

INTRODUCTION

OVERVIEW

The tremendous growth of population in frontier Wisconsin, from approximately 12,000 in 1836 when territorial status was achieved, to more than 300,000 fifteen years later, created a number of social problems. At the forefront of these was the issue of education.

Primary Schools

Prior to 1836 only eight or nine private elementary schools had been established in the area of present-day Wisconsin. These schools were supported entirely by private subscription. The territorial legislature exercised no control over them. They were community organized, maintained, and controlled (Patzner 1924:5). Among Yankee settlers, schools were commonly supported by informal cooperation before a district was organized. Organization often grew out of a desire to construct a schoolhouse, although this was frequently accomplished without formal taxation (Nesbit 1973:174).

Fully tax-supported schools were not created by the territorial legislature, but the concept of free public education did begin to gain adherents during the territorial period. A generous attitude toward public education was evident at both state constitutional conventions. It was felt that the public schools would be the most effective single instrument for the assimilation of immigrant children.

The state constitution provided for a system of free public schools, to be supported by local taxes, interest from a school fund created by the sale of public lands, and income from fines and forfeitures. School districts were created as the basic administrative units and a state superintendent of public instruction would supervise the system.

The school system created by the new state government was not much stronger than the territorial system it replaced. The 1848 school statute was such a jumble that the legislature, recognizing serious deficiencies, selected a three-man commission to codify and rationalize school law. Michael Frank, an important figure in Wisconsin educational history, chaired the revision commission, but was unable to achieve the reforms he considered necessary. In spite of Frank's efforts, individual school districts and boards retained their independence, fostering a spirit of localism and partisanship in school matters. In 1862 a new law forced these individual districts and boards to relinquish their authority to county superintendents (Nesbit 1973:229-230).

Prior to the Civil War the quality of Wisconsin's primary schools was generally poor. The independent districts went their own ways, and there were very few individuals involved in school affairs who could be considered professional, including teachers and administrators. Only a few communities like Southport (Kenosha) and Racine had schools comparable to those in the east.

During the early nineteenth century many private schools were established by particular immigrant groups, particularly the Germans and Scandinavians, and religious organizations, such as the Catholics and Lutherans. The Catholics, wherever possible, operated a complete school program through the grades. By 1893 they claimed 279 schools throughout the state, with over 44,000 students. The German Lutherans maintained a stronger commitment to parochial education than the Scandinavian Lutherans. The Wisconsin Synod (German) maintained 149 schools with over 9,000 students by 1893. The Missouri Synod (German) operated 107 schools with nearly 8,500 students, and seven other synods, including the Scandinavians, another 63 schools with a combined enrollment of approximately 2,500 students. (The figures on the Lutheran schools are rather ambiguous since many of them were only weekend or summer schools).

(Nesbit 1973:354).

The late nineteenth century witnessed an improvement in Wisconsin's educational system and the gradual expansion of state authority over education. This increasing state control did not go unchallenged by groups who preferred, for one reason or another, to keep control in the community or private hands.

Once the state government recognized the fact that education was essential to the well-being and progress of the state, it began to provide greater tax support and special aid for the public schools. It also recognized its duty to compel children to attend a school, either public or private, a specific number of days each year. To that end, compulsory attendance laws were placed in the statute books beginning in 1879 (Patzner 1924:vii).

That year the legislature passed a very modest law that required at least 12 weeks of schooling for all children between the ages of seven and 15. But the law was too weak to be effective, excusing non-attendance on the flimsiest of pretexts. Enforcement was left in the hands of each district board as well, making it virtually meaningless. There was no effective compulsory school law until the controversial Bennett Law of 1889. It required children between the ages of 7 and fourteen to attend some public or private school for at least 12 weeks in each school year, but also added that a school, in order to be legal within the terms prescribed, was required to give instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, and American history in the English language. This added requirement was hotly protested by both Catholic and Lutheran Germans and Lutheran Scandinavians. Ultimately the Bennett Law was repealed, only two years after its passage (Nesbit 1973:377-378). Later, less controversial compulsory attendance laws gradually increased the length of the school year to its present level.

Secondary Schools

Prior to 1848 the public schools were not "free" public schools, meaning schools entirely supported by public taxation. Instead, they were supported partly by public taxation and partly by private subscriptions and donations. In addition to the quasi-public schools there were numerous private elementary schools and approximately 60 private academies in the Wisconsin Territory.

These academies were usually privately operated, embodying a variety of organizational structures. Their primary purpose was to prepare young men and women for college, but they also attracted a number of students who were interested in additional education, with no express interest in higher education. Some of Wisconsin's finest academies were located in Beloit, Prairieville (Waukesha), Southport (Kenosha), and Platteville. Later, as interest in higher education began to develop, some of these academies became private colleges. For instance, Prairieville Academy became Carroll College, while Platteville Academy was transformed into the state's first normal school, the Platteville Normal School.

With the introduction of the free public school system in 1849, supported entirely by public taxation, the privately operated elementary schools began to decline in numbers. The academies, however, continued to flourish until the late 1800s when free public high schools began to be organized (Patzner 1924:81).

By 1873 approximately 30 Wisconsin cities provided some tax supported schooling beyond the eighth grade. After 1874 the movement for public high schools gained momentum, due in large part to the Michigan supreme court's Kalamazoo decision, which established the legality of using public funds to support high schools.

In 1875 the Wisconsin legislature provided for the organization of high schools. The law declared that any town, incorporated village, city, or school district might establish a high

school (or high schools) whenever a majority of voters approved the establishment of such a school. It also provided that two or more adjoining towns or districts might unite in establishing a high school. By 1880 there were more than 100 secondary school districts throughout the state.

Higher Education

By the middle of the nineteenth century numerous private colleges began to appear in Wisconsin. Not all of these newly established "colleges" and "universities," however, warranted the name. Wayland University (Beaver Dam), for instance, never developed into anything more than an academy, while Brockway College (later Ripon College), founded in 1850, did not develop into a true college until the 1860s. A few other colleges began with only a preparatory department and continued to enroll a majority of students in that department after adding a collegiate curriculum (Current 1976:170).

By the time Wisconsin achieved statehood, Beloit college was already operating as an institution of higher education, having been founded in 1847. It had been created and was supported by the Presbyterian-Congregational Convention of Wisconsin, and its main purpose was the training of Presbyterian and Congregational ministers.

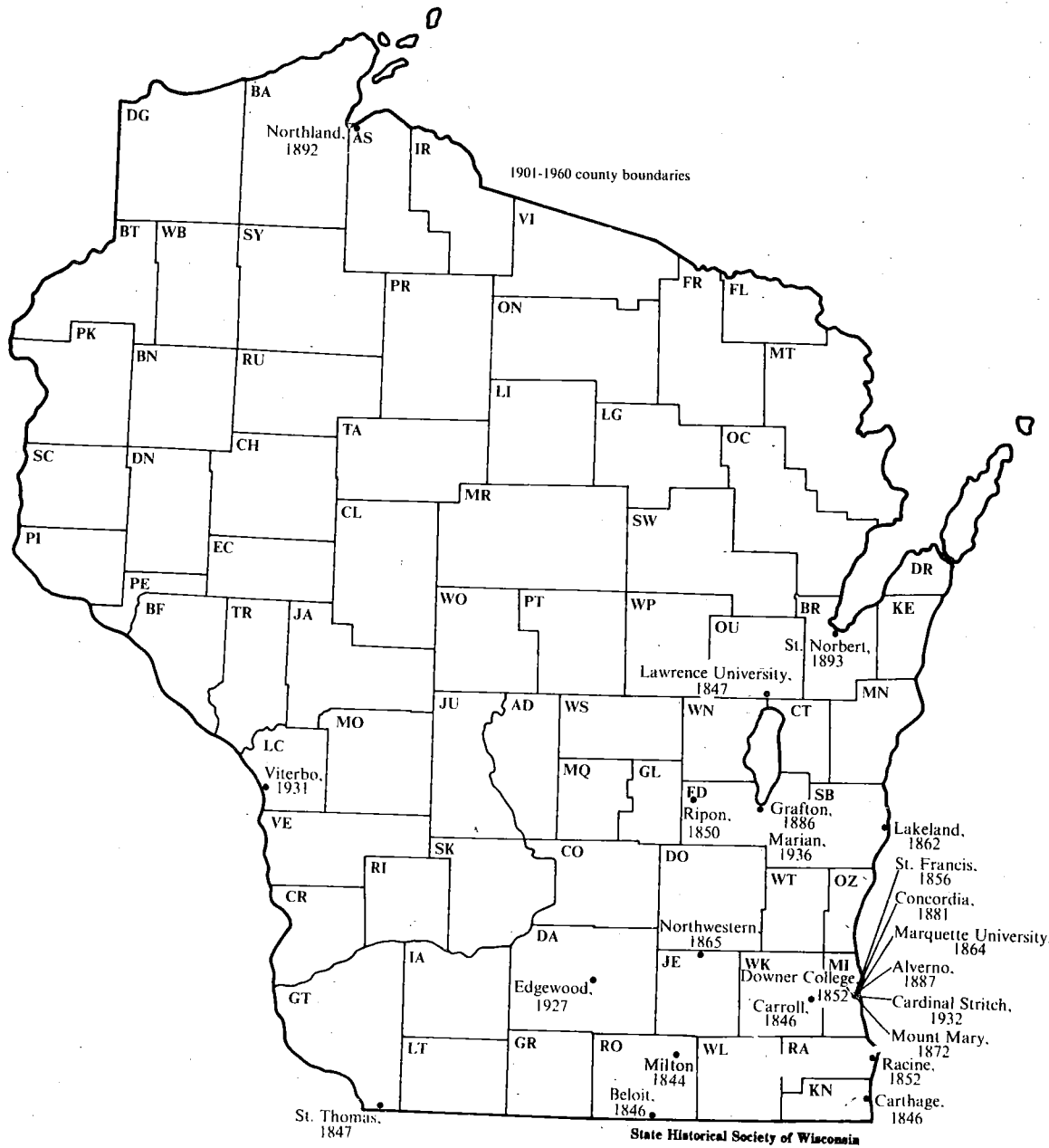
In the same year that Beloit College opened with five students, St. Thomas College began with 18. Founded by Father Samuel Mazzuchelli at Sinsinawa Mound in the southwestern corner of the state, the institution flourished during the 1850s. It was one of only two Roman Catholic institutions of higher education in Wisconsin during this period; the other was the St. Francis Seminary, established south of Milwaukee in 1856 for the training of priests.

A few months prior to statehood, Boston capitalist Amos Lawrence offered funds for the creation of a college in Wisconsin, which the Methodists of the state agreed to sponsor. Two landowners donated over 60 acres in Grand Chute (Appleton) on the condition that the school would be located there. The Lawrence University of Wisconsin began to offer preparatory studies in 1849 and college courses in 1854. It operated as the only co-educational college in the state until the late nineteenth century.

Racine College opened in 1852 under the auspices of the Wisconsin diocese of the Episcopal Church. It was established by Bishop Jackson Kemper, a pioneer Episcopal missionary and one of the founders in 1841 of the church's theological seminary, Nashotah House, the oldest institution of higher education in Wisconsin. The new college received its 90-acre site and contributions from the citizens of Racine. By 1857 it claimed 80 students.

The first women's college in the state, Milwaukee Female Seminary, was originally operated by the wife of that city's independent Free Congregational Church minister. The seminary soon came to the attention of the well-known educational reformer Catherine Beecher. In 1850 she visited Milwaukee and offered financial assistance for converting the school into a nondenominational college that would reflect her ideas of intellectual, physical, and vocational education adapted to the special needs of women. Her offer was accepted, and in 1852 the institution was reorganized as the Milwaukee Female College; in 1895 it became Milwaukee-Downer College (Current 1976:171-173).

PRIVATE COLLEGES



Major Wisconsin Private Colleges, 1846-1936

Source: Compiled by Kretzmann.

Numerous other private institutions were established in Wisconsin throughout the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, including both liberal arts colleges and technical and professional colleges. Some of the better known liberal arts colleges include Beloit College, Carroll College, Cardinal Stritch College, and Northland College. Included among the state's technical and professional colleges are the Medical College of Wisconsin (formerly the Marquette School of Medicine), the Milwaukee School of Engineering, and the Wisconsin Conservatory of Music (Wisconsin Legislative Reference Bureau 1985-1986:688).

These private institutions had their own special goals and purposes, in addition to their general aim of furthering higher education. The University of Wisconsin was slightly different in concept. It was established by the first state legislature in 1848 in accordance with the state constitution, and was intended as an inclusive, secular, democratic, and utilitarian as well as intellectual institution.

The university's board of regents began its organizational activities under the direction of Eleazer Root, the state's first superintendent of public instruction. It hired the first chancellor, John H. Lathrop, purchased a site for the campus, and arranged for the construction of the first building. In 1849, 20 boys enrolled in the university's preparatory department and began to attend classes in a room at the Madison Female Academy. A year later, the first college students met in the university's new hall, and in 1854 the first college class, consisting of two young men, was graduated.

By 1857 the university appeared to be financially secure, despite the fact it would receive no regular state support for nearly another 20 years. Two buildings, North Hall and South Hall were in use, and a third, later known as Bascom Hall, was under construction. Except for its prosperity and its aspirations, however, the University of Wisconsin as yet differed little from the private colleges in the state. University of Wisconsin professors, for example, generally taught the same types of classical courses, and taught them in the same way, using textbook recitations. Even its enrollment failed to distinguish it from its private counterparts. During this period the state university rarely numbered more than 300 students, most of them in the preparatory department. At the same time, Lawrence University at Appleton had an enrollment of over 400 (Current 1976:173-174).

After the Civil War, the University of Wisconsin began to expand and overshadow the private colleges in the state. The Morrill Act of 1862 gave Wisconsin a land grant, which the legislature accepted for the state university. In return, the university agreed to include agricultural and military subjects within its curriculum. In 1866 the University of Wisconsin completely reorganized, and in 1867 the legislature provided some financial support for the first time. This income provided new life to the university and helped lay the basis for a much greater future (Gara 1962:124).

Between 1875 and 1915 the University of Wisconsin was able to attract, and even more importantly, retain a number of distinguished scholars. Accordingly, by the mid-1890s the university was able to compete with such institutions as Harvard, Stanford, and the University of Chicago (Curti and Carstensen 1949:595).

Under the leadership of Charles R. Van Hise, the faculty was encouraged to serve the state as consultants to legislative committees, assistants in drafting laws, and members of various commissions. Professor John R. Commons, for example, helped draft the bill creating the Industrial Commission and later served as a member of the commission. T. S. Adams assisted in framing the state's income tax law and also served on the tax commission. There were many others. By 1912 approximately 50 faculty members had combined teaching at the university with expert service to the state, thus embodying the "Wisconsin Idea" (Gara 1962:200).

During the period of early statehood the legislature refused to establish normal schools for teacher training. Instead, it added a normal department, consisting of one part-time instructor, to the state university (Herrman 1971:32). In 1857, however, the legislature did set aside the proceeds from the sale of state-owned swamp lands for a normal school system. It consisted of already existing colleges, universities, and academies in the state that had established teacher training departments, and was governed by a Board of Regents of Normal Schools (Herrman 1971:50-51).

In 1865 the movement toward the development of state normal schools gained momentum when the Normal School Board of Regents began to accept proposals for donations of land, buildings, and money from communities throughout the state interested in establishing such schools. The rivalry between communities was intense, but Platteville ultimately became the site of the state's first normal school in 1866. Fifty years later the ninth and last state normal school was established in Eau Claire.

After their establishment the state normal schools experienced numerous transitions. In 1927 they became state teachers colleges; in 1951, when liberal arts programs were authorized, they were designated state colleges; in 1964 they were made state universities; and in 1971 they merged into the University of Wisconsin system (Wisconsin Legislative Reference Library 1970:475; 1971:142).

During the early decades of this century Wisconsin initiated a county normal school system, which developed as a result of the difficulties county superintendents had in securing well-trained teachers for rural schools. In 1899 the legislature responded to this deficiency by authorizing the establishment of county teachers' training schools. The act allowed the county board in any county in which a state normal school was not located to appropriate funds for the organization and maintenance of a county normal school for training teachers for public schools (Patzner 1924:176).

The first system of vocational, technical, and adult education in the country was established in Wisconsin in 1911. That year the state legislature created the State Board of Industrial Education. Its purpose was to provide part-time educational opportunities for youths and adults who were not enrolled in regular schools. Prior to this date, there had been various efforts to provide for industrial training. In 1907, for example, the legislature had passed a law permitting any city to maintain a trade school for persons 16 years old or older as part of its public school system and another permitting a city to establish a technical school or college under the control of the school board or of a special board.

As a result of the recommendation of Governor McGovern and an interim committee, the legislature took several actions. It created the State Board of Industrial Education, in 1911, created a position of assistant for industrial education in the state superintendent's office, provided for the establishment of local boards of industrial education, and appropriated aid for these schools.

In 1917 the composition of the state board was changed. It became authorized to employ a director of vocational education, who would replace the state superintendent as executive officer in directing the administration of the law. In 1937 the board was renamed the State Board of Vocational and Adult Education; in 1965 it became known as the State Board of Vocational, Technical, and Adult Education (Wisconsin Legislative Reference Bureau 1985-1986:486).

Libraries

Ancillary to the evolution of education within the state was the development of libraries and museums. Public libraries began to appear approximately a century ago. Their numbers grew dramatically between 1898 and 1919, when industrialist Andrew Carnegie

undertook his philanthropic support of them. Prior to that time most libraries were private, and usually located in homes of prominent citizens. In some cases, libraries were organized by local social organizations, such as the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) and the Women's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU), and various literary societies. The majority of these were subscription or membership libraries, generally accessible only to the well educated and well-to-do (Colson 1976:192).

The earliest lending libraries operated out of private homes, which were opened periodically for public or semi-public use. When these private collections grew too large they were often transferred to the town or city and housed in a room of a municipal or commercial building.

In 1872 the Wisconsin legislature passed the Library Act. It allowed towns and cities to establish tax-supported public libraries. However, many libraries established in the state during the late nineteenth century were built with private donations.

The Wisconsin Library Association and its successor, the Wisconsin Free Library Commission, were chiefly responsible for the establishment and improvement of the state's public libraries (McLeod 1968:27). Members of the commission, such as Lucie Stearns, James Stout, and Reuben Gold Thwaites, viewed libraries as particularly important to the intellectual and moral development of Wisconsin's youth and for the acculturation of vast numbers of immigrants who had settled in the state (WFLC 1904:1).

By 1922 there were 211 public libraries operating in Wisconsin, compared with only 28 in 1896 (Quaife 1924:428). A major factor behind this dramatic increase in libraries was the philanthropy of Andrew Carnegie, whose donations resulted in the construction of 64 libraries in Wisconsin and 1,679 throughout the United States (Babinski 1969:3).

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PROTECTION

Threats to Resources

The most serious threats to properties associated with primary, middle, and secondary education in the state include changing concepts in education and school district consolidation. The first of these is tied to a philosophy of education, as well as to the "image" that communities may want to project. As high school needs are discussed, administrators may favor demolition of the old school or altering it for middle school use. This often involves the destruction of both interior and exterior integrity. School boards also tend to focus on "new" and "modern" buildings. Older structures tend to be viewed as outmoded and to project an archaic educational system. This mentality poses a real threat to schools. Many administrators do not realize that it could be as economically feasible to rehabilitate an existing structure as to build a new one, and that an historic building can be an equal or greater asset as a new building.

