent of the soldier's future plans. Note that two years of college do not necessarily make an individual a "4." If it was terminal (AS degree) then "4" is correct. If not, then he is a "3"--unless he has a specialty that is saleable.[1]

Regardless of the priority an individual was given there was still no absolute guarantee that he would be trained in the skill desired. The Army retained a veto by permitting disapproval by his unit commander of a request by a soldier to participate in the project.[2] This veto, by a field grade officer, major or higher rank, seems to have been used rather seldom, usually in cases where a man held a responsible position in his unit and no replacement was available.

After one year of operation, the Transition Program passed from the control of its founding Democratic administration to that of the new President, Richard M. Nixon. No great changes were immediately apparent and Mr. Frank M. McKernan remained in charge of the program at Department of Defense (DOD) level.. The continued support of the Secretary of Defense was clear on August 18, 1969, when Melvin Laird announced, in a speech to the Veterans of Foreign Wars convention, that one of the five human goals of DOD was, "to help each serviceman at the end of his service in his adjustment to civilian life."[3] Unfortunately,

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[1]Author's personal files, 1968.

[2]CONARC Reg 621-4 op. cit.,p. 3.

[3]Maurer, op. cit., p. 8.

this support had not been properly verbalized to the right people in Congress. Earlier in the year a Congressional misunderstanding caused a 5 million dollar cutback in the Transition budget for fiscal year 1970. A House Appropriation Committee report stated, "of the total number of personnel being released from active duty, very few participated in the program and those who participated get little training."[1] There are several reasons why this statement presents a false picture. First is that it assumes that the Transition Program was world-wide and had the capability of contacting all servicemen who were within six months of discharge. This was devinitely not the case. Especially in the Army, Transition activities were at that time confined to the Continental United States.[2] Lack of funds and the impossibility of the U.S. industry support would have made any attempt at implementing Transition in Europe or South-East Asia merely an exercise in group questionnaire completion carried out by an already harried Army Education Officer. In the winter of 1969-70 a private group called "Operation Homecoming Inc." tried under the direction of Mr. James Tuman to organize "jbo fairs" for servicemen in Europe and Asia. Though he had obtained some assistance from the Department of Defense,

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[1]Donald W. Coble, "Is DOD Becoming a Sociological Lion?," Armed Forces Management, Vol. VI (January, 1970), p. 51.

[2]"Project Aids in 'Transition'," Army News Features (U.S. Army Command Information Unit, August 16, 1971), p. 1.

Tuman was unable to get enough industry backing in the deepening recession period.[1] So hundreds of thousands of GI's were completing their tours overseas, flying back to a separation center in the United States, and being discharged without ever having had the opportunity to be counselled on their future employment or educational plans. Except, of course, in a group meeting at the separation center, of perhaps half an hour's duration, where a representative of the state employment service presented a talk on how best to obtain unemployment compensation.[2] The two year draftee was often in the worst possible situation. High school dropouts were drafted off the streets of the ghetto or from the poverty pockets of Appalachia, trained for six months in combat arms or low level combat support specialties, and shipped to Vietnam for a thirteen month tour; usually in areas not too conducive to off-duty education programs. When returned to the United States they would have had enough time remaining to fully participate in the Transition Program. They did not get that opportunity because Congress had put pressure on the Defense Department to discharge Vietnam returnees up to 5 months early.[3]

Another part of the false impression Congress had of Transition was the overemphasis on its training phase;

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[1]Author's personal diaries, 1969 and 1970.

[2]Author's personal diary, 1969.

[3]Hogue, op. cit., p. 56.

that since everyone who "participated in the program" did not receive some training, then the program was a failure. As was repeatedly emphasized in Transition literature, training was only one part of the program, and in any case was only for those in need of a saleable civilian skill.[1] Counseling on academic or vocational plans was available to all servicemen, including officers. Job placement assistance was also an important phase of Transition, with over 1000 companies offering jobs of all descriptions in every section of the United States.[2] All eligible enlisted personnel in the Continental United States were encouraged to fill out a questionnaire and discuss their future plans with a counselor, a policy designed to: a) provide the Army with information on the anticipated employability of its servicemen; and b) give the GI an opportunity to get straight in his mind what he would be doing in the days and weeks after discharge. By counselors' prodding the GI into making his plans before discharge when he was not under immediate pressure to take just any job available, a large number of men were undoubtedly kept off the unemployment insurance rolls or out of dead-end, low skill level occupations. Former ghetto dwellers and soldiers from the poverty pockets were encouraged to move to other areas of the country where the economic situation was brighter, often with the promise

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[1] DOD Pam FS-50 op. cit., pp. 2-3.

[2] Coble, op. cit., p. 51.

of a job awaiting them, courtesy of the Placement Department. GI's who were confused about their own aptitudes and interests had access on most installations to a well-run testing department. There one could take advantage of a battery of professionally administered, scored, and interpreted psychological measurement instruments that would cost a civilian a week's paycheck on the "outside," but which were free of charge to soldiers in Transition. Soldiers who had never considered the possibility of further education were given a detailed explanation of "GI Bill" provisions in this regard,and left Transition counselors armed with specific information on colleges and technical schools in their home areas. High school dropouts who had not previously had the opportunity to attend G.E.D. classes were immediately, with their consent, started on the six week road to a diploma or equivalency. All of this assistance was considered valuable by the soldiers who received it, and nowhere else would they be able to obtain so much factual advice on so many subjects in one cetrally located, easily accessible facility.[1] Unfortunately, as was previously mentioned, certain influential members of Congress suffered under misapprehension as to the purpose of Transition, and some time passed before they were properly informed. Meanwhile, the Transition directors developed talents for

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[1]This reaction was noted on many "feed-back letters."

improvisation, "moonlight requisitioning," and coaxing assistance from private industry. Door frames from abandoned building mysteriously appeared when needed for office remodeling; industry associations managed to donate the aluminum siding necessary to keep World War II wooden barracks class rooms from being condemned; and volunteer troop labor marched up just when it was most needed.

In late 1971 a substantial alteration in Transition took place, brought about by a Congressionally directed reduction in manpower levels in the Armed Forces. Noting at last the thousands of GI's overseas who would soon be flooding the "stateside" separation centers, the Department of the Army decided to make some provision for their successful "transition" to civilian life. The new concept was to establish ten "skill centers" within the Continental United States, locating them at the larger installations and attempting to achieve maximum geographic coverage. Examination was made of the most successful and popular training courses at each fort selected. Eventually a master list was made up, with beginning dates for courses in the first eight week cycle set for November 29, 1971. The ten skill centers were to be located at: Fort Lewis, Washington; Fort Ord, California; Fort Bliss, Texas; Fort Carson, Colorado; Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri; Fort Knox, Kentucky; Fort Dix, New Jersey; Fort Belvoir, Virginia; Fort Bragg, North Carolina; and Fort Benning, Georgia. Nearly all

offered courses in auto mechanics, welding, auto body repair, heating and air conditiong, drafting, hotel-motel management, lineman and cable splicing, and bricklaying; most funded under the Manpower Development and Training Act. Certain posts also "specialized" in other courses like police training, service station operation, data processing, and plumbing.[1]

The students to fill these thousands of class spaces were to come from the overseas commands: Europe, the Pacific, Alaska, and the Caribbean. The commanding generals of each of these areas were authorized to curtail the overseas tours of eligible personnel who volunteered for Transition training. These could includ officers and warrant officers who were being involuntarily separated, in addition to enlisted personnel who were approaching the end of their service obligations. The tour curtailment was to be for a period of not more than 60 days prior to the individual's separation from the service, usually enough time to complete a course and be processed for release.[2] Those soldiers who lacked sufficient time to complete a training course were permitted to be retained on active duty for up to 60 days.

While most major instructional costs appear to have been absorbed through MDTA funding, problems naturally

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[1] "Transition Skill Centers Course List-First Cycle" (Mimeo, obtained at Ft. Bragg, N.C., November, 1971).

[2] TWX (Teletype message) R 311810Z March 1972, "From DA to Commanding General, Overseas Areas, and Training Center Commanders" Subject: "DA Project Transition Policy and Guidance."

existed in the areas of housing and classroom facilities. Since most of the skill center sites were at the larger Army training installations, newly vacant Basic Combat Training Company Areas were turned over to the Skill Center students. At Fort Dix, New Jersey it was originally planned in August 1971 that 10 Basic Combat Training Company Areas would be used to house and school 2,200 job skill trainees, though by June 1, 1972 only 406 had been enrolled.[1] According to the Skill Center Coordinator, this was due to a lack of cooperation between the Defense Department and the administrators of MDTA funds. The latter, it seems, were not used to crash programs and unpredictable fluctuations in student enrollment. The Army, on the other hand, had not been able to properly disseminate information to the soldiers in overseas commands and screen those individuals desiring training. This situation was being remedied by the shipment of special Transition counselors to Europe and the Far East. The prospect of a steady flow of soldier trainees from Europe, long after the bulk of Army forces have been removed from South-East Asia, should eventually provide the stability necessary to properly manage the skill centers.[2]

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[1]"Establishment of a Skill Center," (Memorandum for the Chief of Staff, Ft. Dix, J.J. August 13, 1971); and Skill Center Enrollment Chart, Ft. Dix, N.J., viewed on June 1, 1972.

[2]Author's personal notes, Ft. Dix, N.J. visit, June 1, 1972.

