Economic Empowerment in the Alabama Black Belt: A Transactional Law Clinic Theory and Model

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ABSTRACT
This essay argues that transactional legal clinics that serve university, urban, and rural communities with cultures and ecosystems shaped by the long-term impacts of racial segregation, Civil Rights, and socioeconomic disenfranchisement can play both a powerful symbolic role and a practical material role in regional economic development by providing direct client representation to historically and economically significant organizations and by training lawyers in transactional methods to use the law to impact the industrial identity and economic vitality of their communities. This essay concludes with a design for a transactional law clinic model.

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INTRODUCTION

There is nothing new about poverty. What is new, however, is that we have the resources to get rid of it. —Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.1

“Thank you ALABAMA!!” read the late-night, December 12, 2017 triumphant tweet from newly elected U.S. Senator Doug Jones,2 a lifelong civil rights attorney and activist and the first Democratic candidate to clinch an Alabama U.S. Senate seat in 25 years.3 In a closely watched special election that shocked the world,4 Senator Jones outgunned Republican candidate Roy Moore by grabbing 50% of the state’s votes to Moore’s 48%.5 Senator Jones won by a narrow 21,924 votes in a traditionally deep-red state that President Trump won in 2016 by 28 points.6 While many intersecting synergies and concerted efforts contributed to one of the greatest political upsets in modern history,7 exit polls make clear that Senator Jones and the Democrats owe the victory to the voters in the Alabama Black Belt, who overwhelmingly voted for Jones by a margin of 65,000 votes.8

The Alabama Black Belt is part of a larger geographical area known as the Southern Black Belt, which stretches from East Texas to the Chesapeake Bay and includes approximately 200 contiguous counties.9 The term “black belt,” in use for more than a century, is presumably derived from early settlers’ descriptions of the rich, dark soil found throughout the region that supported a wealthy economy of cotton produced by the labor of enslaved African-Americans.10 The term only later took on racial connotations, referring to the resulting

1 Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., Address at the Nobel Peace Prize (Dec. 10, 1964).
dense concentration of African-Americans, who make up at least 25% of the overall Southern Black Belt population and approximately 50% of the Alabama Black Belt population.\textsuperscript{11}

The Alabama Black Belt, traditionally composed of 17 counties along a strip through the lower-central portion of Alabama,\textsuperscript{12} is historically significant as the center of the Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s and 1960s.\textsuperscript{13} Several pivotal events occurred in the region and in urban areas of Alabama, including the Montgomery Bus Boycotts;\textsuperscript{14} the bombing of the Sixteenth Street Baptist Church in Birmingham;\textsuperscript{15} and the march for equal rights from Selma to Montgomery,\textsuperscript{16} inspiring the Lowndes County Freedom Organization (later the Black Panther Party).\textsuperscript{17} When the Supreme Court ordered the integration of public schools, then-Alabama Governor George Wallace enshrined himself in the national firmament by his ceremonious “Stand in the Schoolhouse Door” to protest the admittance of two African-American students at the University of Alabama on June 11, 1963,\textsuperscript{18} an act still memorialized on the University’s campus today. These pivotal events all helped to pass the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965.\textsuperscript{19}

Today, the Alabama Black Belt is most distinctly characterized by its poverty and conjures images of deprivation, economic depression, and a lack of access to resources.\textsuperscript{20} When United Nations official Philip Alston, whose job it is to visit poverty-stricken areas throughout the world, toured counties in the Alabama Black Belt in December 2017, he was shocked by the harsh conditions of poverty he found, particularly with respect to a lack of sewerage infrastructure and the raw sewage disposal methods used.\textsuperscript{21} Lowndes County, just 20 miles from the state’s capital of Montgomery, once referred to as “The Place God Forgot,”\textsuperscript{22} is just one county in the Alabama Black Belt where residents “straight-pipe” their raw sewage, which involves self-installing PVC pipes to carry human waste into small ditches or open air ponds, often within a few feet of the residents’ homes.\textsuperscript{23} The heavy Alabama rains often cause

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{11} Gibbs, supra note 9, at 255; Winemiller, supra note 10.
  \item \textsuperscript{12} The 17 traditional Black Belt counties are Barbour, Bullock, Butler, Choctaw, Crenshaw, Dallas, Greene, Hale, Lowndes, Macon, Marengo, Montgomery, Perry, Pike, Russell, Sumter, and Wilcox. Winemiller, supra note 10.
  \item \textsuperscript{13} JEFF BINGAMAN, ALABAMA BLACK BELT NATIONAL HERITAGE AREA ACT, S. REP. NO. 111-265, 2d Sess. (2010) [hereinafter Heritage Act].
  \item \textsuperscript{14} Id.
  \item \textsuperscript{15} Id.
  \item \textsuperscript{16} Id.
  \item \textsuperscript{17} CLAYBORNE CARSON, IN STRUGGLE: SNCC AND THE BLACK AWAKENING OF THE 1960S 153 (1981).
  \item \textsuperscript{19} Heritage Act, supra note 13.
  \item \textsuperscript{20} See Gibbs, supra note 9, at 255.
  \item \textsuperscript{22} Michael Harriot, Lowndes County, Ala.: The Place God Forgot, ROOT (APR. 27, 2018), https://www.theroott.com/lowndes-county-ala-the-place-god-forgot-1825483659.
  \item \textsuperscript{23} Id.
\end{itemize}
flooding and spreads the sewage throughout the area, resulting in incidents of third world diseases, such as hookworm.\textsuperscript{24}