School district consolidation was a product of government legislation and socio-economic changes during the post-World War II era. Rapid improvements in transportation made busing to centralized consolidated schools feasible. The teacher shortage precipitated by World War II and exacerbated by the post-war baby boom made it difficult for smaller school districts (particularly in rural areas) to find and keep qualified teachers. Furthermore, rising costs of modern educational methods strained the finances of smaller districts with limited tax bases. And finally, state and federal aid programs often tended to favor consolidated school districts because of the economy of scale involved with serving a larger number of children at one school. This consolidation resulted in the abandonment of many of Wisconsin's schools.

More recently the decrease in school populations has increased the threats of abandonment and demolition in many communities. Adding to these threats is the fact that, especially in smaller communities, adaptive uses for abandoned school buildings are not easily discerned. Thus, developers are not readily attracted to them, the community may not have an alternate use, and because of the expense of "moth-balling," particularly in colder climates, the schools are demolished.

Libraries, like other educational facilities, are threatened by changing attitudes toward educational needs and services. As library functions expanded to accommodate additional services and collections in the post-World War II era, many historic libraries were altered to provide additional space for these increased services. Sometimes these additions and alterations adversely effect the architectural integrity of the historic structure. Other communities, rather than buildings additions may decide to build new structures, often resulting in the demolition of the historic structure.

Communities sometimes attempt to project a certain "progressive image" to demonstrate their commitment to modern educational philosophies. Thus, some library boards may tend to focus on the "new" and "modern." In such cases, older buildings are generally viewed as archaic representatives of less enlightened times, too old, and too costly to maintain. Many administrators do not realize that in some cases it could be as economically feasible to rehabilitate an existing structure as to build a new one.

In other instances, the location of some libraries in or near Central Business Districts poses a threat to their survival. As the nature of the Central Business Districts has changed and as library needs and services have been reshaped, there is often a desire to relocate to other areas. Once a move has occurred, the abandoned structure is often demolished or so altered as to obliterate its original function.

Survey Priorities

Undertake a survey of one-room schoolhouses, approached on a county-wide or regional basis.

Undertake a survey of extant county normal schools on a state-wide basis.

Complete the survey of Carnegie libraries, already begun by the Historic Preservation Division.

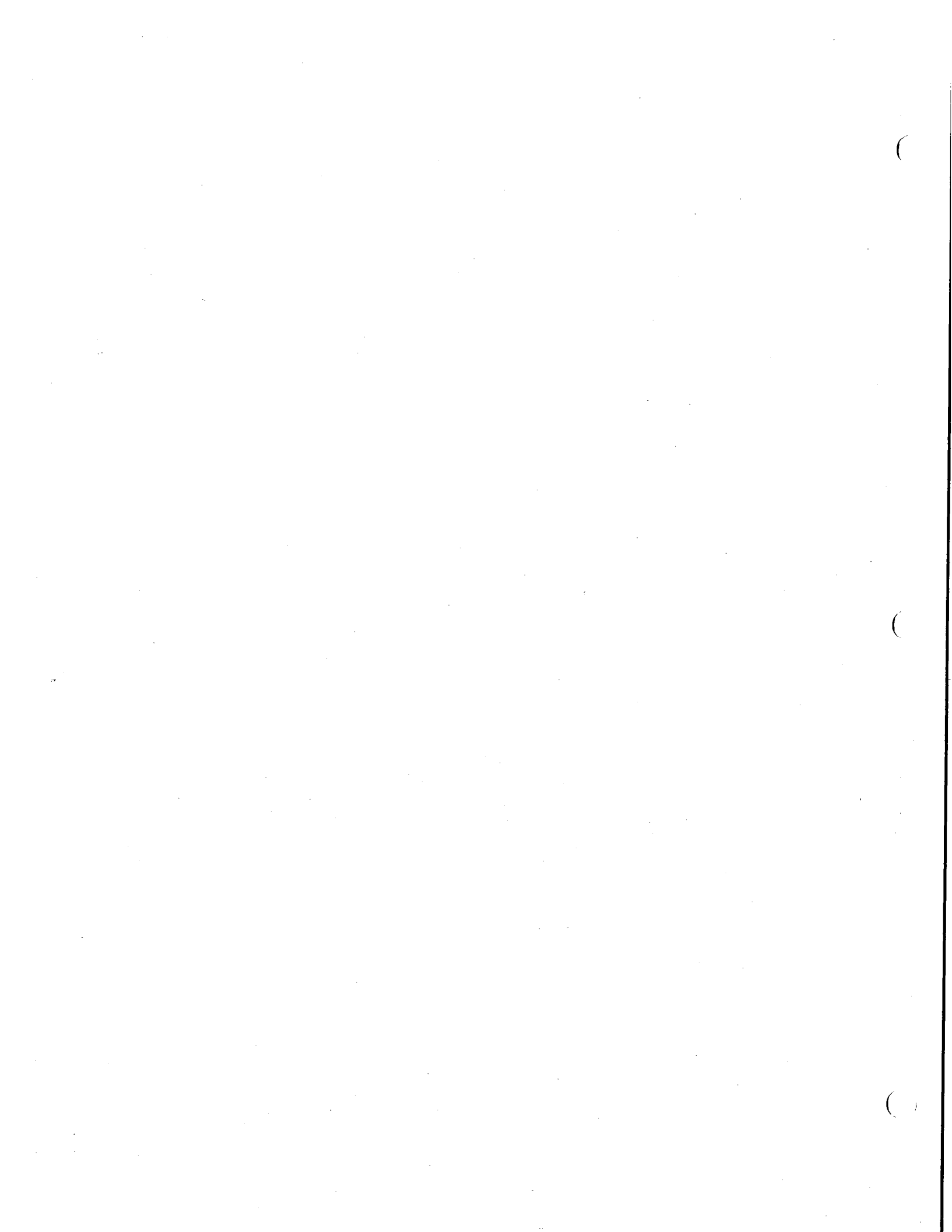
Registration Priorities

University of Wisconsin, Superior, to complete the registration of state normal school campuses.

Eligible county normal schools, as they are discovered.

Threatened eligible libraries, as they are discovered and if sufficient community interest is demonstrated.

Public library facilities, to design a thematic nomination as a prototype multiple property nomination and develop publicity materials on the effort.



PUBLIC PRIMARY EDUCATION

Temporal Boundaries: 1817-present.

Spatial Boundaries: Entire state.

Related Study Units: Public Secondary Education; Local Government

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Educational historians often trace the beginnings of public education in the Northwest Territories to the famous provisions of the Northwest Ordinances of 1785 and 1787 which proclaimed that "schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged," and set aside the sixteenth section of every township to be used for the support of public education. This land could only be rented until a region achieved statehood, after which it could be sold to create a state fund for school support. In many areas, including Wisconsin, rental of school lands proved difficult because of the abundance of available, cheap land. Therefore, these school lands did not play a role in the funding of education until Wisconsin became a state, at which time much of the land was sold.

Although far from our modern definition of a public school, the first community based educational effort in the state probably occurred in 1817 when nine citizens of Green Bay contracted with Thomas S. Jackson to teach 24 local children the "three R's" for a period of nine months. Payment was on a subscription basis; the parents of the scholars were charged six dollars per pupil per quarter (\$18 for the entire term). In 1821, the citizens and soldiers of Green Bay and Fort Howard banded together to erect a schoolhouse, and circumstantial evidence suggests that textbooks may have been provided free of charge (Jorgenson 1956:7-8). Similar arrangements for a community subscription school were made at about the same time in Prairie du Chien under the direction of Willard Keyes (Jorgenson 1956:12).

The territorial governments that had jurisdiction over Wisconsin did legislate some elementary educational policy. An 1833 act of the Michigan territorial legislature gave responsibility for local education to town officials and authorized school districts to use property taxes and other forms of funding to support education and build schools (Jorgenson 1956:17). (Two common forms of funding in this period were the rate-bill, a flat, per-child fee charged to parents who had children in community schools and the wood tax, a requirement that parents of school children contribute to the school's fuel supply in the winter). The Michigan law was carried over when the Wisconsin Territory was created in 1836. The law proved, however, an ineffective prod to public education in Wisconsin, due to both the vagueness of the law's provisions and to Wisconsin's sparse population. An 1836 census of the Wisconsin Territory turned up only 11,683 white people east of the Mississippi River (Anderson 1923:8).

For the rest of Wisconsin's history as part of the Michigan Territory, the record of educational development is sparse and haphazard. Prior to 1836 when the Wisconsin Territory was organized, approximately eight or nine private elementary schools were attended by some 240 children in the territory of Wisconsin. These schools were supported entirely by private subscriptions. As the population increased and new settlements emerged, many such private schools developed (Patzner 1924:5). One standard account claims that by 1836, there were community-sponsored schools in Mineral Point, Platteville, Milwaukee, Kenosha (then called Southport), Sheboygan, Waukesha (then called Prairieville), Janesville, and Racine (Jorgenson 1956:7-8). These towns at least

managed to maintain a relatively continuous school, with a building specifically designated for educational purposes. No doubt these schools represented a wide range of attendance and support policies, and it is certain that schooling waxed and waned in other Wisconsin towns depending on interest and circumstance. The chief characteristics of primary education during the territorial period were transience and variety. To the extent that education existed in the Wisconsin Territory prior to the 1840s, the impetus was largely local, coming primarily from newly settled easterners.

The legislative assembly passed the first general law relating to the organization of common or elementary schools in 1839. In actuality, it was a codification measure based on the school laws in force at that time in the Michigan Territory. The law was amended in 1840. In 1841, a comprehensive act embodying the laws of 1839 and 1840, together with many additions, was enacted. In 1843, another act amended the law of 1841 (Patzner 1924:7).

The act of 1841 created the county, town, and school district as subordinate units of the territory and delegated to these subdivisions powers regarding the organization and maintenance of schools. The 1841 law also declared that the town school commissioners could give advice and directions to the trustees and teachers concerning the government of the schools and the curriculums. In practice, however, the selection of subjects for the curriculum was left almost wholly to the teachers and the district boards; the town school commissioners rarely exercised the power given to them in this regard. Moreover, courses of study were rarely planned. When the textbooks were chosen, they constituted the course of study (Patzner 1924:65).

By 1840, Wisconsin's population had climbed to about 30,000, and the federal census reported 77 schools enrolling 1,937 pupils (Smith 1973:578). The census did not distinguish between primary and secondary schools, nor between public and private. Following the general population trends, most schools were located either in the lead mining region of southwestern Wisconsin or in the southeastern part of the state. The four counties reporting the greatest educational activity in 1840 were Racine, Iowa, Grant, and Milwaukee.

In 1892, Patrick Donnelly, who was a school principal for many years, wrote the following description of an early pioneer schoolhouse in Milwaukee:

The first schools were essentially primitive. The first teachers were persons who had come West with the tide of emigration, intending to build up their fortunes. The pay of teachers in those days was barely sufficient to purchase the necessaries of life. The schools were maintained by local self-imposed taxation or assessments. A crude log hut thirty feet long by twenty feet wide, with a door in one end, four small windows, two on each side, was the school house of the early days. There was a wooden floor, long benches placed along the side of the walls for the smaller children, and two or three small tables with benches for the more advanced pupils. The schoolmaster had a chair, a small pine table, a ruler, a penknife, a few old books, a small bottle of ink, and a quill pen. The larger pupils were provided with copy-books, slates, arithmetics and readers of various kinds, and the younger pupils with such specimens of primers, first readers or 'alphabet' cards as could then be found or extemporized. Classes there were none. The variety book supply rendered it impossible to have classes. Blackboards were not known as far west as Milwaukee. The schoolmaster was obliged to be his own janitor. Sometimes the patrons chopped the wood required, and sometimes the schoolmaster himself wielded the ax in the early morning. He attended to the firemaking and the sweeping, though occasionally he succeeded in securing the assistance of one of the larger boys in doing this work. There were no engraved headlines in the copy books in those days. The schoolmaster was expected to be able to 'set' a copy which was usually nearly as

perfect a specimen of writing as the engraved copies are now. After getting the house in order, the making of the pens, e.g., preparing the quills for use as pens, engaged his attention, and after this he wrote the copies. The owners of the copy books usually stood around the table in earnest, admiring groups. The disorderly boy was also in evidence. Hence there was an occasional interruption for the purpose of administering corporal punishment on the disorderly part. While the more advance pupils were writing, the younger pupils were coming up in single file to the master's chair, each to read or spell. Reading, writing, and arithmetic constituted the sum total of the course of study, except in rare instances, when an old map could be found and used for giving some desultory instruction in geography. That the children were taught to read, write, cipher, and spell, under such discouraging circumstances, was alike creditable to the schoolmaster's proficiency and to the pupil's scholarly earnestness. Gradually, the conditions improved, and commercial activity succeeded in bringing even to this far-west little village of Milwaukee, many of the school conveniences that were at first unknown (Patzer 1924:6).

In order to understand the rapid development of public elementary education in Wisconsin after 1840, one must keep in mind the national context in which it occurred. In June of 1837, Horace Mann was appointed to the secretaryship of the newly created Massachusetts state board of education, a position that carried with it a modest salary but little authority. As Lawrence Cremin has put it, "the most important single thing about the position, at least in retrospect, is that it had no power; for in the absence of power Mann was forced to rely on his wit. What followed during the twelve years of his incumbency was a statewide (and in time nationwide) campaign of public education about public education" (Cremin, 1980:136).

Horace Mann was but the most famous and prolific of the many advocates of free public education who pursued their cause in every section of the country. While specific details of their programs varied from reformer to reformer, the basic thrust was to make available to all white American children an adequate, relatively standardized, free primary education that would fit them for their roles as responsible citizens and workers. Most reformers included both boys and girls in their schemes (albeit usually recommending different curriculums for each sex), and a few even included blacks and Indians. The heart of the movement was the advocacy of the publicly financed "common school," but many plans called also for public secondary and even higher education.

The public primary school movement was a part of a trend that affected all of nineteenth century American society and that had particular resonance in Wisconsin in the 1840s and 1850s. On the one hand, the movement was just one of many reform movements that swept the country during the first half of the century. The 1840's were marked by rapid economic growth and diversification, increasing geographic mobility, and an astounding rate of population growth, due in large part to unprecedented levels of immigration. Middle class reformers, armed with an ideology based on Protestantism, Republicanism, and capitalism, sought to organize, rationalize, and make more efficient a wide variety of American institutions, from prisons to hospitals, from slavery to Sunday schools.

On the other hand, the public school movement was also a response to four specific conditions that seemed to demand educational reform. First, in an age when the franchise was being extended rapidly to include nearly all white adult males, universal literacy as a prerequisite for participation in the new economic activities. Second, the accelerating diversification and industrialization of the economy demanded literacy as a prerequisite for participation in the new economic activities. Third, the initial signs of class stratification in America made public education seem like a logical line of defense against permanent inequalities of opportunity. And finally, public education was viewed as a key element in the acculturation and assimilation of the waves of immigrants coming over in the 1840s

and 1850s, primarily from Ireland and Germany.

The early development of Wisconsin's public school system came, therefore, at a vital point in the development of the nation's attitudes towards education. The territorial legislature, the two constitutional conventions in 1846 and 1848, and the state legislature all grappled with the problem of creating a school system that would fulfill the purposes outlined above and simultaneously satisfy both local demands for popular control of the schools and financial practicality.

The national context of school reform affected these deliberations in two ways. First, although about one-third of Wisconsin's population was foreign born in 1850, most of the American born population had recently migrated from New England, New York, and Ohio. These states were the principal hotbeds of the common school movement in the 1840s, and undoubtedly many brought their ideals concerning education with them as part of their cultural baggage. Second, several prominent citizens, all transplanted Yankees or New Yorkers, took leadership of Wisconsin's public school movement and consciously sought to institutionalize the educational views of Mann and other eastern reformers. Thus, from the beginning, Wisconsin's public school system strongly reflected the national trend toward state mandated free public education for everyone.

The effects of these eastern influences are obvious from the first major revision of the old Michigan laws. The acts passed by the territorial legislature in 1839 and the 1840s embodied liberal ideas towards free public education but also set up confusing administrative structures which proved unworkable. The 1840 act stipulated that each town would elect three school commissioners who would organize schools and hire teachers for the community. But also gave county commissioners responsibility for levying a property tax of two and a half mills (.25 percent) and for erecting schoolhouses and paying teachers.

Opposition to this law was swift and widespread. The relatively high mandatory property tax, the increased authority of county officials at the expense of town and district officials, and the general vagueness about procedures caused most of the opposition. Petitions and letters from around the state after the enactment of the 1840 law convinced the legislature to pass the revised education statute of 1841. The new law clarified administrative procedures by clearly outlining the responsibilities of town and district officials. In addition, the 1841 law made the two-and-a-half mill county property tax discretionary and set a limit of \$200 on the amount school districts could raise through taxation for the erection of school buildings (although districts could--and many did--petition for exemption from this limitation). It also limited voting in school board elections to freeholders and tax payers (as opposed to the universal male suffrage of the previous law) and reauthorized the use of rate-bills to supplement tax revenues when necessary (Jorgenson 1956:24-24).

Clearly, the 1841 law constituted a setback for Wisconsin's public school reform advocates. It limited the financial resources available for education to a greater degree than the 1840 act and gave exclusive control over education to property owners and freeholders rather than to the community in general. Yet, these legal impediments failed to stem either the tide of common school reform or the spread of free public schools. Many school districts, particularly those in larger villages and towns, created community schools and levied taxes for their support, although most schools still depended to some degree on contributions of money and fuel from parents. In the early 1840s, Prairie du Chien, Madison, Green Bay, and Wauwatosa were among the communities that funded education primarily through taxation at the district level (Jorgenson 1956:43-44).

Whenever the story of Wisconsin public education is told, one man is consistently cited as the father of the public school system in Wisconsin: Michael Frank. Frank migrated to Wisconsin in 1839 from New York where he had been a school inspector in the state's

burgeoning public school system. He settled in Kenosha where he used the newspaper he owned and edited, the South Telegraph, as a tool to spread the gospel of free public education. In 1841, he organized an association of "Free School Friends" in Kenosha who acted self-consciously as public spirited watchdogs over the development of Wisconsin's educational system. In 1843, Frank was elected to the upper house of the territorial legislature, and he immediately pushed for passage of a bill establishing free schools for all Wisconsin children. The legislature repeatedly rejected Frank's territory-wide plan, but his advocacy clearly helped pave the way for the embodiment of a free school system in the 1848 state constitution.

Meanwhile, however, Frank managed to push a bill through the legislature in 1845 which permitted Kenosha to raise up to \$2,000 annually to build and maintain a free public school. Although the Kenosha school did not actually open until 1849, Frank's successful effort to circumvent the \$200 limitation on district taxes is generally recognized as the opening wedge for the coming wave of public schools. Between 1846 and 1848, approximately 53 other local districts received permission to levy property taxes sufficient to support free schools (Jorgenson 1956:31). Most of these districts were located in the most heavily settled areas of the territory (i.e., the southwestern corner and the southwestern mining region), and this era represents the first significant spurt of community sponsored school building.

Wisconsin citizens finally decided upon statehood in 1848. Michael Frank and other public school advocates were strong supporters of statehood, primarily because it would give Wisconsin full control over the public lands designated for support of education, including the power to sell those lands in order to create a state educational fund.

In 1846, Wisconsin held a constitutional convention, but the resulting document was soundly rejected by the voters, largely because of unpopular banking regulations. Nevertheless, the convention did hammer out an article on education which remained largely unchanged in the 1848 constitution. Henry Barnard, the superintendent of Connecticut schools in the nation, addressed the 1846 convention and stressed the importance of creating effective and inexpensive (or free) schools for all children. The article passed was a triumph for Barnard, Frank, and all other school reformers, for it provided for free, universal education supported by a state school fund and local taxes. The article also made Wisconsin the first state to provide a system of free, universal primary education. A staunch supporter of public education in Wisconsin, Eleazer Root, became the state's first superintendent of Public Instruction. Root also became a founder of Milwaukee's Carroll College.