Looking at the Transition Program as a whole, one sees in action a reasonably successful effort on the part of the Armed Forces to assist separating servicemen in their adjustment to a new life in the civilian world. What makes this effort unusual is not the concept itself, since various attempts along the same line were made in World War I and II.[1] Rather, it is unusual because there seems to be a likelihood that Transition will remain a part of the military, as much a fixture as the separation station, long after the original impetus, the Vietnam War, fades into the history books. There are several reasons for this probability. The first is the realization by many in the Armed Forces that the change from the military to the civilian environment is a drastic one, and that an obligation to assist in that transition exists which goes far beyond the usual final pay and "best wishes." A second factor is the potential usefulness of the program as a recruiting inducement. Finally there is the utilization of non-military funding and civilian personnel to support Transition, removing a major portion of its budget from the control of those who might one day find it expedient to transfer funds to a "more critical" priority area, and making use of the

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[1]For World War II, see especially: A. A. Owens, "Why De-Bite Only the K-9's?," Adult Education Bulletin, Vol. VIII (April, 1944), pp. 99-102; and M. Dreese, Cpt., "Khaki to Mufti--How the Army Helps," National Education Association Journal, Vol. XXXIV (May, 1945), p. 117.

stability, specialization, and organizational talents of civil service personnel. Relying on the last two points alone, Transition should have a long and potentially useful existence. For a recent report on its present accomplishments a glance at the next table should suffice.

Transition on Army Installations[1]

Ft. Benning, Georgia

Mr. Gus W. Schlitzkus, Transition Director at Fort Benning, Georgia reported that practically all of his scheduled courses were funded and taught under MDTA. The bulk of the average annual cost of $20,000 was provided through Health, Education, and Welfare, less a very small part, about 10 per cent, from Department of Labor. Exceptions included the Small Engine Repair and the night Data Processing courses, which were taught by contract with the Muscogee School District at $484.50 per forty hour block of instruction, and the Postal Training Course which was taught by the Post Office.[2]

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[1]The following installations were personally visited by the author and their Transition Programs inspected: Fort Bragg, North Carolina; Fort Carson, Colorado; Carlisle Barracks, Pennsylvania; Fort Benjamin Harrison, Indiana; Indiantown Gap Military Reservation/ New Cumberland Army Depot, Pennsylvania; and Oakdale Support Detachment, Penna. Fort Knox, Kentucky and Fort Benning, Georgia were contacted by phone and letter. In addition, the Transition Programs at the Philadelphia Naval Yard, Pennsylvania, and McGuire Air Force Base, New Jersey were inspected to get some comparison of the efforts of the other services.

[2]Author's personal files, "Letter with Attached Reports: Gus W. Schlitzkus to Wm. E. Kofmehl Jr., April 14, 1972, Subject: Project Transition, Ft. Benning, Georgia."

TABLE 330 TRANSITION ACCOMPLISHMENT REPORT

(For Quarter Ending March 31, 1972)

Military Department	Army			Navy			Marine Corps			Air Force			Total DoD		
Race	White	Negro and Other	Total	White	Negro and Other	Total	White	Negro and Other	Total	White	Negro and Other	Total	White	Negro and Other	Total
Number Counseled:															
Officer	3513	1065	4582	502	3	505	417	5	422	1160	35	1195	5596	1108	6704
Enlisted	66841	20254	87095	13831	1438	15269	4302	1811	6113	24963	3596	28559	109937	27099	137036
Total Number Counseled	70358	21319	91677	14333	1441	15774	4719	1816	6535	26123	3631	29754	115533	28207	143740
Number Skill-Trained															
By Sponsor:															
Industry	2569	546	3115	842	99	941	422	165	587	1154	119	1273	4987	929	5916
MDTA 1/	1862	407	2269	246	36	282	492	176	668	230	31	261	2830	650	3480
Military Service	-	-	-	274	71	345	188	91	279	672	129	801	1134	291	1425
Federal Government	1951	661	2612	292	86	378	138	46	184	909	211	1120	3290	1004	4294
Other	1762	574	2336	123	7	130	72	34	106	583	87	670	2540	702	3242
Total Trained by Sponsor	8144	2188	10332	1777	299	2076	1312	512	1824	3548	577	4125	14781	3576	18357
By Priority Group:															
Non-High School Graduate	1426	712	2138	309	84	393	452	138	590	46	16	62	2233	950	3183
"Combat" Military Speciality	2216	554	2770	338	87	425	642	249	891	93	11	104	3289	901	4190
Number Completed Education Courses under TRANSITION	344	93	437	940	125	1065	162	80	242	893	138	1031	2339	436	2775
Number Completed Education Courses by Type:															
GED 2/	1212	434	1646	324	79	403	64	29	93	161	39	200	1761	581	2342
PREP 3/	480	156	636	229	7	236	84	49	133	732	99	831	1525	311	1836

1/ MDTA = Manpower Development and Training Act, funded by Labor Department.
2/ GED = General education development high school completion course.
3/ PREP = Predischarge Education Program courses.
4/ NA = Not Available.

Source: OASD (M&RA) TP

Refer DoD Directive 1332.26

Department of Defense
Directorate for Information Operations
OASD (Comptroller)
June 20, 1972

The staff at Benning included:

1 Supervisor -- GS-12

8 Counselors: two GS-9's; 4 GS-7's 2 contract

7 Clerical: two GS-4's; three GS-3's; one GS-5; one contract.

During a typical three month period ending March 31, 1972, the staff counseled 2795 soldiers and trained 399, with a breakdown as follows:

		Counseled	Trained
1.	Total	2795	399
2.	Race		
	White	2143	313
	Negro	590	75
	Other	62	11
3.	Age		
	Under 30	2359	315
	30 and over	436	84
4.	Education		
	Non-HS Grad	337	62
	HS Graduate	2458	337

From the establishment of the Transition Program in January 1968 until March 31, 1972 participation in training courses was as follows:

Total Enrolled		Completed Courses	
White (W)	Non-White (NW)	White	Non-White
11,201	3,715	9,675	5,110

Some of the more popular courses and their enrollment/ completion figures include:

Courses	Total Enrolled		Completed Courses	
	W	NW	W	NW
1. High School courses	601	196	584	186
2. Intermediate Courses	296	96	295	96
3. Postal Training	1968	1463	1762	1316
4. Drafting	882	153	741	114
5. Automatic Data Processing	1498	478	1284	370
6. Auto Mechanics (MDTA)	654	135	536	101
7. Electricity and Electronics (MDTA)	268	73	198	50
8. Air Conditioning and Refrigeration (MDTA)	348	57	281	41
9. Radio and TV Repair (MDTA)	241	60	198	40
10. Offset Pressman (MDTA)	198	64	150	46
11. Welding (MDTA)	281	59	192	24
12. Cement Masonry (MDTA)	102	31	83	22
13. Automatic Data Processing (MDTA)	236	87	173	67
14. Law Enforcement (MDTA)	147	23	126	16
15. Small Engine Repair	70	14	45	9
16. Bricklaying (MDTA)	20	1	7	0
17. Hotel-Motel Mgmt. (MDTA)	27	7	11	1
18. Lineman and Cable Splicer	4	0	4	0
19. Painting	6	0	6	0

In addition to the above, on-the-job training was offered in courses ranging from "Agriculture" through "Mobile Home Repairs" to "X-ray Technician."

Fort Bragg, North Carolina

The Transition Director, Mr. Forrest E. Miller, revealed that he had a total of 47 employees on his staff including: 9 Department of the Army Civilians (DAC's); 5 contract counselors; 8 test monitors; and 25 instructors. During the preceding quarter his staff had personally counseled 3,000 soldiers on a one to one basis and had enrolled 789 soldiers in courses.[1]

Unlike Fort Benning, Transition at Bragg relies heavily on private industry for support of its training courses. Mr. Miller has also been successful in bringing in unions to train soldiers in the fields of cement masonry, brick laying, carpentry, and painting. A list of courses as of November, 1971 include:

Armstrong Cork (Floor Mechanics)
Auto Body Repair
Architectural Drafting
Auto Mechanics
B.F. Goodrich (Front End Align.)
B.F. Goodrich (Mgt. and Sales)
Brick Masonry
Carpentry
Cement Masonry
Data Processing
Electricity
Firestone (Credit Mgmt.)
Firestone (Retail Sales/ Mgmt.)
Ford (Auto Mechanics)
GAC (Finance Mgmt.)
GE (Elec. Heating/Air Cond.)
GE (Major Appliance Repair)

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[1]Author's personal notes, Ft. Bragg, North Carolina visit, November 9, 1971.

Courses--Continued

General Business
Hotel/Motel Management
Insurance Adjusting
Law Enforcement
Liberty Loan Career Management
Mechanical Drawing
Office Machine Repair
Plumbing
Police
Postal
Printing
Radio/TV Repair
Real Estate Sales
Small Engine Repair
Vending Machine Repair
Water Treatment Plant Op.
Welding

In addition, on-the-job training can be provided in areas not listed above. Most classes are conducted on the installation or at nearby industrial training centers. Classes are held eight hours a day, five days per week, in most cases for 7 weeks. Mr. Miller and his staff have also been hard at work developing leads in the placement area. His office screens records for potential job candidates in particular fields desired by employers, and distributes a monthly employment bulletin listing new firms registered with Transition or new positions opening either locally or nationally.

Fort Benjamin Harrison, Indiana

Transition was originally established at Fort Harrison with a junior officer, a first lieutenant, as Director.[1] Later a GS-11 civil service position was created,

[1]On January 14, 1972 Mrs. George M. Ruston, acting Transition Director of Fort Benjamin Harrison, Indiana was interviewed.

along with positions for 3 contract counselors and 2 testing clerks. Mr. Ruston, a GS-9, is holding the Transition Director's slot until it can be filled; he will then revert to his former position of counselor. In the three years Mr. Ruston has been with Transition little has changed. Due to the small size of Fort Harrison, and the fact that its military population is composed primarily of students at the Army Finance and Adjutant General's Corps Schools, initial interviews of eligible soldiers amount to only 40 to 45 per month. An average of 15 to 20 individuals are in Transition training at any one time. MDTA funding is utilized to contract training at Lincoln Technical Institute, twenty hours per week in various automobile mechanics courses. Mallory Technical Institute is heavily relied upon for evening courses paid for with Army Education Center funds, as is Arsenal, a public technical high school. Soldiers who indicate interest in training in technical areas are sent to the above schools for interviews with school counselors.