Administratively, there have been five different levels of government involved in maintaining the state's system of elementary education: state, town, district, county, and city. Both the 1848 constitution and the first education bill passed by the state legislature in 1848 were concerned with three of these levels: state, district, and town. To administer the public primary school system, the constitution created the elective office of state superintendent of public education whose duties included inspecting all common schools, collecting educational statistics, apportioning income from the state school fund, and generally encouraging education. The state superintendent had little real power, however, and he was aided by no state board of education.

The highest school officials below the state superintendent were the elected town superintendents, one for each township in the state. Their duties initially included certifying teachers for the town's schools, inspecting schools, and distributing local tax monies among the districts.

Towns, in turn, were usually divided into a number of local districts, which were the most numerous and powerful administrative units until the 1960s. The three member elected district boards were empowered to hire teachers and establish policies for individual

schools. These two duties gave them firm control over educational policy in most of the state's elementary schools.

To most nineteenth century school reformers, the district system was the bane of enlightened educational policy, since it enhanced localism and arbitrary standards at the expense of centralized, standardized, bureaucratized management. As a result, state superintendents consistently sought ways of circumventing the districts by transferring authority to larger units of government. In 1852, Superintendent Azel P. Ladd was already complaining that the "desire to have a schoolhouse located near every man's door is becoming far too prevalent" (Jorgenson, 1956:100). Accordingly, in 1861, the legislature passed a bill creating the office of county superintendent, hoping thereby to provide districts with more immediate, centralized administration. The effect of the law, however, was merely to transfer some of the town superintendent's duties to the county level, leaving the autonomy of the local districts relatively unscathed.

The law of 1848 provided for one alternative to the local district. Incorporated villages and cities were permitted, at their own discretion, to hire a superintendent and unify the supervision of all schools within the municipality. In 1869, all townships were given the authority to create unified school systems, but very few took advantage of this provision. Nevertheless, by 1900 there were 49 town and city superintendents in the state in charge of 387 separate schoolhouses. (This compares with 6,855 schoolhouses under the direction of local districts in the same year) (Froehlich 1901:552-553). As Wisconsin's urban centers multiplied and grew, these city systems comprised an increasing share of the public educational system and served as models for the efficient management and standardization which professional school administrators hoped would eventually extend to the rural district schools as well.

At the time Wisconsin became a state, it was generally assumed that approximately two-thirds of the funding for public education would come from the state's school fund which would be created by both the sale and leasing of the township sections designated for support of education and by the sale of an additional 500,000 acres of land which the federal government customarily granted new states upon entering the union. (This land was usually designated for support of internal improvements, but Wisconsin successfully petitioned Congress to apply the funds to education). To supplement state funds, cities and towns were required to levy property taxes amounting to about one-half of the amount received from the state. Districts were allowed to levy local property taxes if state and town funds were not sufficient. Specifically, since districts were responsible for building or acquiring a suitable schoolhouse, they were permitted to levy a special tax for this purpose. Districts with fewer than 30 children (school aged children were defined by law as all residents between four and 20 years), were limited to 300 dollars for a building, while districts with between 30 and 50 children could raise 400 dollars. There was no limit on the amount districts with over 50 children could spend on a building.

The biggest miscalculation in the structure of funding Wisconsin's public schools was the anticipated income from the school fund. The township school sections, the 500,000 acre statehood land grant, and 238,891 additional acres of forfeited mortgage land which the federal government granted the state in 1849 comprised a total endowment of 1,705,622 acres (Dagget 1936:14). The lands were entrusted to a board of commissioners consisting of the Secretary of State, the State Treasurer and the Attorney General. Both contemporary observers and historians agree that, whether from lack of competence or attention, graft, or excessive eagerness to sell the land quickly, the lands were mismanaged. The school fund created was not nearly as large as it should have been. Instead of comprising two-thirds of the educational budget, as the early legislators had anticipated, the school fund accounted for only six percent of the 12 million dollars spent on education in 1875.

Despite this large disappointment, public primary education surged ahead on the strength

of the district system and local control. In concrete terms, after a mere dozen years of statehood, Wisconsin had 4,558 separate school districts which supervised a total of 4,211 schoolhouses. (Until the 1960s, there was always a number of districts in the state that did not operate schools) (Clark 1958:43). But lest one be left with the impression that Wisconsin produced a massive educational system virtually overnight, further details of the nature of these schools should be noted. As for building materials, 2,478 schoolhouses were made of frame; 1,357 of log; 204 of brick; and 172 of stone. Although the assessed values of the schools ranged from three cents to \$33,000, the average school was valued at \$309.50. Eight hundred and seventy-four schools had no blackboards, and 2,985 had no outline maps--the two basic visual aids of the nineteenth century (Wisconsin governor's message and accompanying documents, 1860-1861, part 7:5).

It is important to remember that there was usually a significant difference between city and village schools and the one room schools of the countryside. Generally, the former were larger, more substantial buildings that tended to be better equipped than rural schools, largely because of the broader tax base that supported city schools. For most of Wisconsin's history, the smaller rural schools far outnumbered the richer village and city schools. In 1923, for example, there were 6,475 one room schools in the state compared to only 555 schools that employed two or more teachers (Department of Public Instruction 1983-1984). There were, of course, some one room schools in villages, just as there were a few rural schools that employed more than one teacher. But in general, the one room schools were rural, and the larger schools were in the villages and cities. There are several descriptions of old schools in the memoirs and reminiscences of Wisconsinites. Mary D. Bradford who taught in Kenosha County's grade and high schools for many years and who also served as the superintendent of Kenosha's city schools from 1910 to 1921 wrote one of the most complete descriptions of a typical early one room school. The school she describes was a frame building erected in 1851 in rural Paris township, Kenosha County:

It was a frame structure of the usual size and form, and stood near the road facing south, just where it does now (in 1932). To keep the pupils from looking out of the windows when 'their eyes should be on their books,' the windows were placed so that only the teacher and the taller children when standing could see out, evidently a common building practice. In the middle of the room not far from the door stood the large, quadrangular box stove. At the opposite end of the room upon a small platform was the teacher's desk. Near the ceiling, stretching from the stove to the chimney back of the teacher's desk was the stovepipe, which in the winter furnished the assurance of warm heads, at least....There were three rows of desks, and Mr. Scott, a skillful carpenter, had fashioned good ones, with comfortable backs and shelves for books. The middle row was designed for the smaller children, and each seat would accommodate three or four of them. On each side of this middle row, separated by a narrow aisle, were seats for the older children, each designed for two, the boys sitting on one side of the room, the girls on the other....Across the entire end of the room behind the teacher's desk was a blackboard--literally that. In the front of the room, at the left of the door, was a bench for the water pail. The coats, cloaks, shawls, hoods, and caps were hung on nails at that end of the room, the girls using the right side and the boys the left, in proximity to the open water pail. Curtains or shades there were none (Bradford 1932:27-28).

For Wisconsin's first century of statehood, the small, locally controlled district reigned supreme. Educational instruction on these small schools varied considerably, depending on the ability of the teacher and the environment in which he or she taught. One teacher could be responsible for more than 100 students, between the ages of four and twenty, in one room. One rural schoolteacher reported in 1857 that he had 108 pupils in his school; another reported that he taught in 1878 with an enrollment of 110 (Jorgenson 1956:135-136). Many schools were ill-equipped, usually having only benches, made of planks, for seats. If the school had a blackboard, it was fortunate, still more so if it had

an outline map (Jorgenson 1956:137). In 1853, State Superintendent Azel P. Ladd reported that many schoolhouses were "mean murderous things. Often I have found them located in close proximity to a swamp or marsh, where the children, in the summer session, could recreate themselves by engaging in the two-fold and interesting employment of catching tadpoles and the fever and ague." (Clark 1958:11). The school year was divided into winter and summer terms. During the winter term, classes consisted mostly of older children, primarily boys, since there was less work to be done on farms and in villages at this time (Jorgenson 1956:138).

I classified some of the students, such as those in grammar and geography, but arithmetic, I let each one work alone... In those days, the plan of individual work was adopted for several studies, as well as for arithmetic...we were not limited to, or required to study, any book or science, provided the teacher employed could teach it, but every one selected his study and went at it with all the vigor he could rally (Jorgenson 1956:139).

One reason for such lack of organization was the diversity of textbooks in the classroom. In many cases, each child would bring to school whatever books the family happened to own. There were sometimes as many different textbooks in a schoolroom as there were children in attendance (Jorgenson 1956:140). Common topics of study included orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, and arithmetic. Children were also expected to be trained in Christian morality (Clark 1958:22). McGuffey's Reader and Webster's spellers often appeared in the typical schoolroom of the period (Clark 1958:11). Through the public primary education offered in Wisconsin in the nineteenth century, children were expected to learn at least to read a newspaper, compose a clear, legible paragraph, figure simple accounts, know enough about their country and neighborhood to be proud of them, and act according to a set of sound moral principles (Clark 1958:22).

Under such chaotic circumstances, many teachers would attempt to classify students as much as possible. Classification was sometimes based on the textbooks the children brought with them or on readers. A pupil might be in the "first reader grade" or the "second reader grade." If the preceding teacher had left any record of the students' progress, this would provide some guidance. In most cases, however, no such records existed. In one district in Manitowoc County, students were divided into A,B,C,D, and Fourth Reader classes. Few advanced to the fourth reader, but those who did were considered prepared to become teachers (Jorgenson 1956:141).

The kindergarten as a part of the elementary school system emerged in Wisconsin as early as 1872. In 1887, the legislature passed a law providing that school district boards, town boards of school directors, and boards of education might establish kindergartens in connection with the grades of the elementary school (Patzner 1924:72).

Even though important developments took place in both teacher training and higher levels of public education as the breadth and quality of instruction simultaneously increased, the basic structure of the public primary education system remained unchanged until the mid-twentieth century. Professional educators, state superintendents, and boards of education continually sought and sometimes implemented measures which standardized, bureaucratized, and centralized the statewide administrative apparatus. But the cherished goal of district consolidation remained largely unfulfilled.

Yet, two developments in primary education did have some impact on Wisconsin's schools. Until 1879, townships were required to provide schools for all children, but the children were not required to attend them. In that year, the legislature passed the state's first compulsory attendance law, requiring children between the ages of

seven and 15 to attend school for at least 12 weeks a year. But the law exempted children living more than two miles from a school, and it was not strictly enforced for other children either. Consequently, in 1889, the legislature enacted the infamous "Bennett Law" which similarly required an attendance of 12 weeks for all children between the ages of seven and 14, but it also provided for a fine for parents who failed to comply with the law. The most controversial aspect of the law, however, was the provision that instruction in all schools, parochial as well as public, be conducted in the English language. Both aspects of the law--the compulsory attendance and the mandatory use of English--offended German and Scandinavian groups who wished to maintain local control over such policies. In addition, farming families, which comprised much of Wisconsin's immigrant population, often wanted to keep older children at home to help with farm labor. Because of strong opposition from these groups, the law was repealed in 1891, and the 1879 law was reenacted. In 1903, the upper age limit was raised to sixteen for children who were not regularly employed, and in 1949, schooling became mandatory for sixteen year olds, whether or not they were employed (Clark, 1959:19-21).

The effects of these mandatory attendance laws are obvious: by 1900, almost all Wisconsin children within the stipulated age brackets came into contact with a school for at least some period of time every year. Thus, by that year, the educational system had reached every portion of the state, and the number of elementary schools began to level off at about 7,000.

The second development which had a direct impact on primary schools in the early twentieth century was the state's encouragement of "state graded" schools. The term "graded" school was generally used to refer to any school that had more than one room and therefore contained more than one grade of pupils. Professional educators thought that the chief evil of one room schools was that they did not allow for pupils of different ages and abilities to be taught in separate environments. The state legislature, therefore, passed an act in 1901 which provided special state aid to schools with more than one room. The act constituted a new development in public education in Wisconsin, since it provided state funding to regulate locally administered schools and thus comprised a shift away from local autonomy. In 1905, a second act established that schools enrolling more than 65 pupils had to provide an additional room and an additional teacher. These two laws had the net effect of encouraging and forcing at least a few districts (the number is uncertain) to remodel their schoolhouses. To this end, the state even provided sample plans to guide districts in their remodeling projects (Patzner 1925:119-120).

In the long run, the single trend that most profoundly altered the structure of public primary education and the distribution of schools was the consolidation movement. The number of school districts in Wisconsin peaked in the 1937-1938 school year when there were 7,777 separate administrative units in the state. By 1952-1953, the number had dropped to 4,905, and by 1962 it fell to 869. By 1967, there were fewer than 500 school districts, and in 1973, the number stabilized at about 435 (it was 433 in 1982). Accordingly, the number of one room schools, which stood at 6,181 in 1938, dropped to 3,242 in 1953 and to 156 in 1962. The last one room school closed its doors at the end of the 1969-1970 school year (Department of Public Instruction 1983-1984).

What accounts for the sudden dramatic success of a reform that professional educators had been advocating for nearly a century? The answer is complex, but there are clearly two types of causes for the change--legislative and socio-economic.

The legislative assault on the undersized local school district began in earnest in 1939 when the state superintendent was empowered to eliminate districts with assessed property valuations of less than \$100,000. Under this law, a few hundred

of the smallest districts were required to consolidate with larger districts. In 1947, the legislature set up special county and municipal school committees to study the prospects for school reorganization in their areas. Although the decisions of these committees were not binding, their recommendations did persuade many small districts that consolidation was in the best interests of their communities.

In the mid-1950s, the legislature finally eliminated districts which did not actually operate and maintain schools, wiping out about 1,000 useless administrative units. And finally, the 1950s and 1960s brought a series of state and federal funding programs which provided a variety of incentives for consolidation. These included programs for transportation to consolidated schools, textbook standardization, and school lunches, among others.

Even more compelling reasons for consolidation stemmed from general socio-economic changes in American society during and after World War II. Rapid improvements in communications and especially transportation helped people understand the possible advantages of giving up a measure of the control they had so jealously guarded for so long. The teacher shortage precipitated by World War II and greatly exacerbated by the post-war baby boom made it difficult or impossible for extremely small school districts to find qualified teachers. Furthermore, the constantly rising costs of modern education and up-to-date teaching methods put an increasing strain on the finances of small districts with limited tax bases. And finally, both state and federal aid programs, often unintentionally, tended to favor consolidated school districts because of the economies of scale involved with having a larger number of children served by one school.

In 1982, there were only 423 districts operating elementary schools in Wisconsin (although the number of school buildings was considerably larger). In addition, there were ten districts in the state that operated only high schools. A spurt of school building which left a lasting mark on the types of structures which now house elementary schools accompanied the rapid and dramatic consolidation movement of the 1950s and 1960. The cramped, one room schoolhouses with benches and high windows have completely given way to modern, multi-room edifices, usually surrounded by well-equipped playgrounds. But both the quaint, one room, musty place of the nineteenth century and the modern, sanitized, bureaucratized modern institution have served as the heart of the state's extensive and expanding system of public education. The evolutionary stages of that system undoubtedly deserve careful preservation.

IDENTIFICATION

Resource Types. Elementary school buildings and associated structures and sites, such as playgrounds. Some early public school classes were held in buildings other than schools (including church basements, private homes, commercial buildings).

Locational Pattern of Resource Types. Village, town, and city elementary schools are most likely to be centrally located, not in downtown commercial districts, but a few blocks removed in one of the central residential neighborhoods. Rural schools were placed just about anywhere a district could acquire cheap land, but were always located for accessibility. There does not seem to be a great tendency for schools to be located in the sixteenth sections of townships, although some do occur there.

Previous Surveys. No attempts to systematically survey Wisconsin's primary schools are known to have been undertaken. However, limited attempts to survey "one-room school houses" may have been undertaken by interested people.

Survey and Research Needs. More information is needed on the occurrence of one room schools in the state. At this point there is some uncertainty concerning the degree of threat to this obsolete school type.

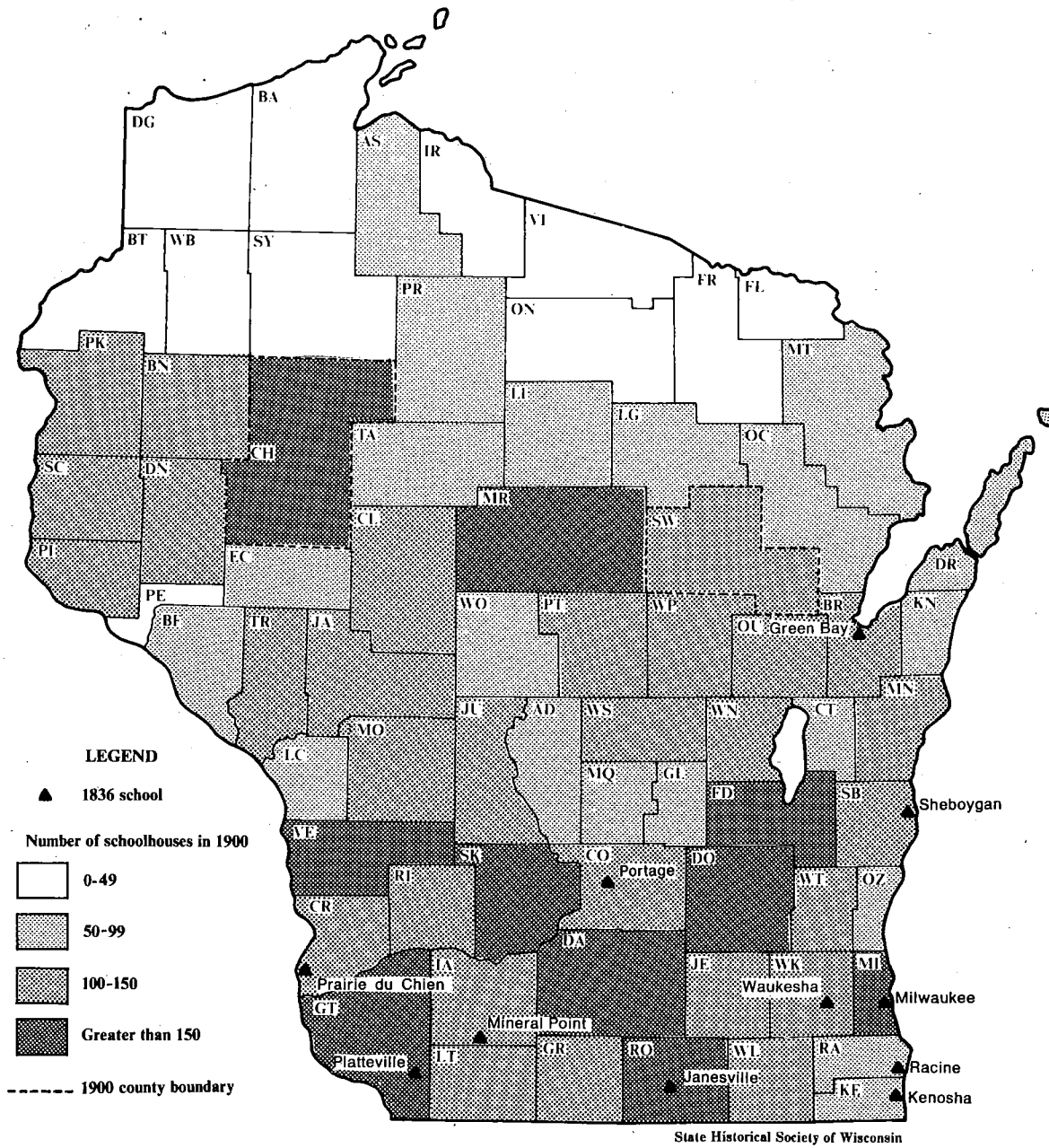
EVALUATION

National Register Listings and Determinations of Eligibility

- Beaser School (1899), 612 Beaser Ave., Ashland, Ashland County (NRHP 1980)
Ellis School (1900), 310 Stantz Ave., Ashland, Ashland County (NRHP 1980)
Wilmarth School (1895), 913 3rd Ave., West, Ashland, Ashland County (NRHP 1980)
Old Rock School (1858), S. Marquette Rd., Prairie du Chien, Crawford County (NRHP 1983)
Lincoln School (1915), 720 E. Gorham St., Madison, Dane County (NRHP 1980)
Randall School, 1802 Regent St., Madison, Dane County (NRHP 1982, University Hts. Historic District)
South School (1900), 1009 Summit Ave., Stoughton, Dane County (NRHP 1985)
White Limestone School (1857-58), N. Main St., Mayville, Dodge County (NRHP 1976)
Fern School/Town Hall (1921), Town of Fern, Florence County (NRHP 1981)
Little White Schoolhouse (1854), Blackburn and Blossom Sts., Ripon, Fond du Lac County (NRHP 1973)
Old Rock School (1853), 914 Bequette St., Dodgeville, Iowa County (NRHP 1978)
Smith Valley School (1887), Town of Medary, La Crosse County (NRHP 1981)
Fourth St. School (1890), 333 W. Galenda St., Milwaukee, Milwaukee County (NRHP 1984)
Washington School (1895), 818 W. Loraine St., Appleton, Outagamie County (NRHP 1984)
Niçolet Public School (1891), 109 E. 8th St., Kaukauna, Outagamie County (NRHP 1984)
Stony Hill School (1885; 1916; 1949), Town of Fredonia, Ozaukee County (NRHP 1976)
Frances Willard Schoolhouse (1853), Craig Ave., Janesville, Rock County (NRHP 1977)
Third Ward School (1876-77), 1208 S. 8th St., Sheboygan, Sheboygan County (NRHP 1981)
Ward District #3 Schoolhouse (1849), Old World Wisconsin, Town of Eagle, Waukesha County (NRHP 1981)

Context Considerations. With the movement for graded schools in the early twentieth century, some one room schools were divided into two or more rooms. These divisions are historically significant in their own right and usually will not affect integrity. Over the years many schools have been added to, including several of those already listed in the National Register. Additions should not infringe on the main facade and should not dominate or engulf the historic building. Ideally, additions will be low (one-story) and will be attached to the back of the school or recessed on one side. One room schoolhouses in particular should retain a high degree of integrity both inside and out to be eligible for the National Register.