In spite of the limitations posed by the small input of students and a lack of on-post facilities, Transition at Fort Harrison has made full use of the sources available to it in order to provide a variety of opportunities for eligible servicemen:

Company or School	Type of Training Offered
Bill Miller Real Estate	Real Estate School
Tuchman Cleaners	Cleaning & Pressing-OJT
Metropolitan Insurance	General Sales

Company or School	Type of Training Offered
John Hancock Life Insurance	Insurance Sales
Penn Mutual Life Insurance	Insurance Sales
Allstate Insurance	Claims Adjusting - OJT
Humble Oil	Service Station Management
Mobil Oil	Service Station Management
Link-Belt	Computer Operations - OJT
L.S. Ayres	Computer Operations - OJT
P.R. Mallory	Computer Operations - OJT
Indiana Nat'l Bank	Computer Operations - OJT
Texscan Corporation	Electronics
American Optical Company	Lens Grinding - OJT
Indian Transit	Truck Driver (heavy) - OJT
Burger Chef	Management
Kelly Plumbing & Heating	Plumbing & Heating - OJT
Marion County Builders	Carpentry
P.R. Mallory	Production Control - OJT
Greyhound Van Lines	Van Operator - OJT
WISH - TV	News Broadcasting - OJT
Post - Photo Shop	Photography - OJT
Post - Commissary	Meat Cutting - OJT
Post - Purchasing & Contract	Clerk - OJT
Post Office	Postal Opns & Civil Svc. Test
Post - Automatic Data Proc.	Automatic Data Processing
Lincoln Technical Institute	Auto Mechanics (various crses)
Mallory Technical Institute	Computer Technology - Even.
Mallory Technical Institute	Electricity & Air Cond. Ser.
Mallory Technical Institute	Appliance Repair (large)
Mallory Technical Institute	Automatic Transmission Ser.
Mallory Technical Institute	Key Punch Operations
Mallory Technical Institute	Oil Burner Service
Mallory Technical Institute	Small Gas Engine Service
Mallory Technical Institute	Upholstering
Mallory Technical Institute	Welding
Mallory Technical Institute	Air Conditioning
Mallory Technical Institute	Fluid Power Service
Mallory Technical Institute	Custodial Services
Mallory Technical Institute	Appliance Repair (small)
Arsenal Technical High School	Air Frame/Engine and other courses

Fort Dix, New Jersey

At Dix the Transition Program began operation on the 2nd of January 1968, with a staff consisting of the project director, Mr. Peter Montovani (GS-9), and one

part-time contract counselor.[1] Six months later the size and scope of Transition activities had expanded to the point that ten individuals were engaged in Transition staff work full time and four World War II vintage buildings were needed to house the classrooms, testing areas, and counseling offices. Staff expansion has been continuous with heavy reliance on contract personnel; most of whom are military dependents or retired military personnel. There is a high turnover in staff, especially among the army wives who have been hired, but many of the retirees have been employed under a series of ninety day contracts for three or four years. In June 1972 Transition staff included: 13 people in "Administration and Training"; 13 in "Counseling and Information Services"; 3 staff members and 6 instructors in the Skill Center; 2 representatives of the New Jersey State Employment Service; and affiliated instructors provided by private industry. We can consider then that Transition has at least 37 full-time permanent staff members. According to budget figures, $50,000 per quarter is paid out for the contractual salaries of 25 staff members. $239,000 is budgeted per year for all salaries, including those individuals in civil service

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[1]Author's personal notes, Ft. Dix, N.J. op. cit. Of all the Transition Programs, the author is most familiar with the one at Fort Dix, New Jersey; having served as head of the counseling section for nearly two years, and having maintained contact with its staff for the last several years, the most recent visit taking place on June 1, 1972.

positions.[1] Computing the cost of instruction is very difficult, since many courses are totally sponsored by private industry and are often located at industry training centers off post. Examples in this category include:

Sponsor	Course Title
General Electric	Appliance Serviceman
Ford Motor Company	Automobile Mechanic
General Motors Corporation	Advanced Auto Mechanic
National Assoc. of Home Builders	Bricklayer
Pitney-Bowes, Inc.	Copier Sales
Avco Financial Services	Finance Management
Marshall Maintenanice	Millwright (Pipefitter-Machinist)
Bell Telephone, N.J.	Telephone Installation

A Law Enforcement Course sponsored by the International Association of Chiefs of Police, a College Discovery Program sponsored by Montclair State College, and a Postal Course run by the Post Office also operate at no cost to the Transition Program, as does the large OJT (On-The-Job Training) program. Figures for MDTA funding were not made available, but examination of an August 1971 teletype message and reply reveal that expansion of the Transition Program by 50 per cent in the remainder of Fiscal Year 1972 would require an additional $164,800.[2] At the time I inspected the Skill Center, where most of the MDTA funds were used, courses were being offered in Auto Body Repair, Automobile Mechanics, Carpentry, Mechanical Drafting, Heating and Air Conditioning,

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[1] Ibid.

[2] TWX RO 1245Z August 1971 "From CG USAONE Ft. Meade, Md. to CG Ft. Dix, N.J." Subject: "Expansion of Project Transition" with draft of reply, August 9, 1971.

and Arc Welding; each course having spaces for 51 trainees.

To fill all these training class spaces Transition counselors had available a pool of nearly 3,000 soldiers in any six month period. Out of this number about 500 would evidence an interest in and have the prerequisites for Transition training courses. A breakdown of participants in Transition for the quarter January 1, 1972 to March 31, 1972 follows:

FT. DIX TRANSITION PARTICIPATION REPORT
1 Jan. '72 to 31 Mar. '72

	Number Counseled Plan Number*				Number Trained Plan Number*			
	2	3	4	Total	2	3	4	Total
1. Total	2	1231	176	1409	0	179	75	254
2. Race								
White	1	930	127	1058	0	117	56	173
Negro	1	282	49	332	0	58	19	77
Other	0	19	0	19	0	4	0	4
3. Age								
Under 30	1	920	103	1024	0	134	40	174
30 and over	1	311	73	385	0	45	35	80
4. Education								
Non-HS Grad	0	90	12	102	0	10	6	16
High School	2	1141	164	1307	0	169	69	328
5. Combat Military Specialty Area One**	0	284	44	328	0	39	17	56
6. Number Completing GED Courses	0	15	2	17	0	13	1	14

*Plan 2--Drug Abuse Program
*Plan 3--Transition (Continental US)
*Plan 4--Skill Centers
**Area One: Infantry and Armor, Artillery and Missile Crewmen, and Combat Surveillance Personnel.

The Drug Abuse program mentioned in the above report is a radical departure from the old Army policy. Formerly all drug users who were discovered were immediately processed for discharge from the service, as soon as they completed a sentence in an Army Confinement Facility. No concern at all was evidenced for the addict's possible problems in civilian life, and the punitive nature of their discharge often made it impossible for them to obtain assistance from the Veterans' Administration. At present there are 2 drug counselors assigned to Transition and working closely with the men in the post stockade who are due for separation from service for drug abuse. They also maintain contact with the Veterans' Administration and in many cases try to closely coordinate the transfer of their clients to the care of a VA counselor. Every effort is made to assist these unfortunate soldiers in planning their life in the civilian world; obtaining jobs or training, and avoiding re-establishment of personal attitudes and living patterns which could lead them back on the "habit."

Fort Dix was a pioneer in a number of Transition training areas, including one which we might examine in detail, rather than merely listing its title. The College Discovery Program, sponsored originally by Staten Island Community College, City University of New York; and recently by Montclair (N.J.) State College, was first organized in late 1968. It is probably the most successful and beneficial

"confrontation" between the academic and military communities that has taken place in recent years. I must admit I personally had doubts as to the possibility of successful communication between bearded instructors in "hippy" garb and close-cropped combat veterans, but from interviews with both parties it seems that they are quite happy with the arrangement.

According to its brochure, College Discovery is designed to help the soldier prepare himself for transition from military to civilian academic life.[1] This is accomplished through course work and individual tutoring in a 384 hour program spread over twelve weeks. Classes are held Monday through Thursday from 1 P.M. to 9 P.M. and Friday from 1 P.M. to 5 P.M. This means that unlike most Transition participants, College Discovery students must put in four hours per night of their <u>own</u> time. Courses are offered in many different areas: writing, reading clinic, math, "black bag," philosophy, music, art, human relations, ecology, photography, Native American History, psychology, Swahili, Spanish, and "Third World." While none of these class titles would cause the slightest stir on a modern college campus, it is certain the reader will agree that they do not match the public's image of the Army. When one realizes the goal is to assist the soldier in sorting out the

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[1]College Discovery Brochure, "Who are you? Whereya Going?" (Ft. Dix, N.J., June, 1972).

impact of his military experience on his life, and to teach him to deal with this impact as it effects his relationships on an individual and group basis, in order to more easily transfer into civilian academic life, the rationale behind the courses becomes a bit clearer. Besides the formal classes. College Discovery provides "group awareness activities" to expand the students' knowledge of the society to which they will be returning. These have in the past included visits to the United Nations, African national dance groups, Fels Planetarium, recycling plants, and individual college trips, in addition to guest speakers and a variety of films.

To qualify for College Discovery a soldier must possess a high school diploma or equivalency and evidence a strong desire to attend college after his discharge. About one-third of those enrolled in the program have a "GED" high school equivalency, another third have a high school diploma, and the remainder have completed some college work, usually experiencing difficulty.

A typical week's schedule in one of the earlier Discovery cycles can be seen on the next page. Though not as full of experimental courses as present cycles, student comments both during and after the course were very favorable, especially from those students who were placed at Staten Island Community College and followed through their college careers.

IDENTITY '69
COLLEGE DISCOVERY
Ft. Dix - Staten Island
Community College

CLASS SCHEDULE

(COURSE TITLES AND SECTIONS)

8 Sept. - 14 Nov.
CYCLE II

TIME	Ft. Dix Class Location	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
Period I 1:00-2:00	1. Bldg. 3140 2. New Ed. Center 3. New Ed. Center	Reading - A Composition and 2A Literature - Social Science	Reading - A Syntax and Usage - 2A Social Science - B	Reading - A Composition and Literature - 2A Social Science - B	Reading - A Syntax and Usage - 2A Social Science - B	Reading - A Composition and Literature - 2A Social Science - B
Period II 2:00-3:00	1. Bldg. 3140 2. New Ed. Center 3. New Ed. Center	Reading - B Composition and 2B Literature- Algebra - 1A	Reading - B Syntax and Usage - 2B Modern Math - A	Reading - B Composition and Literature -2B Algebra - 1A	Reading Syntax and Usage Modern Math	Reading - B Composition and Literature - 2B Algebra - 1A
Period III 3:00-4:00	1. Bldg. 3140 2. New Ed. Center 3. New Ed. Centre 4. New Ed. Centre	Reading - C Composition 1B and Literature- Algebra - 2 B Social Science- A	Reading - C Syntax and Usage - 1B D Modern Math - Soc- ial Science- A	Reading - C Composition and Literature - 1B Algebra - 2B Social Science - A	Reading - C Syntax and Usage - 1B Modern Math - D Social Science - A	Reading - C Composition and Literature - 1B Algebra - 2B Social Science - A
Period IV 4:00-5:00	1. Bldg. 3140 2. New Ed. Center 3. New Ed. Center 4. New Ed. Center	Reading - D Composition 1A and Literature- Algebra - 1B Social Science - C	Reading - D Syntax and Usage - 1A B Modern Math - Soc- ial Science- C	Reading - D Composition and Literature - 1A Algebra - 1B Social Science - C	Reading - D Syntax and Usage - 1A Modern Math - B Social Science - C	Reading - D Composition and Literature - 1A Algebra - 1B Social Science - C

CLASS SCHEDULE (Continued)

TIME	Ft. Dix Class Location	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
Period V 6:00-7:00	1. Bldg. 3141 2. Bldg. 3143 (Testing Room) 3. Bldg. 3140	1. Algebra - 2A 2. Social Science - D	Individual Study Tutoring Counseling (Bldg. 3140)	(Bldg. 3141) 1. Algebra - 2A 2. Social Science - D (Bldg. 3143)	Individual Study Tutoring Counseling (Bldg. 3140)	(Bldg. 3141) 1. Algebra - 2A 2. Social Science - D (Bldg. 3143)
Period VI 7:00-8:00	1. Bldg. 3141 2. Bldg. 3140 3. Bldg. 3143	Individual Study Tutoring Counseling (Bldg. 3140)	(Bldg. 3143) 1. Modern Math - C 2. Social D Science (Bldg. 3140)	Individual Study Tutoring Counseling (Bldg. 3140)	(Bldg. 3143) 1. Modern Math - C 2. Social Science - D (Bldg. 3140)	
Period VII 8:00-9:00	1. Bldg. 3141 (Mon-Fri) 2. Bldg. 3143 (Mon-Wed-Fri) 3. Bldg. 3140 (Mon-Fri)	Individual Study Tutoring Counseling	Individual Study Tutoring Counseling	Individual Study Tutoring Counseling	Individual Study Tutoring Counseling	

One of the most important parts of College Discovery is the application phase--will the student make use of the three months of concentrated college prep work to which he has been exposed? To help provide a positive answer to this question, a College Discovery staff counselor is assigned to each student. He or she assists the student with correspondence to colleges, explaining unfamiliar matriculation and registration procedures. College programs are tentatively planned and major interest areas identified. Counselors arrange for transcripts and GED scores to be forwarded to college registrars and aid in the completion of application forms and early separation letters. When it is feasible, the counselors plan for college admissions officers and financial aid personnel to come visit the College Discovery classrooms and speak to the students.

All in all, an examination of the Discovery program seems to show positive accomplishments. In the past three years over 500 GI's have participated in an expansion of their educational horizons. Many of these soldiers had never considered attending college before the possibility was mentioned by a Transition counselor. A large percentage were minority group members from poverty backgrounds who benefited not only from the academic preparation, but also from the efforts of Discovery staff members to obtain scholarships, grants, and low interest loans for them.

Transition at Fort Dix has had the benefit of a number of positive factors: a location near two major metropolitan areas, New York and Philadelphia; a constant stream of eligible soldiers; excellent cooperation and non-interference from DOD Transition officers; and the support of private industry. In addition, and most important in making it a successful venture, there has been the continual enthusiasm of the staff, especially those dedicated key individuals who have remained through the last four years on a precarious series of ninety-day contracts. It is to be hoped that in the near future someone in authority at Department of the Army level makes the decision that Transition is here to stay, and that a few more staff members can be rewarded with the security of civil service status.

Indiantown Gap Military Reservation/New Cumberland Depot

The above two posts, located near Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, are typical examples of small special purpose Army installations. The first is sparsely populated during seven months of the year and bustling during the spring and summer with Reserve and National Guard troops engaged in annual two week training periods. The second is a supply depot mainly staffed by civilians. Both are served by the same Education Officer, whose duties include Transition counseling of servicemen. Because of the very small number

of individuals who fall in this category, one a month at maximum, formal training classes are out of the question. Isolation of Indiantown Gap precludes OJT, though such an option is a possibility for New Cumberland. In most cases, the Transition Program at these installations consists of vocational and academic counseling, assistance in obtaining a high school equivalency if needed, an explanation of veteran's benefits, and advice on agencies to which one can turn after separation from the service.[1]

Carlisle Barracks, Pennsylvania

Carlisle Barracks, Pennsylvania is the site of the Army War College and thus has a relatively small permanent staff. The Education Officer in recent years was also the post historian, so it can be imagined that calls for his services as Transition counselor took up only a small portion of his time. The few separating servicemen could make use of self-designed and education officer approved OJT programs, education center GED high school equivalency classes, and tuition assistance at nearby colleges.[2]

Oakdale Support Detachment, Pennsylvania

The Support Detachment at Oakdale, near Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania is another small garrison, this time with a

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[1]Author's Personal notes, Indiantown Gap Military Reservation visit, September 1, 1972.

[2]Author's personal notes, Carlisle Barracks, Pa. visits of March, 1970 and May, 1972.

"one woman" education center.[1] Again we must conclude that for a soldier to properly and fully benefit from the Transition Program he must be stationed on one of the major Army installations, preferably one of those chosen as the site of a skill center.

One problem created by the continued maintenance of large numbers of American troops overseas was the increased need for dependent education. Following the long established tradition, soldiers were permitted to bring their families with them to areas where no risk to the dependents lives was present. Or, following the still older tradition of the Roman legions in far-flung garrisons, the soldiers married women from the countries in which they were stationed and raised families there. Whichever was the case, the need for education of these children, as well as those of American civil service employees, whether of the Army or other governmental agencies, was early apparent. In October, 1946, amidst the rubble of war-ruined Germany, the Overseas Dependents' Schools system was founded by the Army occupation forces. Dealing primarily with the US Zone of occupied Germany, it was found that 1297 students were in need of education.[2] How was this to be accomplished? Previously, as we have established, Army

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[1]Author's personal notes, Oakdale Support Detachment, Pa., visit, August 15, 1972.

[2]Allen D. Olson, "Learning and Living Abroad," VFW Magazine, Vol. LIX (December, 1971), p. 22.

dependents were either sent to school in nearby communities, or, if the Army posts were too isolated, educated in schools financed by the post fund and utilizing the chaplain or an enlisted man as school master. In the European situation the use of local schools was for the most part ruled out due to problems with language. The expense involved in establishing a modern, adequate educational system also precluded the second traditional solution of relying on the post fund. In, addition, parental expectations of what constituted an "adequate" education no longer permitted the assignment of the chaplain or any stray enlisted man to the task. Since the problem was recognized as being one of importance, the Army Adjutant General was given responsibility for developing and operating the program.[1] Appropriated funds were to be the primary source of support for dependant schools, though the regulation provided that:

> In the event appropriated funds for this program are inadequate, they may, at the discretion of the commander concerned, be supplemented with non-appropriated funds in accordance with regulations pertaining thereto, if such funds are available. Charges against individual parents will be considered only as a last resort and will be held to a minimum.[2]

The schools were to be both elementary and secondary, encompassing grades one to twelve.[3] The teachers were civil

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[1] Army Regulation 350-950 (December 20, 1949), "Education and Training--Education of Dependents Program," p. 1.

[2] Ibid., p. 2.

[3] Ibid.

service personnel or were hired under contract to the Army. Some idea of the value placed on education for dependents can be seen in the position levels and pay rates for the teachers in the late 1940's.[1]

Civil Service Rating and Salary Scale	Position Title
GS-5 $3,100 to $4,225	Elementary or Secondary Teacher Dormitory Supervisor
GS-7 $3,825 to $4,575	Elementary or Secondary Teacher
GS-9 $4,600 to $5,350	Elementary or Secondary Principal with over 250 eligible students enrolled
GS-12 $6,400 to $7,400	Regional superintendent with five or more elementary or secondary schools with over 1700 dependents enrolled

In certain situations where it would be impossible or impractical to utilize American public or other English speaking schools, correspondence type schools were provided. The Extension Division of the University of Nebraska was especially recommended for its secondary education branch, while the Winnetha Extension School of Winnetha, Illinois was chosen for elementary level instruction.[2]

Dependent's education abroad was viewed as a separate responsibility of each service for its members

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[1] Special Regulation 350-950-1 (December 20, 1949), "Education and Training--Education of Dependents Program," pp. 7-8.

[2] Ibid., p. 3.

from the mid-forties until the MacNamara Era. In 1965 European dependent schools on installations of all three services were brought under the jurisdiction of the Army. Schools in the Pacific Area were taken over by the Air Force, while the Navy operated those in Bermuda, the Bahamas, the Azores, New Foundland, and Iceland.[1] With the consolidation in Europe came a new director for the United States Dependents' Schools European Area (USDESEA). Dr. Joseph A. Mason, formerly shcool superintendent for Skokie, Illinois, and former educational advisor to Uganda, was appointed in September, 1965. He immediately organized USDESEA into 7 districts and set up school level, district level, and directorate level curriculum review committees with classroom teachers, school administrators and curriculum supervisors properly represented. Each teacher and school thus has a voice in instructional material and textbook adoption.[2]

The USDESEA system under Mason has been quick to take advantage of the newer educational trends. Stuttgart High School and Karlsruhe Elementary School receive consultant services from Florida State University. Eleven of the larger high schools offer courses in computer education and data processing. Thirteen different languages are taught including Turkish, Danish, Norwegian, Arabic, and

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[1] Olson, "Learning and Living Abroad," op. cit., p. 22.