PRIMARY EDUCATION



Primary Schools, 1836 and 1900

Source: *Wisconsin Blue Book*, 1901, pp. 552-553; Lloyd P. Jorgenson, *The Founding of Public Education in Wisconsin* (Madison, 1956), pp. 13-14.

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1923 "The Development of the Common Schools." In The Wisconsin Blue Book 1923, compiled by the State Printing Board. State Printer, Madison. Madison, Wis.

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- Bohn, Belle C.
1939 "Early Wisconsin School Teachers." Wisconsin Magazine of History 23(1):58-61.

A brief description of typical one room elementary educational practices, c.1870.
- Bradford, Mary D.
1932 Memoirs of Mary D. Bradford. The Antes Press, Evansville, WI.

Detailed memoirs and progressive educational ideas of a leading figure in Kenosha County education in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Useful as a portrait of a typical local reform-minded administrator.
- Callahan, John
1925 "The Common School, University, and Normal School Funds." In The Wisconsin Blue Book, 1925, compiled by the State Printing Board. State Printer, Madison..

Outlines of the murky histories of the squandered public land endowments for education in Wisconsin.
- Clark, James I.
1958 Education in Wisconsin: An Historical Sketch. The State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison, WI.

A concise and useful summary of the development and status of all levels of Wisconsin education in 1958. A good overview, though it lacks detail.
- Cremin, Lawrence R.
1980 American Education: The National Experience. Harper and Row, New York.

An adequate source for an overview of the American educational system - discusses how education changed during the nineteenth century.
- Current, Richard N.
1976 The History of Wisconsin (vol. 2): The Civil War Era, 1848-1873. The State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison.

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1936 Education in Wisconsin. The Whitewater Press, Whitewater, WI.

A collection of 17 articles, the first two of which deal directly with the history of Wisconsin's educational system but do not contain unusual material. The rest of the articles deal with descriptions of and recommendations for the reform of the school system in 1936.

Department of Public Instruction

1983- "Wisconsin School District, 1848-1982." Table in The Wisconsin

1984 Blue Book, 1983-1984, compiled by Wisconsin Legislative Reference Bureau, State Printer, Madison.

Fitzpatrick, Edward A.

1923 "Wisconsin's State Educational System." In The Wisconsin Blue Book, 1923, compiled by the State Printing Board, State Printer, Madison.

Comprehensive 1923 capsule of the public school system, from elementary schools through the university, emphasizing statistics and administrative structure.

Flower, Elliot

1918 "Light on Early Educational Conditions in Madison." Wisconsin Magazine of History 2(1):105-106.

Froehlich, William H., comp.

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Henderson, Harold L.

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Often cited by educational historians as the type of study that we need for all states, this book is the best study (albeit, 30 years old) of the public education movement in nineteenth century Wisconsin.

Nesbit, Robert C.

1973 Wisconsin: A History. University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, WI.

Brief sketches of the high points of educational history encased in a readable historical context.

Patzer, Conrad E.

1924 Public Education in Wisconsin. Madison, WI.

Patzer, a supervisor at the State Normal School in Milwaukee, had some axes to grind in terms of reorganizing teacher training in the state, but the first section of this long volume contains a good deal of information about the formation of the public system at all levels.

Raney, William Raney

1940 Wisconsin: A Story of Progress. Prentice Hall, New York.

In a boosterish way, this chapter on education contains much of the same information on the origins of the public school system as most of the other standard accounts and mentions nothing about private education.

Schafer, Joseph

1925 "Origins of Wisconsin's Free School System." Wisconsin Magazine of History 9(1):27-46.

Detailed story of the origins of the first public schools in Wisconsin, with emphasis on the role of Eastern reform thinking in shaping Wisconsin's attitude toward free education. Repeats stories of Michael Frank in Kenosha, Henry Barnard at the Constitutional Convention, etc.

Smith, Alice E.

1973 The History of Wisconsin (vol. 1): From Exploration to Statehood. The State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison.

Very useful for putting education into context in Wisconsin.

Stearns, John W., ed.

1893 The Columbian History of Education in Wisconsin. The Evening Wisconsin Company, Milwaukee.

Prepared for the Columbian Exhibition in Chicago, this is a boosterish, detailed, and encyclopedic compilation of information about nineteenth century education in Wisconsin, including some articles about private education.

Thwaites, Reuben G.

1892 Collections of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin, vol. 12. State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison.

See "Early Schools in Green Bay" by Clay J. Dagget.

1896 History of the Public Schools of Madison, Wisconsin. Madison, WI.

Perhaps the best local historical survey of the public school system of one community. Short but detailed.

Additional useful information is contained in various volumes of The Wisconsin Blue Book. More detailed versions of the same information can often be found in contemporaneous volumes of Wisconsin Public Documents, which contain the annual reports of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

PUBLIC SECONDARY EDUCATION

Temporal Boundaries: 1839 to the present.

Spatial Boundaries: Entire state.

Related Study Units: Public Primary Education.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Concern for education in nineteenth century Wisconsin and the United States arose as a result of a variety of factors. The rapid spread of voting rights to all adult white males, the rising tides of immigration from Germany and Ireland, the rapid industrialization and mechanization of the American economy, and the threat of the formation of permanent social classes in America all pointed to the need for a democratic, free, universal system of education which could insure a citizenry possessed of the minimum tools of literacy and the "American" ideals. All of these concerns motivated the creation of public school systems in Wisconsin and in many other states.

But prior to 1848, schools in Wisconsin were, with few exceptions, elementary schools, of the one-room-teacher type which taught a collection of children, varying in age from five to 18 years. Little effort was made to properly grade these students. The course of study was limited to reading, writing, spelling, grammar, and arithmetic. Occasionally an ambitious eastern college man who happened to be teaching such a school included Latin or algebra in the course of study, but the many recitations required by the regular work precluded devoting much time to such advanced subjects. At this time, even though the schools were called public schools, they were not supported entirely by public taxation. They were funded partly by public taxation and partly by private subscriptions and donations (Patzer 1924:79).

In general, in the period directly after Wisconsin achieved statehood educators concentrated their efforts primarily on establishing a system of public primary education and a state university (Schafer 1926:140). By the time Wisconsin became a state, educational reformers throughout the country had embraced the idea that colleges and universities should be accessible to academically talented youths no matter what their parents' income or place of residence. Thus, Congress granted states a substantial land grant for the purpose of supporting a state university, and the creation of such an institution was mandated in a separate paragraph in the education article of the state constitution of 1848. All educators recognized the need for college-bound students to receive some additional training beyond the "three R's" offered in the primary schools, which were equivalent to grades one through eight. But "secondary education," as it came to be called, did not seem to be a matter of urgent public concern at this point. Accordingly, Wisconsin's constitution gave clear priority to the elementary level of education in the use of the state school fund.

In the United States, two types of institutions historically bridged the gap between primary and higher education. The older of the two was the so-called "grammar school," which dominated colonial secondary education and was patterned after the typical English preparatory institution. The first grammar school in the colonies was the Boston Latin School, a private school founded in 1635 to prepare young men for Harvard College (Schafer 1926:126). Grammar schools such as this one placed very heavy emphasis on the Greek and Latin languages and on the classics written in those languages. These subjects were usually taught by extremely tedious methods of memorization and recitation. In the colonial period, grammar schools were usually privately operated

institutions of vastly varying quality. Most were closed to girls, since it was generally held that female minds were not suited to the rigors of classical education. Moreover, women could not attend college, making grammar school unnecessary for them.

By the time that a need for secondary education was perceived in Wisconsin, the age of the grammar school had largely passed. A second type of institution, usually labeled the "academy" was the most common avenue through which students could obtain additional education after elementary school. In the late eighteenth century, a few enlightened educators saw the need for institutions of secondary education which would be available to young people who were not necessarily college-bound. Furthermore, the classical education offered in the grammar school began to seem antiquated and of questionable practical value. The term "academy" was used to describe a wide spectrum of schools, distinguished principally by their differences from grammar schools. In contrast to grammar schools, academies placed a greater emphasis on modern languages, mathematics, literature, and modern history (as opposed to ancient history). Academies were in no sense vocational schools, but most of them did recognize that many of their students would not go on to college. Accordingly, their curriculums tended to be oriented toward subjects that were thought to be broadly edifying and of value for well-rounded citizens. Benjamin Franklin is usually credited with having founded the first academy in America, at Philadelphia in 1751. (This school later developed into the University of Pennsylvania.) The heyday of the academy in America came after the Revolution, when a few eastern schools like Phillips Academy at Andover, Massachusetts, founded in 1788, gained reputations for academic rigor and social exclusivity. A few academies began accepting girls in the late eighteenth century, but widespread co-education did not come until well into the nineteenth century.

Academies, like grammar schools, were usually privately controlled institutions embodying a variety of organizational structures. Some were run by individual entrepreneurs attempting to parlay a college education into a profitable enterprise. Others were established by groups of education-minded citizens who may or may not have incorporated their schools with the state. Still others (those closest to what one might call "public" schools) were created at the behest of the concerned citizens of a particular community who wished to expand the local educational options available to their children. And finally, some academies were founded by religious denominations in order to provide parish youth with an opportunity for Christian-oriented secondary education.

When Wisconsin was settled, private academies emerged as the primary institutions for secondary education. By 1839, academies existed in Southport (later Kenosha), Beloit, Prairieville, Platteville, and Mineral Point, among other places. In 1846, Prairieville Academy became Carroll College, and Beloit Academy became Beloit College. (Patzner 1924:4). When the public systems of primary and normal schools and the university began to develop in the 1840s, little attention was paid to public secondary education. It was assumed that private academies would continue to furnish such education for those who desired it. Platteville Academy was the first academy in the state to develop a full secondary education. (Academies also provided instruction for primary school teachers. See Normal schools study unit).

Massachusetts led the way in the national movement for public secondary education, as it had with primary education. That state passed a law in 1827 requiring all communities of 500 or more families to maintain schools that taught advanced subjects, such as United States history, bookkeeping, surveying, geometry and algebra (Schafer 1926:132). The law was not, however, enforced effectively until Horace Mann rose to prominence in the late 1830s and pressed the issue.

Michael Frank, the Kenosha newspaperman who gained a reputation as the "father of the public school system in Wisconsin," instigated the first movement for a free public high school system in Wisconsin. In 1845, Kenosha (then called Southport) organized free

public elementary schools, and soon thereafter, Frank, through his newspaper, pamphlets, and public addresses, began to agitate for free public high schools. Frank claimed that the constitution contemplated a complete system of free public schools from the primary school to the University and that the large purpose of this system of public education was to assure to all children, rich or poor, an elementary and high school education" (Patzner 1924:81). Other educational leaders in Kenosha rallied to Frank's support, and the proposition to establish a free public high school in town won by a large vote at a special school meeting called to consider the question. Thus the first free public high school in Wisconsin was opened in Kenosha on July 31, 1849 (Patzner 1924:81).

The movement for free public high schools launched in Kenosha paved the way for other communities to establish high schools. The growth of high schools in Wisconsin was, however, slow. The fact that additional taxes were required to fund high schools deterred many communities from founding them. Nevertheless, some high school-level instruction was undoubtedly taking place in some Wisconsin public schools. Some of the better primary schools were often divided into grades or "departments" at an early stage in their development. Village and city schools might be divided into anywhere from two to nine grades, depending on the number of pupils and the availability of teachers. As early as 1844, some community schools in Grant County were teaching algebra and geometry in their higher grades; by 1852, the Madison public school offered instruction in history, philosophy, algebra, botany, and geometry (Jorgenson 1956:182).

In 1852, the state superintendent recommended the voluntary creation of county high schools. As communities grew in population and organized as cities, independent districts within them which supported two or more graded schools were often consolidated. In many cases, one or two elementary schools from four to eight rooms, together with a central high school, were established. In 1853, Wisconsin's second free public high school emerged in Racine. (Patzner 1924:82). By 1854, Manitowoc and Racine also had well-graded schools that were probably teaching high school subjects.

In 1856, the legislature possessed the first general law relating to the organization of high schools. The law authorized any two or more adjoining districts, by a two-thirds vote in each district, to unite to form a union high school district. The voters of the high school district were to elect a board of education for the administration of the high school. The expense of maintaining the high school was to be defrayed by a tax upon the real and personal property of the union district and was to be called a union high school tax. The board of education together with the town superintendent were to determine the qualifications necessary for admission to the high school, the course of study, and the textbooks. Applicants who wanted to teach in the high school were to take an exam conducted by the board of education and the town superintendent.

In particular, the legislature hoped that the law would encourage the organization of rural high school districts (Patzner 1924:82-83). No schools were actually created under the terms of this law, however, since local districts jealously guarded their autonomy (Report of the State Superintendent 1901-1902:69).

In spite of the failure of the 1856 law, however, secondary education continued to evolve in Wisconsin at a gradual pace. There was some high school instruction, including algebra, Latin, and philosophy, offered in Watertown and Waukesha by 1856. By 1860, there were about 50 graded schools in the state, many of which no doubt taught subjects associated with secondary education to students in their teens (Report of the State Superintendent 1901-1902:68-69). In 1865, Berlin had a high school so popular that citizens boasted that they did not need to "send [a] son or daughter away to be educated." By 1870, Sheboygan had a high school with two grades and six classes; Portage employed a principal and an assistant to teach at the high school level; Green Bay had a high school department; and Mineral Point offered a high school curriculum of algebra, geometry, general history, and natural history in its instruction. Though high school courses were

usually at the ninth or tenth grade level, Beloit offered a full four-year course in 1870 (Schafer 1926:140-141). There is good evidence that by 1870, high school educations were being offered within the public school systems of at least 14 communities in Wisconsin: Kenosha, Racine, Janesville, Milwaukee, Waukesha, Watertown, Madison, Fond du Lac, Sheboygan, Portage, Green Bay, Mineral Point, Berlin, and Beloit. Most of these "high schools" had apparently developed spontaneously, with new subjects and high "departments" being added in stages to the primary schooling. In 1870, 207 schools boasted three or more grades, and it is probable that a fair number of them, besides the 14 listed above, offered some high school subjects (Schafer 1926:140-142). Thus high schools grew during this period, albeit slowly, often adding one grade at a time.

In the years between statehood and 1875, every state superintendent urged the creation of high schools that would be available to all Wisconsin students. None of them, could however, convince the legislature to do more than pass the enabling legislation of 1856. No formal provision for financing separate high school buildings existed. Without a formal state mandate, local districts had complete discretion over the existence and nature of public high schools. When hard times or other pressing events hit Wisconsin, high schools were often the easiest and first targets of cutbacks or elimination. The panic of 1857 ushered in the most severe economic depression the state had known, and this downturn, combined with the chaos of the Civil War four years later caused a decade-long hiatus in the growth of high school education. In Madison, an ambitious school building program begun in 1856 was sharply curtailed when hard times hit the following year (Thwaites 1896:48-49). In 1859, Superintendent Lyman C. Draper estimated that a thousand children in Columbia County were being kept out of school because their parents could not afford adequate clothing (Jorgenson 1956:190). And in 1860 two high schools in Milwaukee were closed due to budget cuts, and the citizens of the cities of Racine and Fond du Lac launched attacks on their high schools for being expensive luxuries (Jorgenson 1956:191). Under such circumstances, it is little wonder that no local districts jumped at the legislature's 1856 suggestion that they create union high schools.

A groundswell of support for education in general, and for high schools in particular, re-emerged in the late 1860s and early 1870s. Superintendent Edward Searing spearheaded the drive for a comprehensive system of public secondary education. To the traditional arguments favoring secondary education as preparation for college-bound students and as training for well-rounded citizens, Searing made an additional argument. He claimed that probably half the money spent on primary education in the state was wasted because of inadequately trained teachers. A widespread system of public high schools, he argued, would supply Wisconsin with an almost unlimited number of qualified teachers for the primary system. Searing was thus able to add an argument for economy to the other reasons for supporting public high schools, even though the state was already well along the road to developing a system of normal schools that would negate the teacher training role of the high schools (Schafer 1926:145).

Searing was instrumental in convincing the legislature to pass the Free High School Law of 1875, the first law to provide state aid to fund high schools. This law once again encouraged local districts to combine their resources to create union high schools, but it also permitted districts to operate their own high school if they could afford it. In general, the law was extremely flexible in the administrative arrangements that districts could use. But the real force behind the law was the financial incentive it offered districts that organized free high schools. According to the law, the state offered to pay one-half of the cost of educational instruction in the high schools, up to a limit of \$500 per school. To fund this aid, the law for the first time went beyond the monies available from the state school funds, which had never proven adequate to meet state needs. Instead, the law authorized the expenditure of \$25,000 per year for the support of high schools, to be raised through a special property tax levied expressly for this purpose (Report of the state superintendent 1901-1902:69). There was an additional economic factor in dividing schools into primary and high school levels. Women could teach the younger students,

saving the high paid male teachers for the upper grades (Schafer 1926:136).