[2] Ibid., p. 23.

Amharic, but of course the most popular language at each school is dependent on the host country in which it is located.[1] The "learning contract approach" is utilized in some schools, spelling out for each student the individualized learning to be achieved, the resources to be used, and the evaluative processes to be followed during a given time in each subject. In the Butzbach Elementary School, in Germany every subject including physical education is taught around language experiences; reading, explaining, following directions, listening, speaking, and describing. For many of the children in this school and others English is a second language due to the fact that one-fourth of the children's mothers are foreign-born natives of the country in which the father is stationed.[2] Sports, tours, concerts, student forums, and folk festivals are all designed to promote joint American-host country activities for students and bring about better understanding on both sides.[3]

Probably the best example of international cooperation in the USDESEA is in the SHAPE school at the Supreme Headquarters, Allied Powers Europe in Belgium. Here are elementary units run by British, Canadian, Belgian, German, and American educators, and secondary units run by the above nations plus Greece, Norway, Turkey, Denmark, Italy,

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[1] Ibid., p. 22.

[2] Ibid., p.23.

[3] Ibid., pp. 22-23.

the Netherlands, France, and Luxemburg, all within a school enrolling over 2100 pupils in grades 1 through 12. Though each unit maintains its national identity many classes are open to students from all of the countries involved, especially courses in art and physical education. Extra curricular activities are also multinational, a two week ski trip to Switzerland for 6th graders from seven different countries being an example, and each national group delights in involving the others in its festivals and holiday plans; the Americans sponsor a Thanksgiving Dinner, the Belgians a mussels party, the Canadians a rodeo, and the Germans a "Faschings" dance.[1]

Besides sharing in the "beneficial" aspects of educational trends, USDESEA must deal with many of the problem areas, since its population is drawn from all fifty states and from diverse cultural and economic backgrounds. To promote better interracial understanding, for instance, Black studies programs are now in effect in over three dozen schools, while units of study on the cultures of Ghana, Kenya, and Ethiopa are being prepared.[2] Sex education, so controversial a subject in many school systems, has its place in the curriculum, with qualified teachers and the finest available course material combining to help the students on their road to becoming responsible adults.

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[1]Allen D. Olson, "U.S. Army: Schoolmaster in Europe," Army, Vol. XXII (January, 1972), p. 38.

[2]Ibid., p. 36.

The drug problem is being combatted in several ways.[1] First, through "Drug-Stop Training Institutes" for high school students, patterned on Phoenix,Arizona's model. Second, through a contract with Adelphi University to support drug abuse education by providing intensive training to teachers, counselors, and administrators in the field of drug use and abuse.[2]

Since 1965 the USDESEA has grown to the point where it is now the nation's 19th largest school system. It presently (1972) enrolls over 116,000 students in grades K through 12 in 217 separate schools on or near United States military stations in 14 countries of Western Europe, North Africa, and the Middle East. This is quite an expansion from October, 1946 when 38 elementary and 5 secondary schools were opened in occupied Germany to serve 1297 students.[3]

The planned return to an all volunteer army in 1973 after decades of reliance on the draft will present many challenges to the military establishment. With the new emphasis on professionalism must come the view on the part of the soldier that he is fulfilling a meaningful role; that what he is expected to do is important and that his efforts towards accomplishment of his career goals will be recognized

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[1] Ibid., p. 35.

[2] Ibid., p. 38.

[3] Olson, "Learning and Living Abroad," op. cit., p. 21.

and rewarded.[1]

Training and education are two important factors in developing this professionalism. In the new army, however, the existing distinction between training (DPT) and education (GED) must give way to a more unified, integrated approach to career development. No longer can the General Educational Development Program continue to hold a peripheral position, providing indirect support to career development through correspondence courses, group study, or tuition assisted enrollment in civilian schools. Instead, GED in cooperation with DPT should actively seek to institute credential producing programs, sponsored by colleges, vocational-technical schools, labor organizations and industrial and professional associations, which would curricularize the serviceman's career development. The result of this shift in focus of education would be:

a. More direct involvement of military commanders and supervisors in the education and training of their men.

b. Involvement of the individual serviceman in curriculum design and career development planning.

c. Increased motivation and productivity because of a new direct relationship between

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[1]The author is extremely grateful to Mr. Peter M. Montovani, Ft. Dix, Transition Director for the detailed explanation of his concept paper, Career Development Education and Training: A Volar Approach (Ft. Dix, New Jersey: mimeo, April, 1972), which was liberally utilized in this section.

education-training program achievement and job performance.

d. An ease of transition from military service to the civilian job sector at the end of any enlistment period due to the civilian credentials possessed by the serviceman.[1]

Experientially based education-training programs are not new. Equivalency exams, however, have usually been the traditional measures of non-academic learning experiences. Most of these tests are concerned with gauging the level of "knowledge," no matter how acquired, and determining whether it is equivalent to that of those who went to the formal institutional route. Lately though, a number of programs have been developed which are moving away from the equivalency or proficiency exam approach. Instead, they look more towards work/life experiences as a basis for curriculum design, and work/life performance as a criteria for credit award. One prominant example would be the state of New York's Regents External Degree program, which, although equivalency exam based, provides a special assessment process through which "portfolios" of work/life experiences are evaluated for credit award. Two colleges in New Jersey have developed special completely external work/life experiences oriented curriculums: Newark State

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[1]Montovani, ibid., p. 3.

College's Project NOW and Montclair State's MAT Program.[1] These latter institutions are of the type which would be solicited to support army career development plans.

Designing a credential producing program around a military career field must take into account three sets of needs: those of the military establishment, those of the service member, and those of the sponsoring institutions. An accommodation acceptable to all three can only be worked out if the army is seriously committed to accepting the challenges of today's educational needs. Since responsiveness to the needs of individuals have not been the hallmark of either of the above, both commitments carry with them a definite mandate for change. These changes, however, are not concerned with the basic aims or purposes of these institutions but, rather, deal with means by which these basic aims are achieved.

The number of army occupational areas for which credential producing education-training programs could be designed is limited only by the availability of institutional sponsorship. Even the Infantryman in today's complex army could be deemed eligible through his performance in instructional leadership, administration, and personnel management. It is likely though, that other occupational areas would be initially selected for any

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[1] Ibid., p. 4.

pilot programs. Two such areas, 7 and 9 are presented below together with their civilian credential objectives.[1]

OCCUPATIONAL AREA 7

Career Group	Skill Level 2 Obj.	4 Obj.	5 Obj.
71 Administration	AS	GS	MBA
72 Communications	Certificate	AS	BS
73 Finance	AS	BS	MBA
74 Data Processing	AS	BS	MBA
76 Supply	AS	AS	BS

OCCUPATIONAL AREA 9

91 Medical	Certificate/AS	AS/BS	BS
92 Laboratory Technician	Certificate/AS	AS/BS	BS
93 Technical Equipment Operator	Certificate/AS	AS/BS	BS
94 Food Service	Certificate/AS	AS/BS	BS/MHA
95 Law Enforcement	AS	BS	MS
96 General Intelligence	AS	BS	
97 Special Intelligence	AS	GS	

The soldier would follow the current career pattern through the existing Basic Combat Training-Advanced Individual Training/Combat Support Training or Basic Combat Training-On-The-Job Training Mechanisms. Approximately four months after the serviceman's entry into the army, and upon completion of his formal training or OJT, the proposed Career Development Education-Training Program (CDET) would pick him up. A CDET team, composed of a

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[1] Ibid., p. 6.

GED advisor, and a faculty member from the sponsoring institution would aid the serviceman in his exploration of his needs, interests, and aptitudes in relation to his Career Group and the other Career Groups within his occupational area. During this career exploration phase extensive use would be made of interest, aptitude, and personality assessment instruments, including, except where clearly inappropriate, the use of the College Level Examination Program (CLEP) exams for diagnostic purposes.

As a result of this exploration it is hoped that the serviceman will become familiar with the opportunities within his Career Group and will begin to form some tentative hypothesis relative to his own suitability for a career commitment. After a two month exploration, a preparatory career development phase will be entered for a period of six months to one year.

It is recognized that during the soldier's first year to a year and one half, few of his work experiences would be of enough significance to count toward the credential requirements of his CDET program. Also, few servicemen will be sufficiently well grounded in the basic learning skills to evidence much readiness for independent study. During this phase, then, he will concentrate on developing competencies in oral and written communications, in understanding concepts and applications of modern

mathematics; in learning basic research methodology; and in understanding the dynamics of human behavior.

Considerable freedom would be given the serviceman as to the manner in which he achieves competency in these areas. Among the means available are:

a. VA funded PREP programs.

b. Tuition assisted enrollment at colleges and community colleges offering extension programs.

c. The use of free or minimal fee enrollment in the group study and correspondence courses offered by the United States Armed Forces Institute.

d. Independent study.

e. Instructional TV.

Validation of the students achievement in the above areas would be accomplished through any combination of the following which would yield 30 semester hours credit:

a. CLEP achievement at the 25th percentile,

b. College transcripts of appropriate subjects with C or better grades,

c. USAFI subject examinations.

For evidence of the serviceman's basic research skills, the submission of a paper written during part of his preparatory work could be required, or the completion of a work related project that demanded some degree of research.[1]

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[1] Ibid., p. 9.

Upon completion of his 30 semester hour requirement the serviceman will be ready for admission into the CDET program. Now he will be offered an enlistment/re-enlistment package in the form of a Term of Enlistment Career Objective (TECO). This specifically defines the serviceman's career level objective within any enlistment period and prescribes the manner in which he may achieve it. Thus we have built into the CDET concept an attractive mechanism for recruitment, retention, follow through and evaluation.

Taking, as an example, a soldier in the 71 Career Group (Administration), we find the following TECO'S:

a. An Associate Degree for a three year re-enlistment. This would usually mean a short discharge at the end of a serviceman's preparatory phase followed by a re-enlistment for three years.

b. A Bachelor's Degree for a nine year re-enlistment at the end of the preparatory phase or a five year re-enlistment upon completion of the Associate Degree TECO.

c. Master of Business Administration for a four year re-enlistment upon completion of the Bachelor's Degree TECO.

It should be noted that admission into the CDET program would neither be automatic at the termination of the preparatory phase nor a requirement for all career minded

servicemen. If accepted by the serviceman as an alternative to the existing career development system, however, it would require him to extend his length of service commitment as outlined above.[1]

The CDET team (MOS Career Development Advisor, GED Advisor, and Institutional Faculty Advisor) in addition to advisement would have the responsibility for developing the basic curriculum design for each MOS related program. Curriculum blocks would be constructed which would assist the soldier in moving forward in his MOS and also in acquiring credit towards his degree. Each of these blocks, of six month duration, would contain specific learning objectives pertinent to both military and institutional requirements. They would also establish procedures for the measurement of progress toward the attainment of these objectives. Credit objectives for each block would vary from 6 to 9 semester hours.

An example of the first curriculum block for Military Occupational Specialty 71H, Personnel Specialist should serve to illustrate the differences between this and a more traditional program. In the college catalog the courses would be listed as: "Accounting I--3 semester hours"; and "Introduction to Business--3 semester hours." The learning objectives for these two courses under the

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[1] Ibid., p. 10.

CDET system, however, will not be the same as those found in the catalog. Instead the focus would be on an understanding of accounting theory and methodology and a general knowledge of the military/industrial establishment which would provide the soldier with the tools for effective personnel management. In a CDET course outline, then, these parts of the curriculum block might be entitled "Seminar in Accounting for Personnel Specialists," and "Seminar in Military/Industrial Organization." Through these seminars, work experiences relating to learning objectives could be planned; segments of correspondence and TV courses could be evaluated; and report assignments on various work activities and outside readings could be presented and critiqued. The serviceman would thus be afforded maximum flexibility in achieving his learning objectives.

The same general approach would apply for servicemen in other MOS Career Groups. For the MOS 92B, Medical Laboratory Specialist, the initial curriculum block might be as follows:

Orientation to Medical Technology--1 SH

Hematology--4 SH

Routine Analysis--1 SH

Blood Bank and Serology--3 SH

All four of these catalog courses would be integrated into a six month, nine semester hour block entitled seminar in Basic

Medical Technology" which would build upon the formal training provided by the Medical Field Service School at Fort Sam Houston.[1]

Progress towards achievement of learning objectives will be continuously evaluated, by the serviceman himself, by his peers and faculty advisor, and in conjunction with the MOS Career Development Advisor through the serviceman's immediate supervisor. Since the emphasis of this latter evaluation will be upon the application of learning to the actual job performance, the military supervisor's ratings become a significant part of the serviceman's grades, as awarded by the faculty advisor. Thus the CDET approach to curriculum design and achievement evaluations effectively tie the serviceman's career development to a relevant curriculum in a very direct way.

The flexibility of the CDET program would enable the individual to complete curriculum blocks in a shorter time than the full six months, if his evaluated performance would warrant it. A slightly longer period of time might be given the slow learner to reach acceptable performance levels, a six-month delay being permissible. The serviceman who exceeded the established lag period, however, would receive an unsatisfactory performance rating and no credit for that curriculum block. It is also likely that he would

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[1] Ibid., p. 12.

be removed from the CDET program and recommended for discharge from the service. Those who successfully complete curriculum block requirements, on the other hand, will receive course transcripts from the sponsoring institution, indicating grades achieved in the standard catalog courses rather than in the newly developed hybrids. Appropriate credentials would be awarded upon completion of all requirements, with eligibility for promotion to a higher skill level tied into such achievement. Specific levels of performance achievement and credit attainment will thus become overriding criteria for upward movement in a career field.[1]

One of the certainties in a service career is that of transfers in assignments, both within the continental United States and overseas. Since the soldier will make many moves, his CDET program must be designed to be able to follow him. This could be accomplished by having the sponsoring institution send a faculty member to the receiving installation or by contracting the services of an appropriate faculty member from the institution which conducts programs at that installation. Overseas, in Europe, for example the University of Maryland conducts an impressive list of courses at many widely separate bases. Within the United States most army posts, regardless of size, have developed a relationship with one or

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[1] Ibid., p. 15.

more colleges in their area. In addition to the use of faculties of institutions conducting programs at the new installation, it is likely that qualified military personnel would be considered for adjunct faculty positions. Eventually the graduates of master's level CDET programs could be used extensively in adjunct positions, especially in remote overseas stations and future combat zones.[1]

Funding for any new education program presents problems in these days of tightening purse strings. It is certain, therefore, the development of the CDET program will be subject to close scrutiny by the institutions whose assistance is requested. When they discover that CDET will pay for itself in the long run the college authorities will likely take a less jaundiced view than might initially be the case. It is anticipated that eventually the only significant cost to the sponsoring institution will be faculty support. All of the physical plant requirements and most of the administrative support can be furnished by the army. The servicemen themselves have the resources to pay their own way since existing Veterans Administration and army tuition assistance arrangements underwrite at least 75 per cent of the tuition costs. In significant numbers, then, the servicemen should present a formidable point of leverage for attracting institutional

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[1] Ibid., p. 16.

involvement, especially those like the University of Maryland, and the University of Nebraska which have had long term educational relationships with the army in other areas.

CDET funding requirements include the following:

a. Curriculum Development: Monies necessary to support the salaries and travel for the faculty and military curriculum specialists who design the curriculum blocks for each program.

b. Travel: Monies to support short term travel and per diem costs for faculty who must insure continuity of the serviceman's program subsequent to his transfer. This element should decline as the CDET program expands and service personnel are available to serve as adjunct faculty.

c. Tuition: Monies paid to the sponsoring institution by the army and serviceman.

d. Evaluation: Monies allocated for the design, conduct, and publication of evaluation studies.[1]

It is anticipated that funding for the above requirements will be sought from sources outside the Defense

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[1] Ibid., p. 18.

Department including Health, Education, and Welfare Department, Department of Labor, and private foundations.

If the Career Development Education and Training concept takes hold it will go a long way toward bridging the gap between military and the academic mind. It will force the army and civilian educators to work closely together on a continuous on-going project; instead of just on a crash program for a few months during a war as was the case with the Student Army Training Corps and the Specialized Training Units of World Wars I and II. The question at this time is, "Will CDET be supported by the army and the Defense Department as a whole." The answer appears to be yes, at least if the new Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense for Education Dr. M. Richard Rose can exert his influence for a long enough period. In a two-hour personal interview on June 14, 1972, Dr. Rose expressed agreement with many of the aspects of CDET and stated that he planned to work "from the top" through the US Commissioner of Education and the regional accrediting organizations. He also mentioned the possibility of setting up a fully accredited degree awarding Armed Forces University if cooperation with colleges at the installation level proved to be impractical.[1]

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[1]Author's personal notes, "Interview with Dr. M. Richard Rose, June 14, 1972."

It has been shown in this chapter that, because of the standards of achievement in the service, the Army education advisors have had to develop close ties with parts of the academic community; bringing college and university branches onto military posts and seeking to obtain accreditation for many of the courses offered by Army service schools.

Two other non-military education programs inaugurated in the 1960's have met with some success. Project 100,000, like similar programs in World Wars I and II, was designed to bring the illiterate recruit's education level up to a point where he could function as an effective soldier. When the need for a large scale draft vanished, as the Vietnam War drew to a close, so also did the need for Project 100,000. The Transition Program was not the first attempt to aid soldiers in their adjustment back to civilian life; the other wars in this century spawned Army training schools and "GI Bills" with this idea in mind. Its importance, however, lies both in its comprehensive attack on the problem and in its continuity; introduced in 1967 it continues to flourish. As Basic Combat Training has the recognized purpose of turning a civilian into a soldier, Transition has achieved acceptance as a necessary educational tool for at least partially reversing the process.

Looking to the future, it appears that non-military education in the Army will play an increasingly important

role. Proposals and pilot programs seek to bring civilian educational institutions into a closer relationship with the planners of Army training, providing the soldier with knowledge and skill readily transferable into the civilian economy. Work-study programs are being organized which will enable the career-oriented enlisted man to obtain collge degrees in business or technical areas, using structured Army job experiences, research papers, and seminars in lieu of formal classwork.

VI. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Though education of a non-military type did not play a major role in the United States Army until well into the Twentieth Century, we have seen that the Army was involved to some extent throughout the late Eighteenth and the Nineteenth Centuries. One example was the responsibility for "civilizing" the American Indian. During the years from the 1780's until the Mexican War, most efforts of the War Department in this regard were channeled through private missionary organizations. A second example, the Academy at West Point, served as a means for providing the growing civilian economy with engineers, in addition to filling the ranks of the regular officer corps. The main educational force within the Army itself in this period proved to be the chaplain. Though probably active in this capacity well before, the chaplains were required to serve as schoolmasters for the soldiers' children and the soldiers themselves by an 1838 statute. The "instruction of the enlisted men in the common English branches of education" remained a formal responsibility for chaplains until the end of World War I.[1] Their major work occurred during the Civil War, when they were engaged in setting up small

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[1] Regulations for the Army of the United States (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1917, para. 44).

literacy classes and lyceums for the troops, in addition to their ministering to the spiritual needs of the men. The post Civil War period featured a dynamic chaplain, George G. Mullins, in charge of education at the War Department level and exerting his efforts to promote literacy among the soldiers, especially those in the black regiments. This era also saw the rise and decline of the Freedmen's Bureau, a War Department agency for assisting the newly freed black slave in adapting to the problems posed by freedom. Attempts to achieve universal literacy met with great initial success, but political pressure from Southern whites eventually forced both Federal troops and the Bureau out of the former Confederate states. Educational programs for black soldiers continued, however, throughout the remaining years of the Nineteenth Century, fostered by an 1866 law.