In conjunction with the new law, superintendent Searing devised three possible curriculums for newly created high schools. Several professors of the University of Wisconsin assisted Searing in preparing the curriculums which included a three-year course, designed for communities of less than 6,000, and two four-year courses, the English and classical courses, intended for communities of more than 6,000 inhabitants. The English and Classical prepared students for college or the university. The first three years of the English course was practically identical to the three-year course, but the fourth year of the English course added classes on higher algebra, zoology, rhetoric, literature, ancient history, and political economy to the course of study. The Classical curriculum emphasized classical studies, Latin, Greek, and ancient history (Patzner 1924: 86-88). With monetary incentives and ready-made plans, the response to the 1875 law was spectacular. The law was passed in March of that year, and by the end of the year 18 high schools were taking advantage of its provisions. (How many of these schools had already been in existence is impossible to gauge, but the new aid surely had the effect of beefing up high school programs that had been marginal). In 1876, 24 additional high schools received state aid under the provisions of the 1875 law (Report of the state superintendent 1901-1902:70).

By 1900, the number of school districts that operated high schools reached 209, and in the 1922-1923 school year there were 407. (The number of actual high schools, it should be noted, was slightly higher than these numbers, since a few districts operated more than one high school). The number stabilized at about this level, peaking in the 1943-1944 school year, when there were 441, then slowly declining to the 383 (Wisconsin Blue Book 1983-1984:639). It is interesting to note that although the administrative structures for the high schools have been modified over the years, the actual number of schools has not undergone the dramatic decrease that has affected primary schools. The district consolidation and elimination movement after World War II affected almost exclusively primary education in rural, one-room school districts. Districts that created high schools generally served as the core districts to which smaller ones were attached.

Even well into the twentieth century, most of the districts that reported the existence of a high school apparently provided their secondary education within the walls of the elementary school buildings. In the 1913-1914 school year, there were 219 buildings in the state that contained both primary grades and high school instruction, and only 24 buildings devoted solely to public secondary education (Wisconsin Public Documents, Report of the State Superintendent 1913--1914:152). But by 1978, the 383 districts operating high schools maintained 619 buildings for that sole purpose, and the combined elementary and secondary school was the rare exception (Wisconsin Blue Book 1978:161). (The 619 separate buildings were not all separate high schools, since by the late 1970s many high schools maintained campuses with more than one building). The two main eras for the building of separate high schools seem to have been the 1920s and the late 1950s-1960s. As the curriculum of the high school gradually diversified through the course of the twentieth century and the public expectations for the quality of instruction increased, the physical layouts of new high schools became ever larger and more complex, often including separate buildings for a gymnasium and manual training courses, as well as the classroom building itself.

Administratively, five different types of school districts have had jurisdiction over high schools since 1875. The most numerous has always been the standard common school district, which runs most of the elementary schools in the state as well. These districts are really governmental units unto themselves, with elected boards and the power to levy local property taxes. As of 1982, 321 of the 383 districts operating high schools in Wisconsin were common school districts. (In that year there were also 49 common school districts that operated only primary schools.)

The least numerous of the types of school districts operating high schools is the so-called special charter district serving first class cities as defined by the legislature. The primary requirement for becoming a first class city is a population of 150,000. Thus Milwaukee and Madison are the only cities eligible for that status, and so far Madison has chosen not to apply. Milwaukee, therefore, is the only city with a special charter school district. The workings of the Milwaukee system are too complicated to merit full description, but in general, it is a semi-autonomous governmental unit operating along side of, but separate from, the city government.

In 1920, after numerous communities established Junior High Schools for grades seven, eight, and nine, reorganization accounted for much growth. Junior High schools probably stayed in the high school buildings, while new structures were most likely for the upper grades (Patzner 1924:369). The "baby boom" was the impetus for growth in the late 1950s and 1960s.

Most other cities in Wisconsin have maintained one of two other types of districts. The high school law of 1875 authorized the formation of city school districts which were fiscally dependent on municipal government, and therefore actually a department within local city government. Larger towns and most cities operated under this type of system until very recently. In 1959, however, in order to accommodate the desires of many cities to extend their influence to the surrounding regions in order to increase their tax base, the legislature created the unified school district. Unified districts have a city at their core, but they are generally independent units, not dependent on the municipal government. In 1981 the state legislature passed a law that phased out the old city districts and required municipalities to jettison their school functions and create unified districts with the surrounding areas by July 1, 1983. As recently as 1978 there were still 41 city districts in the state, but all of them met the 1983 deadline for conversion to unified districts (Wisconsin Blue Book 1983-1984:639).

The fifth type of high school district, also abolished by the legislature in 1981, was the "union" school district. A law of 1911 permitted two or more common school districts to unite for the sole purpose of maintaining a high school, and provided a small amount of special state aid for these districts. This idea never gained widespread popularity, and by 1978 there were only 10 so-called "union" districts in the state. Most of these reverted to common school districts when the law of 1981 required them to choose between common district and unified district status, since most of them were in rural areas with no core city (Wisconsin Blue Book 1983-1984:639).

Now that the post-World War II baby boom has passed through high school, there has been a recent national trend toward consolidation and elimination of some under-utilized high schools. So far this trend has not greatly affected Wisconsin, and it seems unlikely that it will. High schools most vulnerable to elimination are generally located in urban areas where alternatives are readily accessible for those students whose school is closed. In Wisconsin there is a relatively even dispersion of population, and most high schools have a geographic as well as demographic reason for existence. Milwaukee, Madison, and perhaps a few cities that overextended their systems in the 1950s and 1960s may be tempted to consolidate one or two schools, but in general, the secondary school system seems to have stabilized in Wisconsin.

One further cultural note about high schools seems appropriate. In terms of community significance, high schools in Wisconsin, as elsewhere, have taken on roles that go beyond the simple educational functions that are their primary purpose. In many communities, the high school is and has been the most visible and prestigious formal institution. Many people form deep loyalties to their own high schools, and sometimes transfer these feelings to interest in the high school in whatever community they happen to live. The most obvious example of the loyalty and emotion invested in high schools is the public interest in high school athletics, particularly basketball and football. Furthermore, many Americans remember their high school years with fondness, and maintain relationships

begun during those years throughout their lives. As a result of all this interest, it is probably somewhat easier to keep abreast of developments that might endanger preservation goals, since the destruction of a high school building is likely to engender community debate, or at least attention.

IDENTIFICATION

Resource Types. High school buildings, including main instructional buildings as well as gymnasiums, shop buildings, auxiliary classroom buildings, and other incidental structures. Since many early high schools were contained within elementary school buildings, and since some high schools have been converted into middle and elementary schools, these are also of potential historical significance. In addition to structures, often associated with high schools are athletic fields and recreational structures.

Locational Patterns of Resource Types. Most early high schools were located near downtown commercial districts or in centrally located residential districts. If the high school was contained in an elementary school building, it was likely to be one of the larger, more centrally located school buildings in the community. In the early years, few high schools were placed in genuine rural settings, since students were usually more geographically dispersed than elementary school pupils, making traveling distances, on the average, longer. In more recent times, faster, easier, and more accessible transportation (including government subsidized busing) has enabled districts to build newer high schools on the edges of towns and cities, or even in rural areas. Cheapness of land, lack of traffic congestion, and greater control over students' lunch time behavior are all factors which have influenced districts to remove high schools from downtown neighborhoods.

Previous Surveys. No surveys of secondary schools have been undertaken.

Survey and Research Needs: None identified.

EVALUATION

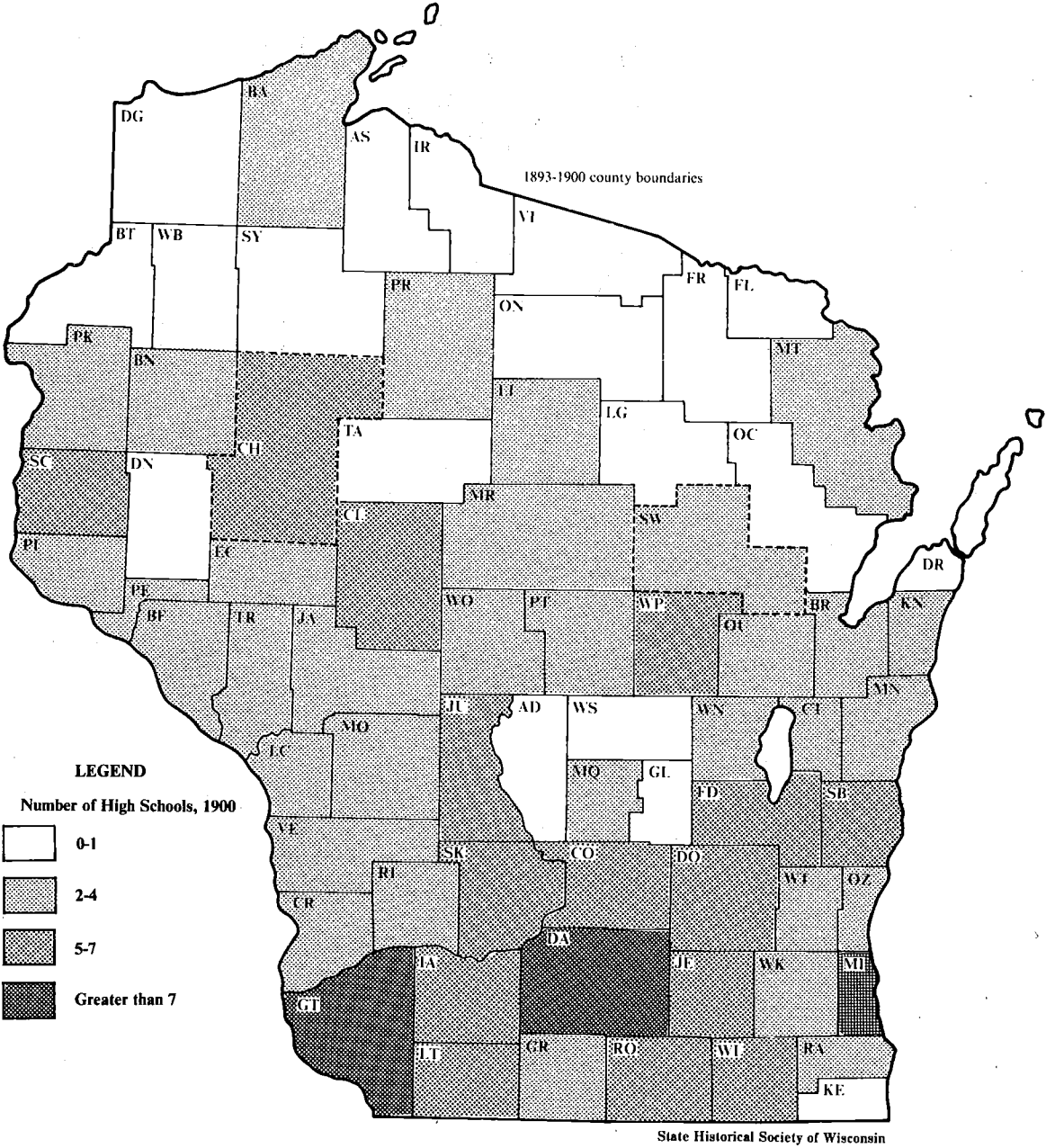
NRHP Listings and Determinations of Eligibility

- Ashland Middle School (1904), 1000 Ellis Ave., Ashland, Ashland County (NRHP 1980)
- Eau Claire High School (1925), 314 Doty St., Eau Claire, Eau Claire County NRHP 1983)
- Union High School (1870), North 3rd St., Black River Falls, Jackson County (NRHP 1978)
- Boscobel High School, 207 Buchanan St., Boscobel, Grant County (NRHP 1986)
- Omro High School, Annex, and Webster Manual Training School, 515 S. Webster St., Omro, Winnebago County (NRHP 1985)

Any high school building erected before 1920 should be evaluated in a regional context, since up to that time separate buildings for secondary instruction were the exception. After 1920, most schools relevant contexts would be evaluated in the local context. Buildings that also served functions other than educational should be evaluated for all potential areas of significance.

Threats to Resources. The principal threat to high school buildings is their replacement by newer structures, not so much their consolidation with other schools as in the case of elementary schools. The biggest burst of building took place in the 1960s when many of the older schools ran out of room.

SECONDARY EDUCATION



Public High Schools in 1900

Source: *Wisconsin Blue Book, 1901*, pp. 548-551.

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Most of the article deals with elementary education, but pages 113-115 do contain some useful legislative information about high schools.
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1936 Education in Wisconsin. The Whitewater Press, Whitewater, Wis.
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- Fitzpatrick, Edward A.
1923 Wisconsin's state educational system. Wisconsin Blue Book:121-158.
Not much history, but a good summary of the system as it existed in 1923.

Henderson, Harold L.

1931 Public education in Wisconsin. Wisconsin Blue Book:71-98.

Another of the Blue Books' snapshots of the educational system, but again, not much historical background.

Jorgenson, Lloyd P.

1956 The founding of public education in Wisconsin. The State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison.

Although probably the best overall survey of the history of education in Wisconsin, Jorgenson's book does have some shortcomings. One of these is a lack of detailed information on the founding of the public high school system in Wisconsin. He does give some information on how early high schools developed from the "state graded schools," but the main part of the book deals with the period before the high school became established as a distinct, necessary part of the public system of education.

Nesbit, Robert C.

1973 Wisconsin: a history. University of Wisconsin Press, Madison.

Really not worth looking at for any original information about high schools.

Patzer, Conrad E.

1924 Public education in Wisconsin. n.p., Madison.

This summary of the development of the high school system is particularly useful for the light it sheds on the role of the university in determining high school curricula and purposes. Patzer, a normal school supervisor, had some axes to grind, but there is some good information in his treatment of the subject.

Raney, William Francis

1940 Wisconsin: a story of progress. Prentice-Hall, New York.

A fairly good, concise summary of the growth and functions of free high schools in the state. But it is a little boosterish, and Raney has no information that is not contained elsewhere.

Schafer, Joseph

1926 Genesis of Wisconsin's free high school system. Wisconsin Magazine of History 10:123-149.

This is probably the best, most detailed account of the history of Wisconsin high schools. Unfortunately, it does not go far beyond the law of 1875 that greatly spurred the growth of the system, but its summary of the system to that point is unsurpassed.

Smith, Alice E.

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1983 The Columbian history of education in Wisconsin. The Evening Wisconsin Company, Milwaukee.

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NORMAL SCHOOLS AND STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES

Temporal Boundaries: 1839-1925.

Spatial Boundaries: Entire State.

Related Study Units: Primary and Secondary Education study units.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The history of normal school education dates technically from 1839 to 1925. In 1839, the Territorial Assembly passed its first school law which delegated authority to municipalities to decide on the necessary qualifications of teachers who were to teach in their communities. In 1925, the Board of Regents of the University of Wisconsin changed the names of Normal Schools to State Teachers' Colleges and empowered them to grant Bachelor's degrees to students who completed a four-year curriculum. This combined the function of normal schools, originally designed specifically to train teachers, with the academic education offered by four-year colleges.

As a result of the school law passed in 1839, a person who arrived in a town and wished to teach school would be given an exam by a local official. The official might have been a school inspector elected annually at a town meeting or perhaps a member of an organized school district if one existed. Little uniformity existed among the exams given in various towns; the laws permitted local school officials to select the subjects to include and to decide whether the exam would be oral or written. No time limitation was placed on the certificate, but it was limited to the town where it was issued (Herrmann 1971:2). Discussing the early method of teacher certification in Wisconsin, Eleazer Root, who ultimately became the state's first superintendent of public instruction and founder of Waukesha's Carroll College, claimed that the exams were conducted in a superficial manner and asserted that he had "reason to believe that the object of the law ... is, in many cases, entirely evaded" (Herrmann 1971:4).

The lack of a sufficient number of teachers contributed to problems in securing adequately trained instructors. Between 1840 and 1850, there was a massive influx in Wisconsin's population. By 1850, the state's population was 305,000, 90 percent of which had arrived in Wisconsin since 1840 (Jorgenson 1956:185). In 1848, the State Constitution established that the state possessed complete control over education, but the legislature delegated control over the examination and certification of teachers to town superintendents. The superintendents frequently complained of a shortage of teachers and openly admitted that they were forced to license unqualified persons to keep schools in session (Herrmann 1971:6).

During the mid-nineteenth century, prior to the establishment of normal schools, two alternatives existed for those who wished to become more skilled at teaching. By attending an academy, a prospective teacher could receive some training although academies were not designed specifically for teacher training. The Sharon Normal and Scientific Institute, the Albion Academy and Normal Institute, Beloit College, Carroll College, Milton Academy, and Platteville Academy were among the schools that offered courses in teacher training in the mid-nineteenth century. In 1847, the trustees of Platteville Academy attempted to attract teaching students when they made the following announcement: "To those who desire to Teach, peculiar advantages will be furnished by the formation of a Teachers' Class ... provided a sufficient number apply" (Herrmann 1971:8).

Teachers' institutes were another avenue through which teachers could gain some expertise in their art through a course which usually lasted for several weeks. They were designed primarily for persons already teaching rather than for training new teachers. Root described an institute as:

a voluntary association of common school teachers, assembled for mutual improvement in a knowledge of the sciences and the art of teaching. It is a sort of temporary normal school, and can be cheaply and conveniently adapted to the wants of any number, large or small. It is commonly so organized as to hold a session varying in length from two to four weeks in a year, under the general direction of one or more experienced scholars and practical educators. The exercises of an institute consist principally of lectures upon educational topics, discussion of modes of teaching, a review of the branches of school study, and a free interchange of opinion upon every subject connected with the teacher's profession (Herrmann 1971:9).

Conducted by a state superintendent or local educational association, teachers' institutes preceded and paralleled the development of public normal schools. While none of Wisconsin's mid-nineteenth century superintendents of public instruction regarded teachers' institutes as substitutes for normal schools, all of them supported and promoted institutes as an efficient way to raise the general level of teaching (Herrmann 1971:9). Organized in 1853, the Wisconsin State Teachers Association also endorsed teaching institutes.

Although the institutes were quite successful in Wisconsin as well as in other states in which they had been tried, including New York and Ohio, they were at best a stop-gap means of addressing a growing problem. Some teachers had academy or other educational backgrounds beyond the common school, but many had completed no more than eight grades (Clark 1958:9). The wages and status of teachers were, correspondingly, quite low. The average teaching career, according to the 1857 report of the State Teachers' Association, was only 18 months. A principal objection to allocating state funds to the establishment of normal schools was that there was no guarantee that students educated in them would necessarily become teachers, not an unwarranted concern given the short duration of most teachers' time in the profession. Most men, at least, saw it only as stepping stone to some better career (Jorgenson 1956:156).

A contributing factor to the low status and wages of teachers was the fact that from its beginnings, teaching was a profession, and one of the few, that was open to females. In a survey conducted among teachers attending State Superintendent Henry Barnard's Institutes in 1859-1860, slightly over half the respondents were female. The primary reason for such a trend was that women could be paid less than men; nearly two thirds of women teachers earned less than \$15 per week (Jorgenson 1956:200). One writer on the subject commented, "While there are so many competent females who can be hired for fifteen, eighteen, or twenty dollars per month, it is folly and waste to insist upon hiring male teachers not a whit better qualified, and pay them twenty, twenty-four, and thirty dollars a month" (Jorgenson 1956:162).

Between 1850 and 1857, numerous bills were introduced into the state legislature, attempting in various ways to provide for teacher training. The Normal School Act of 1857 was the first such bill to pass. Rather than establishing public teacher training institutions, the bill provided funding for already existing colleges, universities, and academies in the state that had established teacher training departments (Herrmann 1971:50-51). The act also created a Board of Normal School Regents authorized to apportion the funding to the appropriate institutions (Curti and Carstensen 1949:92). Private academies, such as Beloit College, Carroll College, and Platteville Academy among others benefitted from the Normal School Act of 1857.