The turn of the century brought with it an expansion of U.S. interest beyond its continental borders. It also brought a delegation of authority to the War Department to administer the civil affairs of the recently acquired insular territories, particularly Puerto Rico and the Philippines. School systems enrolling hundreds of thousands of children were established and the difficult task of promoting bilingual and bi-cultural schools was undertaken with Army supervision.

World War I drastically increased the size of the small peacetime army, and brought with it a host of

educational problems. First was the need to train vast numbers of technicians and specialists. This was partially solved by contracts with colleges and universities, as well as by the inauguration of a Student Army Training Corps. Education also came to play an important role in the life of the everyday soldier, with efforts being made to increase his literacy level, provide him with intellectual stimulation, and eliminate boredom. The last factor became especially important when the war ended ahead of schedule, leaving nearly two million "Doughboys" with nothing to do. An incredible number of academic and vocational training schools sprang up in the units and major commands overseas, giving constructive release to the soldiers' excess energy. Expanding on the educational base initiated by the YMCA, courses were conducted from the elementary to the college level, thousands of soldiers were treated to a free semester at famous British and French universities, and six thousand servicemen enrolled in the American Expeditionary Force University at Beaune, France.

The war presented still another problem, that of the wounded and disabled. Special educational programs were initiated to train and rehabilitate these unfortunate men, to return them to civilian life capable of earning at least as adequate a living as prior to their entry into military service. Surgeon-General William C. Gorgas ordered rehabilitation work to begin as soon as the wounded soldier sat up

in bed in France. Bedside occupational therapy gave way to training in a school or factory when the soldier was physically able. Upon release from the service, disabled veterans were transferred to a Federal Board for Vocational Education which further assisted in their adjustment by additional training as well as with disability payments. A Veterans' Bureau established shortly after World War I to aid the war-disabled veteran had its operations marred by financial scandal in the Harding administration era.

The Army attempted in the post-war period to incorporate a substantial program of vocational and basic academic education into its structure, under provisions of the 1916 National Defense Act. Any possibility of the military's functioning as the uplifter of the immigrant was soon eliminated, however, by congressional action reducing the Army's size and returning it to the status of a volunteer professional cadre. From 1922 until the buildup in early 1941, little evidence of Army non-military educational programs can be found. A major exception, though, was the Army's involvement in the operation of the Civilian Conservation Corps. In the eight year span of its existence, the CCC reached nearly 3-1/3 million men, usefully employing them in the national parks and forests, teaching them a trade in some cases, and affording them a varied off-duty education program, in addition to mandatory basic literacy classes for those needing such help.

The World War II buildup from 1/4 million to 8-1/4 million men provided, as had the previous war, the impetus and opportunity for major educational programs. The task was far too great for private organizations this time, and an Army-staffed Troop Information and Education Division was developed to plan and conduct educational activities at all levels. The "TI and E" officers were assisted in their efforts by the presence of the newly formed United States Armed Forces Institute, which served as the world's largest correspondence school, as well as a supplier of materials for group study in elementary, secondary, technical, and college subjects. The problem of providing skilled technicians and specialists was handled in a manner similar to that of World War I, utilizing the nation's colleges to train soldiers in the Army Specialized Training Program. Though in effect for a longer period than its WWI counterpart the SATC, it also was cut off abruptly, this time because of an urgent need for combat troops in Europe.

In order to mobilize an army of 8-1/4 million men, a way had to be found to make use of those who would normally be rejected: the illiterates, the non-English speaking, and the slow learners. Through Special Training Units, thousands of previously "4F" unacceptables were assisted to reach a higher educational level, and to become successful soldiers.

As the war drew to a close, two questions arose: "What are we to do with the millions of men in the

occupation forces?" and "What are we to do with these millions when they return home?" In answer to the first, the TI and E program was pushed ahead in high gear, recruiting every available soldier as an instructor or student. At least three large universities and a technical school were established in England, France, and Italy to satisfy the educational need of the "GI's" which could not be met through dividion level education programs. The extreme pressure on the home front for demobilization after the victory over fascism solved the first problem by eliminating large scale occupation forces. The second problem was only amplified by this action, however, though education was once again used as a partial solution. The "GI Bill's" educational provisions appealed to many more ex-servicemen than had been anticipated, and institutions of learning of every type were flooded for the next few years.

Unlike the post-World War I era, the decades after the Second World War have not been lacking in educational involvement by the military. Possibly because of cold war tensions and "police actions" requiring the maintenance of the selective service system and its short term draftees, the Army's General Educational Development Program has been steadily growing in importance. It has now become a primarily civil service staffed agency, the education center, serving the soldiers' educational needs by means of: high school equivalency classes; high school and college testing for

credit; off-duty academic and technical courses utilizing USAFI materials or the services of local cooperating colleges; academic counseling; and the latest development, the Transition Program. The latter, in effect since January 1968, assists the soldier in his last six months of military service in preparing for return to civilian life. This is accomplished through academic and vocational counseling, training, if necessary, in a saleable civilian skill or preparation for college, and placement in an appropriate job or educational institution upon separation from the service. Another major effort in the field of education has involved instruction for military dependents at American bases in Europe, resulting in the creation of the 19th largest US school system. A need for salvaging draft-age manpower for the Vietnam War sparked the development of Project 100,000, similar in purpose to the Special Training Units of World War I. For nearly five years in the late 60's, soldiers with low educational attainment were given intensive preparation in basic reading and mathematics before being sent into the normal combat training courses.

The attempt to return to an all volunteer Army by mid-1973 appears at this stage to create more opportunities for Army Education. With the emphasis on professionalism and the need for ever higher technical qualifications, more and more soldiers will be forced to return to the classroom if they expect promotion or even retention in the service.

Plans such as Career Development Education and Training (CDET) are proposing to assist the soldier in organizing his military career into learning blocks which can be equated with academic courses and made a part of a degree completion program. Proponents of this type of plan feel that a better trained soldier will emerge, with credentials capable of utilization in the civilian job market after the usual early military retirement. Whatever system is selected, it will require an increased amount of cooperation and understanding between the military and the academic communities over the long term and not, as in the past, just in a time of national emergency.

The basic conclusion we can draw from an examination of available sources is that Army involvement with non-military education has been continuous since the formal establishment of this country, though of relatively minor importance through most of the Nineteenth Century. Secondly, we have seen that such involvement reaches a peak during wartime, when the drafting of masses of citizens into the Army brings educational problems and the educators to solve them. The period immediately following a war can also bring Army involvement in education: The Freedmen's Bureau after the Civil War; the Philippine and Puerto Rican school systems after the Spanish-American War; the Americanization of immigrants and the Civilian Conservation Corps after WWI; and the "GI Bill" of World War II, Korea, and Vietnam. Third,

education by or in the Army has continuously been provided for those now called "the minorities"--the American Indian, the Black, the immigrant, the soldier in the Special Training Unit, and the Project 100,000 enlistee. Fourth, the War Department non-military education programs have often been provided directly through basically civilian organizations and personnel: the missionary societies to the Indians; the Freedmen's Bureau to the ex-slaves; the chaplain to the soldier, cadet, and dependent; the Philippine Commission; the YMCA in World War I; the Civilian Conservation Corps; universities in the WWI Specialized Training Program; the civilian-staffed army education center in the current era; and the proposed Career Development Education and Training (CDET) Program.

After reviewing this study, it should be rather apparent to the reader that no attempt was made to completely and definitively cover each sub-topic. Instead, it is hoped that enough on each subject has been presented to spark interest in further research, or at least to promote appreciation of the military's long term involvement with education. If the former is true, perhaps a few suggestions are in order. The War Department's responsibility for Indian education might be worthy of further investigation. The Freedmen's Bureau schools for ex-slaves are another promising area. The American Expeditionary Force University has only been given a cursory treatment here, and a great deal of

original source material lies undigested at the Military Historical Research Center, Carlisle, Pennsylvania. The history of Army education in World War II has yet to be written, though bits and pieces of draft manuscripts are available at the Office of the Chief of Military History. The last major subject, the Transition Program, has so many sub-areas that dissertation topics, especially of a statistical nature, could be found for candidates in every department of a School of Education. Whatever others choose to do, the author is looking forward with some enthusiasm to a continuing search through the dusty records of the past, with the certainty that more and more evidence of Army education programs will be uncovered.

APPENDIX

EARLY ORDERS AND REGULATIONS PERTAINING TO NON-MILITARY EDUCATION

1779

Gen. Von Steuben, Regulations for the Order and Discipline of the Troops of the United States (Philadelphia: Styney, 1779), p. 6.

"The Commanding Officer of each regiment is to be answerable for the general instruction of the regiment."

1821

General Regulations for the Army; or, Military Institutes (Philadelphia: M. Cary and Sons, 1821).

"5. For the exclusive privilege accorded to the sutler above, he shall be assessed, and held to pay at the end of every two months [to the post fund], or oftener, as may be determined by the council of administration hereinafter mentioned, at the rate of not less than ten cents and not more than fifteen cents per month for every officer and enlisted soldier serving at the post: the monthly average number of such persons to be determined, equitably, by the said council.

14. . . . The following are the objects to which the fund will be more immediately held pledged, and in the order in which they are mentioned. . . . 3d. The education of soldiers' children at the post school. 4th. The purchase of books, etc. for a library, one section of which, to be adapted to the wants of the enlisted men."

1835

Army Regulations for 1935, Article IX, Paragraph 3.

"Commanding generals of all regiments and corps ought to encourage, by every means within their power, all sorts of useful occupations and manly exercises and diversions among their men."

1838

General Order Number 29, (August 18, 1838).

"2. The Chaplain employed at any military post will be required to perform the duties of schoolmaster, under such regulations as may be established by the

council of administration, approved by the commanding officer. He will teach and instruct the children of the private soldier, as well as of the officer.

3. The compensation will not exceed $40 per month plus 4 rations per day, with fuel and quarters provided for a captain."

1847

General Regulations for the Army of the United States, 1847 (Washington: J. and S. Gideon, 1847), p. 51.

"261. . . . The following (exclusive of sums transferred to the regimental fund and to companies detached from the post,) are the objects to which the post fund shall be appropriated:

. . . 2. The education of soldiers' children at the post school, and the establishment of night schools for the instruction of music boys, and such uneducated soldiers as may be desirous of improvement.

. . . 3. The establishment of a library, and for newspapers; the number of the latter not to exceed two for a post garrisoned by a single company, and one per company at all other stations.

. . . . . .

1881

Regulations of the Army of the United States, 17th of February, 1881 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1881).

"537. The following (exclusive of sums transferred to the regimental fund) are to be objects to which the post fund shall be appropriated, and Councils will give them precedence in the order named:

1. Expenses of the bakehouse

2. Garden seeds and utensils (for all troops serving at the post).

3. Post Schools.

4. Post Library and reading-room.

5. Gymnasium. When the necessary material and labor are in the Post Quartermaster's Department, and can be spared from more important work, the necessary apparatus for the gymnasium and for such

games and exercises as the Council may consider desirable for the health and amusement of the soldiers at the post may be constructed by the Quartermaster's Department.

6. Chapel

7. For fruit and shade trees

8. For fruit-bearing vines and bushes

9. For printing press

538. The Quartermaster General will, under direction of the Secretary of War, procure and forward to the post librarian such periodicals and newspapers as his appropriation for incidental expenses can afford to pay for, or school banks in lieu of periodicals, when the post fund is not sufficient to supply them and the post does not desire periodicals. The periodicals, newspapers, and school books are intended for the use of the enlisted men, and must not be taken from the library or school-room. If used at all by officers it must be at a time when other duties prevent their use by enlisted men. Inspectors will report violations of this regulation. (G.O. 14, 1879; G.O. 23, 1880).

539. The necessary school books for soldiers and for soldiers' children will be purchased from the post fund, except in cases provided for in the foregoing paragraph. (G.O. 14, 1879).

. . . . . .

546. The necessary chairs, tables, desks, lamps, and book-shelves for post schools, libraries, reading-rooms, and chapels will be supplied by the Quartermaster's Department.

547. The Quartermaster's Department will furnish the fuel necessary for heating schools, libraries, reading-rooms, chapels, and gymnasiums.

548. Articles made or supplied by the Quartermaster's Department for post schools, reading-rooms, chapels, gymnasiums, etc., will be dropped from the returns of Quartermaster's Department, and accounted for by the Post Treasurers as post-fund property.

549. The necessary candles or oil--generally lard--for lighting the evening school, post library,

reading-room, and chapel, will be furnished by the Subsistence Department, on requisition approved by the post commander. Sperm-oil will be furnished in special cases, the necessity to be reported when requisitions are made. (G.O. 84, 1878; G.O. 51, 1879).

. . . . . .

557. The issue and use of volatile oils for illuminating purposes at military posts being prohibited by Regulations on account of danger from fire, they will not be purchased with Post or Company funds. (G.O. 55, 1877).

ARTICLE XLIII

POST SCHOOLS

558. Schools shall be established at all posts, garrisons, and permanent camps at which troops are stationed, in which the enlisted men may be instructed in the common English branches of education and especially in the history of the United States; and the Secretary of War may detail such officers and enlisted men as may be necessary to carry out this provision. It shall be the duty of the post or garrison commander to set apart a suit--able room or building for school and religious purposes.--(R.S. #1231).

559. The teachers and schools will be under the control of the post commander, or such officer as the post commander may designate.

560. School teachers will be detailed from the enlisted men of the Army. The number of teachers detailed will not exceed one for each company serving at the post.

561. At any post at which there are no soldiers suitable for detail as school teachers, application will be made to the Adjutant General of the Army by the post commander for the necessary number of teachers.

562. A soldier while serving as school teacher will receive extra-duty pay as over-seer (35 cents per day) from the Quartermaster's Department, not deducting for Saturdays and Sundays. (Sec. War, Mar. 21, 1879).

563. Soldiers while detailed as school teachers will attend such parades, inspections, and drills as, in the judgment of the post commander, are necessary to keep them well instructed in their company duties.

564. While it is left optional with soldiers whether to attend school or not, yet they are advised to avail themselves of the means afforded to improve themselves, and commanding officers will not only give them all possible opportunities, but advise and encourage them to use them.

565. The children of soldiers will be required to attend the post school for children, unless specially excused by the officer in charge of schools.

566. The children of citizens living near a post may be allowed to attend the post school for children. For the instruction given them they may be required, if able, to pay a small rate into the post fund.

567. Officers and citizens shall furnish the school books necessary for their own children.

568. The Post Council of Administration will decide whether it is advisable or practical to have separate schools for adults and children.

569. An officer will be detailed by the Secretary of War to visit and inspect regularly the various post schools. It will be made his duty to examine into the system of instruction; to advise commanders of posts of defects which he may discover, and to suggest methods of improvement; to endeavor to bring about uniformity in the methods of management and instruction, and to make known throughout the Army the best methods and systems in existence at any military post. He will report the results of his inspection fully to the War Department from time to time. His inspections will not dispense with or interfere with those of the Inspector Generals of the Army, but will be specifically and directly addressed to the schools alone.

570. The following rules, having given satisfactory results in practice, are suggested as a guide for post schools:

SCHOOL FOR CHILDREN OF OFFICERS AND ENLISTED MEN

Where there is no school-house, the school is organized by fitting up a comfortable room in the

headquarters building of the post, with desks, seats, blackboards, etc., detailing an intelligent enlisted man as teacher.

The text-books are furnished from the post library.

This school is under the direction of the commanding officer, assisted by the Post Adjutant and teacher--no other allowed to exercise control.

The attendance of officers' children is optional with the parents. The attendance of the children of enlisted men is compulsory.

Before coming to school all the children are required to be washed and cleanly dressed.

School hours: from 9:30 a.m. to 12 m.; from 1 to 3 p.m., each day--Saturdays and Sundays excepted.

Fifteen minutes before the stated school hour a call is sounded by the orderly bugler, at headquarters, when the children are assembled in the school-room, the roll called, and absentees reported. If proper excuses from parents are not sent, explaining absence of their children, the orderly at headquarters is dispatched to inform parents, requesting officers to send their children to the school-room, and requiring the enlisted parents to send their children to the school. Should an officer not send his children to the school, the post order organizing it requires him to keep his children from playing upon or making any noise on the parade ground during school hours.

The children are divided into classes, according to intelligence and progress in studies.

No favoritism is allowed toward children of officers.

The commanding officer's children attend the school, and are induced to set an example--in obedience to the teacher and in deportment generally.

Rewards and punishments, but not whipping, are allowed. The teacher has authority to inflict slight punishments--making the scholars sit face to the wall, stand in corner, and on occasions the "dunce-cap" may be introduced with good results.

As rewards, presents of books and toys--generally furnished by parents.

Should a child's behavior be bad, the teacher calls the Adjutant's attention to the same; if an officer's child, the Adjutant addresses a note to the parents, requesting correction and promise of future good conduct. Should this fail, the child is suspended for a week, and on a recurrence of bad behavior is expelled from the school.

In case the children belong to soldiers, the parents are sent for by the Adjutant, and instructions given to prevent a recurrence. The children of enlisted men are not expelled from school, but corrected, from time to time, until good behavior is secured.

SCHOOLS FOR SOLDIERS

If the command consists of white and colored troops, it necessitates two schools or two separate rooms. The teacher of the children's school may teach the white soldiers, and an assistant may be detailed from the white troops to teach the colored soldiers, in an adjoining room equally well fitted up, and as comfortable as the room used for the white soldiers.

The hours of this school vary with the seasons of the year.

Half hour after "retreat" the school-call for enlisted men may be sounded, when the scholars repair to their respective rooms for study and recitation, until first call for tattoo. They are allowed to take their textbooks to their quarters, for study during any spare houre they may have during the day.

The post commander should visit these schools daily, and note the progress of children and soldiers, and make suggestions to the teachers when necessary.

1881

General Order Number 38, Adjutant General's Office, Washington, April 27, 1881.

"By direction of the Secretary of War the following is published for the information of the army:

I. The following text-books will be used in post schools, and the expense of purchase, except as hereinafter provided, charged against the post fund:

Readers.--The Franklin Readers--seven volumes in the series.

Arithmetic.--Davies' Series--Primary, Intellectual, Practical, and University.

Writing.--Spencerian Copy Books; Charts of Writing and Theory of Penmanship.

Spellers.--Worcester's Spelling Books--Primary and Comprehensive.

History.--Swinton's Condensed History of the United States.

Geography.--Swinton's Geographies.

II. The Quartermaster General will procure and forward to each post librarian such periodicals as the appropriation for incidental expenses will permit; or the text-books above enumerated, in lieu of the periodicals, when the post fund has not the means to purchase them.

BY COMMAND OF GENERAL SHERMAN:

R. C. DRUM,
Adjutant General

1916

Compilation of General Orders, Circulars and Bulletins of the War Department (1881-1915) (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1916), p. 237.

"118. Post and Garrison school regulations.--

I. Post Schools

(a) For instruction in the common branches of education.

1. A school for the instruction of enlisted men in the common branches of education, and especially in the history of the United States, will be established at each post under such regulation as the department commander may prescribe. Instruction will be given under the supervision of officers by teachers detailed from the enlisted men. The number of teachers will not exceed 1 to every 15 pupils or fraction thereof.

2. Enrollment of enlisted men in schools for instruction in the common branches of education is not compulsory, but attendance after enrollment becomes a military duty."

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