This bill was nonetheless of great importance in the history of normal schools in Wisconsin, since it provided that 25 percent of the proceeds from the sale of swamplands would be earmarked for teacher training. This bill also created a nine person board of regents, appointed by the governor with the consent of the senate. The governor and the state superintendent of public instruction were ex-officio members, having a voice but not a vote (Herrmann 1971:50-51).

The swamplands fund, through which education, including normal schools, the university, and common schools was to be financed was created through an act of Congress that had been passed in 1850. Although the act was specific to Arkansas, it was applicable to all states in which the federal government still controlled land. In 1850, this amounted to considerable acreage. In Wisconsin, it accounted for 4 million acres, or one-eighth the area of the entire state. While the lands were called "swamp" or overflow lands, the United States Survey, which determined them as such, was made in the winter and early spring when much of the state was covered in water. Hence, some of Wisconsin's best quality timber and farmland was up for sale, the proceeds from which were to go to the school fund.

The sale of these lands was tragically mismanaged; they were sold on the market with nearly 29 million acres of other government land available for settlement. Thus the price per acre was driven incredibly low. Some of the school lands were sold for as low as five and 10 cents per acre, and 500,000 acres of the state's richest agricultural land went for \$1.42 per acre. Ostensibly, the land was sold for such meager amounts to encourage settlement, but in fact, half the land was purchased by speculators and "lumber barons" (Patzner 1924:110; Jorgenson 1964:107). The consequence was that Wisconsin's educational endowment was only a small fraction of what it might have been. State Superintendent John Calhoun, writing in 1925, estimated that, to that date, the sale of lands plus interest since their sale, amounted to \$7,341,000. Had it not been mismanaged, it would have totaled \$50 million, which would have produced an annual revenue of \$2.5 million. This unfortunately was not the case; education at all levels in Wisconsin, including the university, common, and normal schools, suffered as a consequence (Callahan 1925:354).

Part of the impetus for finally establishing a publicly funded normal school system was the faltering and dissolution of the Normal Department at the University of Wisconsin. The University was legally established in 1848 under the provisions of the state constitution, and the Department of Elementary Instruction was one of its first four departments (Curti and Carstensen 1949:37,53). Initially, however, the department was not fully developed or funded. It consisted of a "Normal Professorship," or a chairman who was given responsibility for "instruction in the art of teaching, comprising the most approved modes of inculcating knowledge and administering the discipline of the common school; and in such branches of study as may best prepare the pupils in this Department, for their honorable and useful vocations as educators of the popular mind" (Curti and Carstensen 1949:74). According to the initial plan, the department was to hold an annual session of not less than five months for young men seeking to prepare for teaching. Students in the department were to have access to all regular classes at the University on the same terms as other students. If they agreed to teach in the schools of the state, they would pay no tuition. They were to receive diplomas upon satisfactorily passing an exam (Curti and Carstensen 1949:74).

In March 1863, the Normal Department was opened as a fully developed entity accepting female as well as male students (Curti and Carstensen 1949:117). According to historian Merle Curti, the department was founded primarily because the University wanted to bolster declining enrollments during the Civil War. The founding of the Normal Department also served to open the doors of the University to women (Curti and Carstensen 1949:117). The Normal Department was "an immediate success." During the winter term of 1862-63 at the University of Wisconsin, total enrollment amounted to

63. In the spring term after the new department opened, total enrollment increased to 177. One hundred and twelve, of whom 76 were women, were enrolled in the Normal Department (Curti and Carstensen 1949:117).

A decline in the Normal Department's popularity began, however, in 1864 when Charles A. Allen, the department's principal, asked and received leave to serve in the Union Army (Curti and Carstensen 1949:119). After Allen's resignation, there was no one on the faculty to champion the Normal Department. Moreover, some members of the University faculty actively agitated against it on the grounds that it brought females into the University. It was feared that the presence of "females" would lower the "standard of culture" (Curti and Carstensen 1949:119). The Normal Department was abolished in 1868, and little effort was made to provide additional means of teacher training at the University at this point.

The demise of the University's Normal Department undoubtedly contributed to the success of the Normal School Act of 1865. The act repealed all previous laws pertaining to the use of swamplands, and the legislature doubled the percentage of the swampland fund to be allocated to normal school education from 25 to 50 percent (Patzner 1924:105).

In 1865, the Normal School Board of Regents began to accept proposals for donations of land, buildings, and money from communities throughout the state interested in establishing normal schools. Intense rivalries developed among communities competing for normal school sites, and citizens' committees appeared before the Board from Berlin, Geneva, Milwaukee, Omro, Oshkosh, Prairie du Chien, Racine, Sheboygan, and Whitewater to convince the normal regents of the superiority of their location and to urge the acceptance of their respective bids (Herrmann 1971:158).

Among the factors considered in deciding where to locate normal schools were accessibility, healthfulness, facilities for obtaining board, availability of cheap fuel supply, cost of building materials, labor and wages for construction, and the "literary and scientific advantages" of the community (Herrmann 1971:160).

A committee appointed to study the necessary accommodations for a normal school reported that a normal school building should be able to serve 160 students in the normal department and at least 100 pupils in a model school where prospective teachers would practice their teaching skills under their instructors' supervision. The committee further stipulated that sufficient space should be provided for lecture, library, society rooms, an office for the principal, a room for apparatus, and closets and wardrobes for students and teachers (Herrmann 1971:161).

Originally, the Regents planned to build normal schools in each of Wisconsin's six congressional districts (Wyman 1968:95). Each school was to operate a model school and provide a preparatory department for underqualified students. Normal education was free of charge, with the stipulation that students agreed to teach in Wisconsin schools after their graduation (Wyman 1968:60). After the Normal School Act of 1865, Wisconsin's normal schools emerged at a fairly rapid rate. The development of common schools throughout the state contributed to the need to establish normal schools, since a greater quantity of trained teachers was desired.

Wisconsin's first normal school was established in Platteville. The trustees of Platteville Academy, which had been one of the participating institutions under the Normal School Act of 1857, offered the academy, which consisted of Rountree Hall, built in 1853, the grounds, \$1,000 for repairs, and \$5,000 in cash in order to transform their academy into a normal school (Herrmann 1971:158,164). The academy reopened as the Platteville Normal School on October 9, 1866 with 60 students and a faculty of five, most of whom were retained from the academy (Herrmann 1971:168). The school flourished and expanded in the years to follow. In 1907, the old structure became the home of the new

State Mining Trade School, and a new Main Building was constructed for the normal school. A second building, Ullrich Hall, was built in 1917 to house the agriculture and manual arts departments. Wisconsin's second normal school was dedicated on April 21, 1868 in Whitewater. It opened with a faculty of 9, 39 normal school students, and 102 model school pupils. Like the Platteville school, the Whitewater school flourished and grew. In 1913, the school implemented a business program, the second of its kind in the nation. The business program drew additional students to Whitewater. Between 1910 and 1924, enrollment in the normal department increased from 295 to 580 students. To accommodate the increased number of students, Whitewater had to construct new buildings. "Halversen Cabin," a one-room log cabin, was moved to Whitewater in 1907 to serve as a "museum of pioneer life" and a center for social events (Bohi 1967:114). In 1916, a men's gymnasium was constructed, and Salisbury Hall, a dining hall and student center was built in 1925.

The State Normal School at Oshkosh, established in 1871, was the state's third normal school. In 1870, Oshkosh was a thriving community, its population of over 12,000, having doubled in the previous decade. Much of the population was involved in the growing lumber industries of the area; there were 33 lumber and woodworking concerns in the direct vicinity. Oshkosh's rapidly expanding population and economy was accommodated by the Chicago Northwestern Railway which reached the town in 1859.

The Oshkosh school opened with 173 students, 102 of whom were women; the adjoining model school enrolled 141 pupils. George S. Albee was selected as the school's president and six faculty members were hired. Within the next 20 years, enrollment at Oshkosh tripled. In 1900, enrollment at the normal school was over 700. A major factor contributing to the upsurge in enrollment was the rise in the number of high school graduates. Because these graduates came to the normal school with better educational backgrounds than their predecessors, Oshkosh found it was no longer necessary to maintain a preparatory curriculum for less qualified students..

Until the turn of the century, the school remained housed in a single building, except for a gymnasium built in 1888. As enrollment soared, particularly in the new Industrial Arts Department, new buildings were constructed. Harrington Hall, the Industrial Arts building, was completed and ready for occupancy in 1913; it was regarded as one of the most well equipped facilities in the Midwest for training teachers in the manual arts. That same year, the Board of Regents purchased the former residence of Dr. C.W. Oviatt (built in 1888) for use as a women's dormitory. In 1934, the Oviatt House became the president's residence.

In 1916, a fire destroyed the old Main Building, forestalling plans for enlarging campus facilities. The following year, Dempsey Hall was built to replace Old Main and to house sciences and the administration. In 1918, an extensive library unit was added. In 1928, construction a new training school was completed and named after Rose C. Swart, a mainstay of the school's primary department and an ardent suffragist (Wyman 1968:109).

River Falls was the site chosen for the state's fourth normal school. It opened in 1875 with 104 students in its normal department and 155 students in its model school. When the school's first building burned in 1897, South Hall was constructed on the site of the old building. The three story red brick building included a separate gymnasium annex. Until 1912, when the Department of Agriculture was added to the school's curriculum, this one building met the students' needs. Increased enrollment, due to the addition of the Agriculture Department, demanded increased facilities. To meet this demand, North Hall was built in 1914 to house the training and agricultural schools, an auditorium, and the men's gymnasium. In 1917, a wing was built on North Hall in which administrative offices, class, and recitation rooms were located. Ten years later, an annex was added to which the training school was moved (Lankford 1968:155). In 1929, the state legislature

appropriated for a new shop and mechanics building, which was built the following year (Lankford 1968:156). In 1951, the school acquired Hathron Hall (built in 1928) for use as a women's dormitory.

Hoping to secure a state normal school, the city of Milwaukee submitted a bid to the Normal Regents after the Normal School Act of 1865 passed. Milwaukee offered \$31,000, to be paid over a seven year period, a site, and the use of an existing building until a new one could be constructed. The regents, however, declined Milwaukee's bid. One reason there was resistance towards opening another normal school was that the existing normal schools had not been as successful as had been hoped in providing the bulk of the state's teachers, since it was possible to become a teacher by simply taking an oral examination conducted by a school principal. Taking the oral exam was an inexpensive alternative to normal school training, and normal school graduates did not have a true advantage in placement or salary over non-trained teachers. Consequently, for approximately the first 30 years of operation, normal schools were not a particularly attractive option for prospective teachers (State Historical Society of Wisconsin 1986).

By 1870, however, the population of Milwaukee was 71,000, and the need for trained teachers was urgent. The state legislature intervened in the situation and required Milwaukee's school commission "to establish and maintain a normal course of study in the high school for the special training of teachers for the public schools of the city" (Herrmann 1971:187). In compliance with this law, a normal training department was established in Milwaukee Public High School in the 1873-74 academic year (Herrmann 1971:187). The department was later separated from the high school and became an independent unit known as the Normal Training Department. The department offered a one-year course consisting of a review of common topics, methods of teaching various elementary subjects, psychology, history, science of education, school management, and practice teaching. Entrance requirements were initially three, and later four years of school (Herrmann 1971:188).

The Normal Regents continued to hesitate in creating a true normal school in Milwaukee, stimulating the state legislature to once again intervene. It declared that it was "the duty of the board of regents of normal schools to establish an additional normal school in Milwaukee" as soon as sufficient funds and a building were available (Herrmann 1971:189). The Milwaukee Normal School, Wisconsin's fifth normal school, opened in 1885 with a faculty of seven (Herrmann 1971:193). The Milwaukee Normal School was distinguished from the earlier schools by its higher admission standards; the completion of high school or the equivalent was required for admission. By the end of the century, the curriculum had been expanded and specialized to the level of professional collegiate training. These changes resulted in the upgrading of the reputation of the normal schools as credible institutions for teacher training (State Historical Society of Wisconsin 1986).

The school's initial curriculum included reviews of the topics taught in common schools, including physiology, natural history, physics, chemistry, geology, English language and literature, political science, United States history, school management, and the history of education (State Historical Society of Wisconsin 1986). All students were required to take at least one class in either music or art and participate in field trips to Milwaukee's cultural, educational, and business establishments.

Even with its apparent advantages, the Milwaukee Normal School enrollment grew slowly. By 1892, there were only 80 students. In the same year, the school president, Lorenzo Dow Harvey, launched a publicity campaign extolling the benefits of normal school education. Letters were sent to thousands of graduating high school seniors and principals of area schools. Harvey's effort was an overwhelming success, and 360 students enrolled for the 1896-97 year. Enrollment was further enhanced when the University of Wisconsin regents allowed students graduating from the Normal School specialized course to enter the University as juniors. This, together with the lack of

teacher training programs at Milwaukee's other major colleges, Marquette and Concordia, resulted in the Milwaukee Normal School's expansion into the state's largest teaching training institution (State Historical Society of Wisconsin 1986). In 1909, the Milwaukee Normal School relinquished its original facilities to the Milwaukee Girls' Trade and Technical School and relocated to the newly constructed Mitchell Hall, now on the University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee campus.

Wisconsin's sixth normal school opened in Stevens Point in 1894, with 152 students in the normal department, 49 in the preparatory department, and 165 in the model school. Main Hall, now known as "Old Main," was its first and central building. Over the years, Main Hall received additions to accommodate the school's expanding needs. A dormitory, Nelson Hall, was built in 1915, and the training laboratory was built in 1930 (Hansen 1968:172-177).

Stevens Point was the first school in the state to include domestic science in its curriculum. The school offered its first courses in domestic science in 1903; after that year, it specialized in the subject. Until the late 1950s, Stevens Point also emphasized rural education and operated a "rural demonstration school" on campus (Hansen 1968:185,192).

In keeping with a commitment to distribute normal schools throughout the state, making teacher training available in even sparsely populated regions, Superior was chosen as the site for the seventh normal school. It opened its doors in 1896 to a faculty of 15, 175 normal students, and over 100 students in the model school. By 1900, enrollment in the normal department was up to 312, indicating that normal education in the northern hinterlands was long overdue (Haugland 1968:206). From 1909, the kindergarten department was Superior's area of specialized training. A women's dormitory, Crownhart Hall, was built in 1910. Like Wisconsin's other normal schools, the Superior campus received additions as the school expanded. A Music Annex was added in 1922; the Curran (library) Wing in 1932; a Training School, McCaskill School, in 1916; the first observatory in the State Normal School System in 1919; and, finally, a new gymnasium in the spring of 1922.

The eighth normal school opened in La Crosse in the fall of 1909, with a faculty of 14 and 176 students. The ninth and final normal school was established in Eau Claire in 1916, with a faculty of 20 and 159 students, 141 women and 18 men. The Stout Manual Training School in Menominee, though not actually a part of Wisconsin's Normal School system, included teacher training in its curriculum, in the areas of domestic and manual arts and kindergarten education. Started under the auspices of Senator James H. Stout, it was first established in 1891 as a program within the Menominee public school system. Two years later, the program moved into its own facility, Bowman Hall, though it was still under the jurisdiction of the public schools. In 1908, its name was changed to the Stout Institute. It was an independent corporation until 1911 when the state assumed control over it. Stout Institute became a degree-granting college in 1917, and in 1935 it was authorized to grant Masters of Science degrees in industrial education, vocational education, and home economics. In 1955, its name was again changed, to Stout State College, and in 1964, it became Stout State University.

The reforms of the Progressive era had a considerable impact on education in Wisconsin, as elsewhere in the nation. The establishment of vocational training programs at the state normal schools in the early 1900s was in keeping with the progressive ideas of upper level state educators that the training of teachers should go beyond teacher training and respond directly to the growing needs of specialized academic fields and also reflect the regional differences among the various normal school sites. Between 1909 and 1914, curriculum revisions within the state normal school system resulted in the establishment of 12 new specialized departments. At La Crosse, Oshkosh, River Falls, Stevens Point, Whitewater, and Platteville, the Board of Regents maintained departments for the training

of teachers for rural schools, while departments for the preparation of kindergarten teachers existed in Milwaukee and Superior. The Stevens Point normal school specialized in domestic science education, while at Whitewater a commercial education (business) program was initiated. An art department and a music department were established at Milwaukee, as well as a special department for the training of the deaf. A teacher training department in industrial education was located at Oshkosh and a manual training department was instituted at Platteville. A physical education department was set up as part of the new La Crosse campus, while special agricultural departments were established at River Falls and Platteville, two areas of growing agricultural development.

The agriculture programs in particular were meant to augment some of the programs already being established by the University of Wisconsin in Madison in agricultural science and farmer education. The individual most responsible for the institutional and curricular reorganization of the Wisconsin normal school system was William Kittle, the secretary of the Board of Regents of Normal Schools. His intensive study of 22 normal school systems in the Midwest and East served as the basis for changes made in the Wisconsin system in the early 1900s.

In the early 1900s, teacher certification also became more standardized, requiring prospective teachers to have formal teacher training before attempting to pass certification examinations. By 1923, the state required a minimum of one year training beyond high school for any kind of teaching license. Starting in 1911, normal schools began introducing the types of courses offered at universities, partly to alleviate pressure from the influx of students seeking university education in Madison. This move initiated the demise of normal schools as exclusive teacher training institutions.

NORMAL EDUCATION IN HIGH SCHOOLS

While state normal schools represent Wisconsin's largest institutional and financial commitment to teacher training, they have not been the sole provider of such education. Some high schools, for instance, included courses on normal education in their curriculums at different points in the state's history.

In efforts to uphold a law passed in 1885, sporadic attempts were made in Wisconsin to secure trained teachers for country schools by requiring high schools to include the theory and art of teaching in their courses of study. But since the law made no provision for the study of the topics required to be taught in country schools, the teachers' course in the high schools was ineffective at this point. Moreover, superintendents and principals did not generally support the course. By 1902, the teachers' course had been dropped from the curriculum in nearly all of the high schools (Patzler 1924:176). There were, however, a few high schools, such as those in New Richmond, Plymouth, and Stoughton, that established a real training course for country teachers in addition to the regular high school courses (Patzler 1924:176).

In 1913, the legislature passed an act authorizing any school board in charge of a high school in counties that provided no normal instruction to organize and maintain a teacher training course connected to the high school after the state superintendent designated which subjects would be taught and what the qualifications of teachers giving such training courses should be. The state superintendent was also required to inspect teacher training departments and make whatever recommendations relating to their management that he deemed necessary. State aid was provided to maintain such teacher training courses; it was not to exceed \$25,000 annually, distributed among high schools offering training courses. Between 1913 and 1924, 29 high schools in Wisconsin organized teacher training courses (Patzler 1924:177).

COUNTY NORMAL SCHOOLS

In addition to the teacher training offered in high schools to secure teachers for country schools, a series of county normal schools also developed for the same purpose. In the 1890s, Wisconsin county school superintendents were experiencing difficulty in securing trained teachers for the rural schools in their counties in spite of the fact that Wisconsin had a state university and five state normal schools. Those concerned with rural education claimed that the state normal schools placed excessive emphasis on training secondary school teachers at the expense of training teachers for rural schools (Principals' Association 1945:39).

In 1892, C.F. Patzer, County Superintendent of Schools in Manitowoc County, read a paper before the Wisconsin Teachers Association and outlined a plan for establishing county normal schools to train rural teachers. In his speech, Patzer stated:

Although State Normal Schools were created for the purpose of furnishing trained teachers for the state, they have not performed this function as far as country schools are concerned. The State Normal cannot expect to furnish more than one-fourth the number of teachers necessary to fill the vacancies of the ungraded schools. These training schools may not be ideal and they will not cure all the ills of the district schools, but they will at least be a long step in advance of the experimental measures applied for so many years which have proved abortive (Principals' Association 1945:41).

In 1899, the legislature passed an act authorizing the establishment of two county training schools for teachers. The act declared that the county board in any county in which a state normal school was not located could appropriate money for the organization, equipment, and maintenance of a county training school for teachers of the common schools (Patzer 1924:176). It provided for a county training school board to be composed of the county superintendent of schools and two other members to be appointed by the county board of supervisors for a period of three years. The state superintendent was directed to give such information and assistance as he might deem necessary in the organization and maintenance of such schools, and special state aid was provided for them. The first county training school was established at Wausau in 1899. In 1923, the legislature changed the name of these schools to County Rural Normal Schools (Patzer 1924:176). By 1924, there were 32 county normal schools in the state (Patzer 1924:176). By 1945, county normal schools existed in the following communities:

County Normal Schools in 1945

<u>City</u>	<u>County</u>	<u>City</u>	<u>County</u>
Algoma	Kewanunee	Menomonie	Dunn
Alma	Buffalo	Monroe	Green
Antigo	Langlade	New Lisbon	Juneau
Ashland	Ashland	Reedsburg	Sauk
Berlin	Green Lake	Richland Center	Richland
Columbus	Columbia	St. Croix Falls	Polk
Kaukauna	Outagamie	Sheboygan Falls	Sheboygan
Manitowoc	Manitowoc	Union Grove	Racine
Marinette	Marinette	Viroqua	Vernon
Mayville	Dodge	Wautoma	Waushara
Medford	Taylor	Wisconsin Rapid	Wood

SOURCE:

Principals' Association 1945:48.

Thus, even though state normal schools constituted Wisconsin's most extensive and institutionalized effort towards teacher training, training in high schools and in county normal schools also provided instruction for prospective teachers. In 1925, the state normal schools became state teachers' colleges, with the authority to grant Bachelor of Education degrees. In 1951, the schools dropped their exclusive teacher training function, becoming simply state colleges able to grant liberal arts degrees--Bachelors of Art and Bachelors of Science. And finally, in 1971, the 10 state colleges, including the nine state normal schools and Stout, were consolidated into the University of Wisconsin system. In contrast, the county normal schools remained autonomous until their dissolution. Appropriations for these institutions were discontinued in 1971, and the colleges were completely phased out the following year (Wisconsin Legislative Reference Bureau 1973:601).

IDENTIFICATION

Resource Types. Normal school buildings and complexes, agricultural education facilities, campus primary schools, homes of people prominent in the normal school movement and homes of prominent educators.

Locational Pattern of Resource Types. Entire state, focused on cities in which normal schools are located: Platteville, Whitewater, River Falls, Oshkosh, Milwaukee, Superior, Stevens Point, La Crosse, Eau Claire, Menominee. There were also county normal schools scattered throughout rural Wisconsin (see chart).

Previous Surveys. A comprehensive survey of extant state normal school buildings was conducted by the Historic Preservation Division, State Historical Society of Wisconsin. It resulted in nomination to the National Register of all eligible state normal school resources, except for those at Superior.

Survey and Research Needs. County normal schools should be studied for their significance and to determine what buildings and districts are eligible for the National Register.

EVALUATION

National Register Listings and Determinations of Eligibility

Agricultural and Manual Arts Building/Platteville State Normal School (1916), UW-Platteville, Platteville, Grant County (NRHP 1985)

Rountree Hall (Platteville Academy) (1853), Jewett at Lancaster streets, Platteville, Grant County (NRHP 1972)

Schofield Hall (1914-1916), UW-Eau Claire, Eau Claire, Eau Claire County (NRHP 1983, MRA)

North Hall, River Falls State Normal School, UW-River Falls, River Falls, Pierce County (NRHP 1986)

South Hall, River Falls State Normal School (1898), UW-River Falls, River Falls, Pierce County (NRHP 1976)

Main Hall, Stevens Point State Normal School (1894), UW-Stevens Point, Stevens Point, Portage County (NRHP 1976)

Buffalo County Training School (1902), 305 S. Second St., Alma, Buffalo County (NRHP 1982, Alama Historic District)

East Wing Building (Old Main) (1925), UW-Whitewater, Whitewater, Walworth County (NRHP 1984)

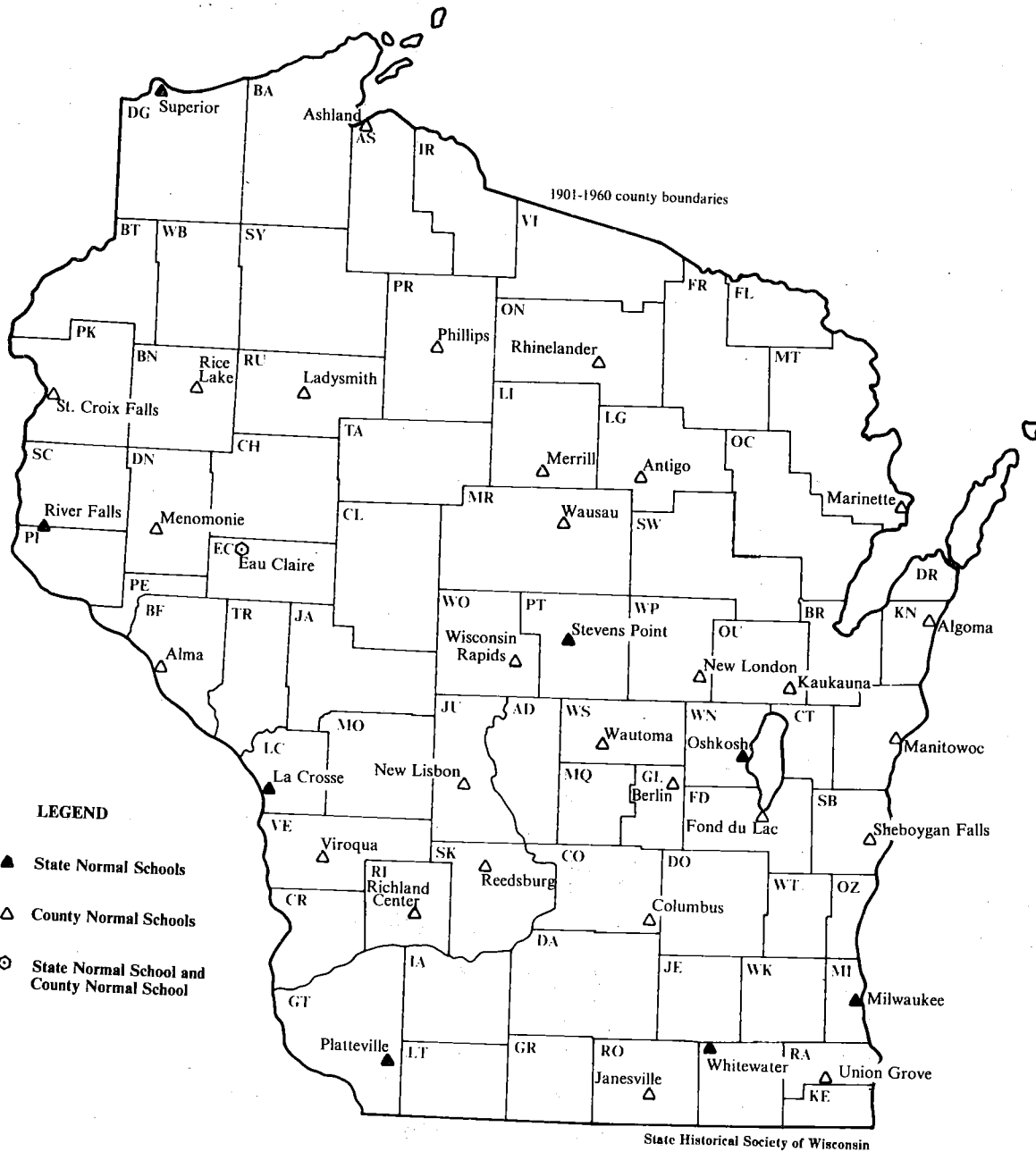
Stout Manual Training Institute (1899-1916), UW-Stout, Menomonie, Dunn County (NRHP 1986, Menomonie Downtown Historic District)

Oshkosh State Normal School Historic District, Oshkosh, Winnebago County (NRHP 1984)

Physical Education Building/La Crosse State Normal School (1916), UW-La Crosse, La Crosse, La Crosse County (NRHP 1985)

Context Considerations. Properties with a normal school association should be evaluated for the strength of the association, as well as for other educational associations they may have. State normal schools should all be considered significant at the state level, while county normal schools will probably be significant at the local level.

NORMAL SCHOOLS AND STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES



Normal Schools in 1925

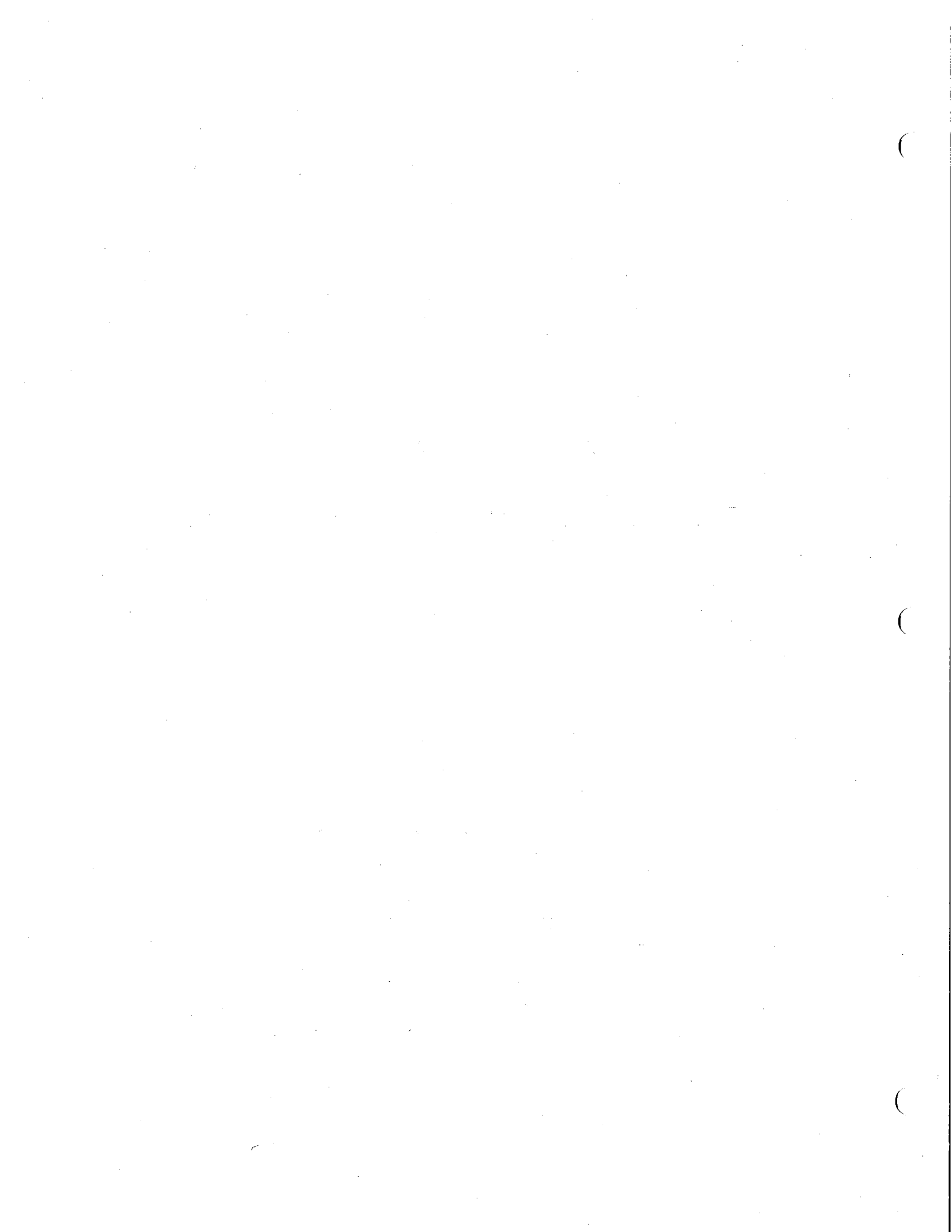
Source: Conrad Patzen, *Public Education in Wisconsin* (Madison, 1924), p. 384.

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LIBRARIES

Temporal Boundaries: 1848-1920.

Spatial Boundaries: Entire state.

Related Study Units: Women's Organizations, Normal Schools and State Teachers Colleges.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Today, virtually every community across the country has a public library, often housed in its own building and serving as a community center. The phenomenon of public libraries began roughly a century ago and accelerated dramatically between 1898 and 1919 when steel magnate Andrew Carnegie began his "wholesale" library philanthropy. Prior to that time, libraries were most commonly privately held in the homes of prominent citizens. In some communities, libraries were organized by local voluntary associations, such as the Young Men's Christian Association, the Women's Christian Temperance Union, and women's and literary clubs. Women's clubs, for instance, were instrumental in establishing libraries in Columbus, Colfax, West Allis, Plymouth, Waupaca, Wausau, and Antigo.

The first "lending libraries" operated out of private homes, which were opened periodically for public or semi-public use. As these libraries grew, it was customary for an owner to donate his or her collection to the city and for the city to assume responsibility for housing the collection in a room of a municipal or commercial building. The city would sometimes pay a librarian, often the individual in whose home the collection had been previously housed. Waukesha (previously Prairieville) was representative of this trend. In 1896, the Beacon Lights Woman's Club had its library in the home of Miss Fannie Ellis. Men were allowed to use and support the library. In 1909, the collection was moved to a municipal building and Miss Ellis was hired as librarian. In 1902, Waukesha's Carnegie Library was built.

Other communities that housed library collections in municipal buildings included Portage, Spring Valley, Superior, Boscobel, Mazomanie, Kaukauna, Cuba City and Dodgeville. Occasionally, library collections were held in privately-owned commercial buildings to which the public had ready access. Superior, for example, had "branch" libraries in several drugstores. In the 1890s, Superior also maintained a Swedish language library in the Swedish Lutheran Church (Lusignan 1983:173-174). Many communities around the state with large populations of foreign-born probably had foreign language reading rooms, in churches, community buildings, or individual homes.

Although many communities maintained collections in city buildings, they were usually small book collections, often consisting of books cast-off from individual private collections. Prior to 1900 when Carnegie began his library funding, libraries were, for the most part, luxuries afforded only by the well-educated and well-to-do who belonged to men's or women's literary clubs. Library associations were often subscription or membership organizations (Colson 1976:192). They were predominantly Yankee institutions tainted with religious and ethnic bigotry (Colson 1976:193).

Increasingly during the later part of the 19th century members of local library associations, though by no means all of them, began to feel that truly "public-sponsored" libraries would be the most effective instrument in the development of a stable state library system. In 1836 the territorial legislature authorized the state establishment of a state library. Thirty-two years later, in 1868, the first state authorization for free town

library support through taxation for book purchases was passed. Language entitling cities and villages to do likewise was added in 1872. The Wisconsin Public Library Act, as it was officially known, (Wisconsin State Statutes Chapter 20) was passed largely through the interest and effort of State Assemblyman and active member of the Janesville Young Men's Association, Alexander Graham of Janesville, Wisconsin.

As it read in 1876, the law authorized municipalities to establish libraries with tax levies placed on assessed properties within their boundaries, to be approved by popular vote and governed by a nine-member board; such libraries or reading rooms were to be "forever free" to inhabitants of the locale. The general structure was essentially that of the New England social library, as well as that of previous associations.

The bills passed the legislature easily, although with no large citizen support, but only gradually did they begin to take an effect. In the first 20 years following the passage of the act, only thirteen "legal" public libraries were established in the state, although several "illegal" association libraries are known to have begun operation, continuing a tradition that had existed in Wisconsin since the territorial era. That an unknown number of communities felt no need to comply with state enabling legislation as it stood at various points in the development of Wisconsin library legislation underscores the lax attitude toward library format in the state. Although the organizational structure had been legally specified, the "free public library" as an institution did not become fixed until the turn of the century, especially thanks to the efforts of the Wisconsin Free Library Commission and the Carnegie Foundation. The 1872 law, as amended, was to remain the basic library law in Wisconsin until the middle of the twentieth century.

While public libraries were the exception rather than the rule in nineteenth century Wisconsin, there were indeed a number of notable exceptions. Between 1882 and 1900, 20 some communities received generous donations earmarked for the creation of public libraries from wealthy citizens. Sixteen individuals gave gifts of \$10,000 or more, amounting to \$774,000 during this period. Other individuals gave lesser gifts, bringing the total gifts prior to 1900 to \$900,000.

The motivations for giving such generous gifts were frequently memorialization of deceased relatives, as in the case of Tainter, Simmons, Harris, and Vaughn. As a result, the elaborate memorial buildings constructed were perhaps a higher financial priority than the quality and breadth of the collection of books that were to be housed in them. In a number of cases, such as with Marshall Harris of Oshkosh and Mrs. Samuel Vaughn of Ashland, the relatives memorialized had been active members in the local library association.

In some instances, conditions were attached to the donations which, to some extent, diminished their otherwise benevolent nature. Emaline Vaughn, for example, stipulated that "No infidel or atheistic works are allowed here or can ever be placed on these shelves. . . anarchistic and spiritualistic works are excluded, also, low grade French fiction" (Colson 1976:207). Vaughn's philanthropy included an element of social control that enabled her, to some degree, to dictate what the citizens of Ashland would be free to read.

The Wisconsin Library Association and its successor, the Wisconsin Free Library Commission (WFLC), designated by Wisconsin law in 1895, were the principal bodies that promoted the establishment and improvement of public libraries. Reflecting the moral tone of the local groups, leaders of the Association (future officers of the Commission) saw the library movement as especially important in the intellectual and moral development of children and young adults and in acculturating immigrants. Lutie Stearns of Milwaukee, one of the principal leaders of the statewide library movement, characterized the mission of the association as alleviating the "stagnant and lifeless" quality of Wisconsin's more than eight hundred villages and hamlets, which were "sodden with monotony." The

Wisconsin Library Association followed in the wake of the national movement, after the organization of the American Library Association (1876) and the New York State Library Association, founded by Melvil Dewey in 1890. In its four years of activity as a chartered organization, the state library association had little success in terms of the establishment of new local libraries.

Despite extensive travel and speaking by Stearns and intensive organizational activity and legislative lobbying by Frank Hutchins of Beaver Dam, the organization drew few dues-paying members at its annual meetings. Most of the support for the organization came from Senator James A. Stout of Menomonie, who later sponsored the library commission bill.

With members appointed by the governor, the WFLC was an advisory body whose members served without pay (Macleod 1968:27). Its expressed purpose was to "give advice and counsel to all free libraries in the state and to all communities which may propose to establish them, as to the best means of establishing and administering such libraries, the selection of books, cataloguing, and other details of library management" (Wisconsin Free Library Commission 1904:1). In 1904 the Commission included Honorable James H. Stout of Memmonie, Lucy (Mrs. Charles) Morris of Berlin, and University of Wisconsin President Charles R. Van Hise, State Superintendent Charles P. Cary, and Reuben G. Thwaites of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin (WFLC 1904:1). In 1921, the state legislature passed a law stipulating that after January 1, 1923, anyone appointed to a library position must hold a library certificate indicating that they had been trained in library science.

Lutie Stearns was one of the Wisconsin Free Library Commission's most active members. In 1894, she volunteered her time to the Wisconsin Library Association and was instrumental in the legislation that created the Free Library Commission in 1895. Upon its creation, she was appointed to the Commission, and in 1897 she became the Commission's first paid staff member, a position she retained until 1914. Also a member of the Wisconsin Federation of Women's Clubs (WFWC), Stearns recruited hundreds of women to the library movement (Steinschneider 1983:140). Her home from 1905-1924 still stands at 2640 N. Prospect Avenue in Milwaukee.

One aspect of the Commission's work was to promote quality among the state's libraires. In Black River Falls, for example, the WFLC forced the library to acquire a card catalogue and to organize its 1,200 volume collection to make it accessible to the public. In Boscobel, Lutie Stearns spent two weeks cataloging books and training volunteers to work in the library. From 1899 to 1939, the WFLC, in conjunction with the University of Wisconsin, ran the state's only library school which trained librarians, standardized library organization, and professionalized librarianship, or "library science." Because librarians were (and continue to be) mostly women, the profession was accorded the low status and low pay which is characteristic of most "women's work." Women made up the rank and file, if not the leadership, of the library movement in Wisconsin (Quaife 1924:417).

More credit is almost certainly due the Wisconsin Free Library Commission, whose programs brought the public library idea to communities throughout the state. Wisconsin's Commission ranked with those of Iowa, Minnesota and Nebraska as having exerted, in the words of one contemporary observer, "an especially strong influence on recent library development.

In 1896, the Free Library Commission's first annual report stated that there were 28 free libraries in operation. By 1922, the figure had jumped to 211 libraries containing over 1,627,000 volumes. At that time, there were only nine cities with a population over 25,000; the state's total population was 1,375,000 (Quaife 1924:428). A major factor in the rapid increase in the number of libraries was the philanthropy of steel magnate Andrew Carnegie, whose donations resulted in the construction of 64 libraries in

Wisconsin and 1,679 libraries in the United States, costing over \$40,000,000 (Bobinski 1969:3).

Unlike other private philanthropists, Carnegie did not make any stipulations as to what books could be placed on the shelves, and he did not require that his name be placed on the buildings, although many communities receiving his money did so. Carnegie required only that the receiving community provide a site for the building and allocate an annual maintenance budget equal to 10 percent of the gift amount. Carnegie believed that philanthropy was an obligation of the rich but that gifts should not be passively received. He stated: "I do not believe that the community which is not willing to maintain a Library had better possess it. It is only the feeling that the Library belongs to every citizen richest and poorest alike, that gives it a soul, as it were" (Bobinski 1969:43).

By 1908, however, Carnegie began to require that the receiving community send plans for the building to be constructed before construction began. In 1914, he also required a letter signed by the mayor promising that the cost of the proposed building would not exceed a specified cost (Bobinski 1969:47). Carnegie's donations for libraries in Wisconsin ranged from approximately \$6,000 to \$50,000 for single buildings; most donations were between \$10,000 and \$20,000. When requested, the Carnegie Foundation would also offer advice and floor plans to aid in the construction of efficiently organized libraries (Bobinski 1969:58).

In addition to the 64 communities that constructed libraries with Carnegie grants, six communities were approved for funding from the Carnegie Foundation, but were unable to go through with their plans. The communities were Kewaunee, Monroe, New Richmond, North Milwaukee, Portage, and West Bend. Their reported reasons for not going through with library construction include an inability to raise the required 10 percent maintenance costs, rising building costs, and requiring more money than the Carnegie Foundation was willing to give (Bobinski 1969:124-30).

The allocation and distribution of Carnegie grants for library construction ended in 1917 with the advent of World War I. Nonetheless, the notion that every "self-respecting" town should have its own public library had become increasingly ingrained into the civic consciousness of communities as a result of the Carnegie dominated years. In many cities, the public library had become a badge symbolizing a certain level of cultural sophistication and stability. In keeping with an era distinguished by monumental civic architecture made popular by the Chicago Columbian Exposition and the City Beautiful movement, communities saw the public library increasingly as a way of publically proclaiming their vitality and stature.

The Madison architectural firm of Claude and Starck developed a strong interest and noted reputation in small public library design. The firm received commissions from 1903 to 1925, often designing buildings financed by Carnegie Foundation grants. Its most innovative architectural designs were several variations of the Prairie School, of which the Jefferson Public Library (NRHP 1980) stands as a distinguished example. The small public libraries designed by the firm represent a broad spectrum of architectural styles, and the architects indicated in their own writing the appropriateness of several stylistic forms. Louis W. Claude wrote with great conviction that:

The building of simple classic lines, while sometimes grieving the architect gifted with original ideas, will probably always be the favorite type of this class of building, these to my mind, are the most satisfactory of all, as they represent intelligent growing thought, not the mere knowledge of the antiquarian who reproduces intelligently, perhaps, but does not give birth to a new idea" (Claude 1908:11).

Other architects who designed Wisconsin libraries included Van Ryn and De Gelleke of

Milwaukee, whose firm constructed a number of that city's educational buildings, and Henry Wildhagen of Ashland. Wildhagen was one of northern Wisconsin's few and best-known architects. Four of his school buildings in Ashland are listed on the NRHP, significant for their Neo-Classical designs and extensive use of brownstone. Wildhagen designed several library buildings in northern Wisconsin, including those in Bayfield (Bayfield Historic District, NRHP 1980), Viroqua, and Washburn (NRHP 1984). In many of the smaller communities in which libraries were built, especially Carnegie libraries, the library was the community's sole architect-designed building, thus enhancing the library's historic and architectural prominence in the state.

Elaborately designed libraries were not always met with immediate enthusiasm when they were built. The Wisconsin Free Library Commission took the position in 1913 in the heyday of library building construction "that a 'good useful looking building' . . . that looks as though it were to be used everyday by everyday people" would be better patronized than a more imposing one. "They should not be classic, or romantic or anything else . . . Greek temples and Italian palaces were not for libraries" (Wisconsin Free Library Commission 1913:3). The Library Commission argued that such buildings were intimidating to average citizens and that constructing such buildings ran contrary to the philosophy of the Free Library Commission and Andrew Carnegie. The Free Library Commission observed that the construction of elaborate buildings was reflective of a view held by Carnegie and other philanthropists that cultural and intellectual endeavors were divorced from practical life. The imposing buildings did little to make culture and learning more accessible to the people they were aimed to enlighten (MacLeod 1968:57).

For several decades after passage of the Library Act in 1872, native philanthropists and pre-eminent library donor Andrew Carnegie sponsored the construction of most of the single-use public library buildings in the state. That few communities assumed the responsibility of providing a building has been taken as an indication of a less than serious commitment to the public library concept, further undercutting the effectiveness of local and state library associations. Around the turn of the century, more than \$900,000 was given or bequeathed to Wisconsin libraries and in excess of \$1,045,511 was donated by Andrew Carnegie for the construction of 64 libraries in the state. Rather than perpetuating public and library philanthropy as he intended, Carnegie's generosity actually quelled such public giving. With the advent of the new century, substantial library benefaction virtually ceased. There were a few exceptions, however, including the Dwight T. Parker Library in Fennimore, (1923), the Zona Gale Breeze Library in Portage, (1912), the David Power Memorial Library in Palmyra (1927), and the Eager Free Public Library of Evansville (1908). The Evansville library was listed in the National Register in 1977 and the Fennimore library was listed in 1983.

Over 100 years have passed since some of Wisconsin's earliest libraries were built. The movement that created them grew out of national and regional trends in economics and society as much as it reflected local initiative. The broad trends have left an enduring imprint locally on communities across the state. The town library today is viewed as a necessary civic service, functioning not only as a tool for education but also as an important element of a community's self-image. The fact that so many of Wisconsin's library buildings are still extant, many still used for their original purpose, attests to their enduring value both as libraries and as physical demonstrations of community participation in a cultural movement of national scope and importance.

Carnegie Funded Libraries in Wisconsin

<u>Community</u>	<u>Library (Current name in parentheses)</u>	<u>Date of Construction</u>	<u>Architect</u>
Antigo*	Antigo Public Library	1904	Allan D. Conover
Arcadia	Carnegie Library (Library of Arcadia)	1906	D.A. Omeyer, St. Paul
Baraboo*	Carnegie Free Library (Baraboo Public Library)	1903	Claude and Starck
Barron	Barron Carnegie Library (Barron Public Library)	1912	Claude and Starck
Bayfield*	Bayfield Carnegie Library	1903-1904	Henry Wildhagen
Beloit*	Carnegie Library (Pettibone World Affairs Study Center)	1903-1905	Patton and Miller
Berlin	Carnegie Library	1904	H.A. Foeller
Black River Falls	Black River Falls Public	1914(a)	Unknown
Chippewa Falls*	Chippewa Falls Public Library	1902(a)	Unknown
Clintonville	Finney Public Library	1915(a)	H.T. Liebert
Columbus	Free Public Library (Columbus Public Library)	1912	Claude and Starck
Cumberland	Cumberland Free Library (Cumberland Public Library)	1905(a)	C.H. Patsche
Darlington	Free Public Library of Darlington (Darlington Public Library)	1904	Claude and Starck
Durand*	Durand Free Library	1907	Claude and Starck
Eau Claire*	Eau Claire Public Library	1903-1904	Patton and Miller
Edgerton	Public Library	1905(a)	Unknown
Elroy	Unknown	1905(a)	Unknown
Fond du Lac#	Carnegie Free Public Library of Fond du Lac(b)	1902(a)	Van Ryn and De Gelleke
Green Bay*	Kellogg Public Library	1903/1914	H.A. Foeller
Hayward	Hawyard Carnegie Public Library	1904-1905	Henry Wildhagen
Hudson*	Hudson Public Library	1903-1904	Van Ryn and De Gelleke
Janesville*	Janesville Public Library	1903	J.T.W. Jennings
Jefferson*	Jefferson Public Library	1911	Claude and Starck
Kaukauna*	Free Public Library of Kaukauna	1903	Claude and Starck
Ladysmith	Free Library/Ladysmith Carnegie Library (City and County Library)	1907	Claude and Starck
Madison#	Madison Free Library	1905	Frank Miles Day and Bro.
Madison	Sixth Ward Branch	1912	Claude and Starck
Manitowoc#	Carnegie Library	1903-1904	Van Ryn and De Gelleke
Medford	Medford Public Library	1916	H.T. Liebert
Merrill*	T.B. Scott Free Library	1910	Claude and Starck
Neenah#	Public Library	1904	Unknown
Neillsville	Free Library	1914	Awsumb
New London	New London Public Library	1914	Victor Thomas
Platteville	Platteville Public Library (S.W. Engineering Building)	1914	Grant, Miller, Fullenwider, Dowling

<u>Community</u>	<u>Library (Current name in parentheses)</u>	<u>Date of Construction</u>	<u>Architect</u>
Plymouth	Plymouth Public Library	1915	P.T. Benton
Racine*	Racine Public Library	1904	Mauran, Russell and Garden (St. Louis)
Racine	Uptown Branch	1913	Guilbert and Funston
Reedsburg	Reedsburg Public Library	1911	Claude and Starck
Rhineland	Rhineland Public Library	1903(a)	Van Ryn and De Gelleke
Rice Lake#	Rice Lake Carnegie Library	1905	English Bros.
Richland Center	Richland Center Public Library (Adult Center and Library)	1904	Claude and Starck
Ripon	Ripon Public Library	1905	C.C. Anderson
Shawano	Unknown	1915	Unknown
Sheboygan	Public Library, Sheboygan	1903	Patton and Miller
South Milwaukee	South Milwaukee Public Library(b)	1915	Unknown
Sparta*	Sparta Free Library	1903	Shick and Roth
Stevens Point#	Unknown	1902(a)	Unidentified as of 1986
Stoughton	Stoughton Free Library (Stoughton Public Library)	1907	Claude and Starck
Sturgeon Bay	Sturgeon Bay Public Library (Community Child Care Center)	1913	F.D. Crandall
Superior	Superior Public Library	1902	Carl Wirth
Superior	Superior Public Library- East End Branch	1917	Kenneth Crumpton
Tomah*	Tomah Public Library	1916	Claude and Starck
Two Rivers	Joseph Mann Library	1914	Unknown
Viroqua	McIntosh Memorial Library	1904	Claude and Starck
Washburn*	Washburn Free Public Library (Washburn Public Library)	1904	Henry Wildhagen
Watertown	Watertown Free Public Library	1906-1907	Claude and Starck
Waukesha	Waukesha Public Library	1904	C.C. Anderson
Waupaca	Free Public Library (Waupaca Public Library)	1914	Parkinson and Dockendorff
Waupun*	Waupun Public Library (Historical Society)(b)	1904(a)	H.A. Foeller(b)
Wausau	Wausau Public Library (Marathon County Public)	1907	George Maher
West Allis	West Allis Public Library	1914	Edwin O. Kuenzli
Wisconsin Dells*	Kilbourn Public Library	1912	Claude and Starck

* listed in National Register of Historic Places

demolished

(a) date funds were allocated from Carnegie Foundation; not date of construction.

(b) information obtained from telephone interview with librarian (7/86)

SOURCE:

Bobinski 1969:208-240; Wisconsin Free Library Commission, 1904:200; Historic Preservation Division, State Historical Society of Wisconsin, files concerning surveys of libraires.

**Non-Carnegie Funded Libraries in Wisconsin
1854-1926**

<u>Community (Library)</u>	<u>Major Donor</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Amount</u>	<u>Architect</u>
Appleton# (Appleton Library)	City	1900(b)	Unknown	Wilhagen and Holbrock(b)
Ashland* (Vaughn Library)	Emmeline E. Vaughn	1886	\$ 75,000	Unknown
Beaver Dam* (Williams Free Library)	J.J. Williams	1890	\$ 30,000	Walter Holbrook
Belleville* (Library Park)	Unknown	1894	Unknown	Al Fuller and John Wall
Boscobel (Boscobel Municipal Library)	Hildebrand	1925-26	\$ 25,000	Claude and Starck
Burlington	Alexander	1899	\$ 5,000	Unknown
Colfax	Unknown	1915	Unknown	Unknown
Delavan	James Aram	1897	\$ 20,000	Claude and Starck
Evansville (Eager Free Public Library)*	A. Eager	1908	\$ 10,000	Claude and Starck
Fennimore* (Dwight T. Parker Public Library)	Dwight D. Parker	1923	\$45,000	Claude and Starck
Green Bay* (Kellogg Public Library)	Rufus Kellogg	1901	\$ 15,000	H.A. Foeller
Kenosha (Gilbert M. Simmons Library)*	Z.G. Simmons	1899	\$170,000	D.H. Burnham
Kenosha* (Boys and Girls Library)	Unknown	1907	Unknown	Max Dunning
La Crosse (Public Library)	C.C. Washburn	1888	\$ 50,000	Unknown
Lake Geneva (Lake Geneva Public Library)	Mrs. G. Sturges	1890-95	\$ 7,000	Unknown
Lake Mills* (L.D. Fargo Public Library)	L.D. Fargo	1902	\$ 6,000	G.B. Ferry
Marinette (Marinette Public Library)	Isaac Stephenson	1903	\$ 30,000	Patton and Miller
Marshfield	City	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
Menasha (Elisha D. Smith Library)*	E.D. Smith	1898	\$ 32,000	Van Ryn and De Gelleke
Menomonie* (Memorial Free Library)	Andrew Tainter	1887-1900	\$190,000	Harvey Ellis
Merrill* (T.B. Scott Free Library)	Thomas B. Scott	1886	\$110,000	Claude and Starck
Milwaukee (Milwaukee Public Library)*	City	1895-99	\$512,000	Ferry and Clas
Monroe (Arabut Ludlow Memorial Library)*	H.W. and W. Ludlow	1904	\$ 12,500	Claude and Starck
Mosinee* (Joseph Dessert Library)	Joseph Dessert	1898	\$ 5,000	Eschweiler
Oconomowoc (Oconomowoc Public Library)*	Citizens	1854	\$ 4,500	Unknown
Oconto (Farnsworth Library)	George Farnsworth	1903	\$ 15,000	H.A. Foeller
Oconto Falls (Charles Cook Memorial Library)	Unknown	1926	Unknown	Piette and Cooke

<u>Community (Library)</u>	<u>Major Donor</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Amount</u>	<u>Architect</u>
Oshkosh (Oshkosh Public Library)	Mrs. Marshall Harris	1895	\$ 75,000	William Waters
	Philetus Sawyer	1898	\$ 25,000	
	City	1898	\$ 51,000	
Palmyra (Powers Memorial Library)	David Powers	1927	\$ 10,000	Claude and Starck
Portage	Zona Gale Breeze	1912	Unknown	Julius Heimerl
Prairie du Sac* (Tripp Memorial Library)	J. Stephens Tripp	1912	\$ 10,575	Joseph Dieson
Sheboygan Sheboygan Falls	James Mead	1902-1904	\$ 20,000	Patton and Miller
	Charles Weisse	1871	Weiss house donated for use as library in 1924	
Spring Green (Spring Green Public Library)	Citizens	1897	Unknown	Unknown
Stanely (D.R. Moon Memorial Library)*	Delos R. Moon	1900	\$ 12,000	W.C. Whitney
Two Rivers	Citizens	1890	\$ 4,000	Unknown
Wabeno	Unknown	1897	Unknown	Unknown
Whitehall	Village	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
Whitewater (White Memorial Library)	Flativa White	1904	\$ 15,000	Claude and Starck
Wausaukee (Wausaukee Free Library)	H. B. Bird	1902	Unknown	Unknown
Wauwatosa (Harwood Library)	Citizens	1886	Unknown	Unknown
Wisconsin Rapids	Thomas B. Scott	1886	\$ 5,000	Unknown
Wisconsin Rapids	J.D. Witter	1899	\$ 10,000	Unknown

* listed in National Register of Historic Places

(b) information obtained from telephone interview with librarian (7/86)

demolished

SOURCE:

Colson 1976:200; Historic Preservation Division, State Historical Society of Wisconsin, files concerning surveys of libraries.

IDENTIFICATION

Resource Types. Library buildings, including those constructed specifically as libraries and multi-purpose buildings that contained a library; houses that served as early libraries; homes of people prominent in the library movement.

Locational Patterns of Resource Types. Most library buildings were built in or adjacent to the central business district. In communities that did not have a separate library building, the library may have been housed in the city or village hall, also centrally located, or in commercial space in the central business district. Libraries of historical significance can be found throughout Wisconsin, but the earliest libraries tend to be located in the southern and eastern parts of the state.

Previous Surveys. In 1983-1984 the architectural historian of the Historic Preservation Division conducted a partial survey of library buildings. Results of that survey were used to compile this study unit and a multiple property National Register nomination.

Survey and Research NeedsThe thematic library survey undertaken by the Historic Preservation Division should be completed. Although the historic context has been developed, site specific research and field work should be undertaken so that each historic library can be evaluated for National Register eligibility. Properties associated with the nineteenth century library movement, including homes of the movement's leaders, should be identified.

EVALUATION

National Register Listings and Determinations of Eligibility

See "Carnegie Funded Libraries in Wisconsin" and "Non-Carnegie Funded Libraries in Wisconsin," lists at the end of the "Historical Background" section. Libraries on both lists marked with an asterisk are listed in the National Register.

Context Considerations. Libraries should be evaluated for their local significance as educational institutions and community centers, and as evidence of a community's commitment to serving the literary and research needs of its residents and the particular needs of its foreign-born population. Libraries of potential state-wide significance include those associated with the early library movement or with legislation concerning the establishment of libraries. Unique collections or purposes are other factors that may determine state-wide significance.

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