Statistically, in 2017, the per capita personal income for all of Alabama was 79\% of the national U.S. average, ranking 46 out of 50 states and D.C., and one in six Alabamians currently live below the federal poverty line (less than $25,100 for a family of four).\textsuperscript{25} The state poverty rate of 19\% is higher than the national rate of 15.9\%.\textsuperscript{26} In the Alabama Black Belt, however, that rate escalates to 30\% and higher.\textsuperscript{27} Nine of the ten poorest counties in Alabama are in the Black Belt, with an average estimated per capita income in 2010 of $15,826.\textsuperscript{28} In Dallas County, the location of the historic city of Selma, the poverty rate is 36.8\%, and almost 60\% of Dallas County children live below the poverty line.\textsuperscript{29}

While several factors contribute to this high rate of poverty, such as poor education, lack of access to healthcare, lack of infrastructure, such as sewerage or internet access, and lack of access to employment opportunities, the resulting effects to the poverty-stricken area include high rates of diabetes and heart disease, a high rate of low birth weights, a high proportion of families living in mobile homes,\textsuperscript{30} the inability to apply online for benefits, and the inability to use Wi-Fi in rural public schools and in public places of business. Throughout the years, numerous government agencies and NGOs have not only supplied humanitarian aid efforts to the people living in the Alabama Black Belt, but also established economic development programs to help bridge the educational and economic gap between Black Belt residents and the rest of the state.\textsuperscript{31}

To aid in that effort, institutions of higher learning, law schools and legal clinics, in particular, can play both a symbolic and material role in instituting programs and initiatives aimed at improving the human rights crisis in the Alabama Black Belt. In his 2018 book, \textit{Innovations as Symbols in Higher Education}, J. David Johnson argues that innovative programs at institutions of higher learning are often merely symbolic in nature and are otherwise “decoupled” from any material or practical applications to that innovation or research.\textsuperscript{32} He is particularly critical of the recent development of R & D parks, often affiliated with or supported by public and private institutions of higher learning in order to replicate the apparent success of Silicon Valley and our growing U.S. entrepreneurial culture.\textsuperscript{33} In response to Johnson’s critiques, this essay argues that law school legal clinics can overcome that divide,

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{24}Id.
\item \textsuperscript{26}Poverty Biggest Problem, supra note 25.
\item \textsuperscript{27}Id.
\item \textsuperscript{29}Poverty Biggest Problem, supra note 25.
\item \textsuperscript{30}Gibbs, supra note 9, at 256–57.
\item \textsuperscript{31}See infra Part I.C.1.
\item \textsuperscript{32}J. DAVID JOHNSON, \textit{INNOVATIONS AS SYMBOLS IN HIGHER EDUCATION} 10 (2018).
\item \textsuperscript{33}Id. at 113–15.
\end{itemize}
taking such innovative programs beyond their symbolic value and creating practical and material benefits to the community stakeholders supporting and supported by the institution.

This essay further argues that transactional legal clinics that serve university, urban, and rural communities with cultures and ecosystems shaped by the long-term impacts of racial segregation, Civil Rights, and socioeconomic disenfranchisement can play both a powerful symbolic role and a practical material role in regional economic development by providing direct client representation, workshops, and policy research to and on behalf of historically and economically significant clients and organizations. By training law students in transactional methods, transactional legal clinics can teach students to use the law to impact the industrial identities and economic vitalities of their communities. Finally, this essay provides a model of this transactional law clinical theory as the blueprint for the new Entrepreneurship & Nonprofit Clinic (“E-Clinic”) at the Hugh F. Culverhouse Jr. School of Law at the University of Alabama.

This essay has two parts. Part I provides the historical context for how the Alabama Black Belt came to be what it is today, chronicling the swings through the nadirs and peaks of the region’s economic story. Part I then discusses the impact that the Civil Rights Movement had on the population of the Alabama Black Belt. Part I ends with an overview of the current economic state of the region and a discussion of the continued need for improved access to infrastructure. Part II of this essay introduces the role of symbolism versus materiality in higher education academic programs and discusses how transactional law clinics are particularly situated to bridge the divide between symbolic and material program developments to empower rural communities, especially ones with ties to rich civil rights histories, and develop and contribute to the production of entrepreneurship and economic development in the region. Part II will then discuss the current statistical data on transactional legal clinics, still a novel program and course offering at many U.S. law schools. Finally, Part II provides a model of the E-Clinic at Alabama Law, focusing on the community impact, pedagogical goals, and clinic design. The essay concludes with a discussion of how this clinic design can contribute to the economic development and empowerment of West Alabama by both directly providing transactional legal services in multiple settings and by training law students in the role of transactional lawyers in contributing to the building the industrial regional identities and economic vitalities of their communities.

I. POVERTY IN THE BLACK BELT

[O]vercoming poverty is not a gesture of charity. It is an act of justice. —Nelson Mandela

Like so many counties included in the Southern Black Belt, the counties considered part of the Alabama Black Belt owe their agricultural, historical, and cultural identities to the area’s geology and to the development of one crop in particular—cotton. During the early to mid-1800s, the vast network of cotton plantations in the region made the area one of the wealthiest and politically influential ones in the nation. After the Civil War, however, emancipation, Reconstruction, and other factors crippled the state’s cotton industry, leading to a period of economic downturn and migration out of the Black Belt counties and into urban centers.

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34 Nelson Mandela, Address for the “Make Poverty History” Campaign (Feb. 3, 2005).
35 BRIDGES, supra note 10, at 70; Heritage Act, supra note 13.
36 See generally BRIDGES, supra note 10, at 129–39.
The Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s and 1960s also impacted the cultural and historical identity of the state, creating a lasting splinter along racial and socioeconomic lines which continues to influence the now-poverty stricken residents of the Black Belt area. While there are numerous humanitarian efforts and programs focused on developing and improving the quality of life for residents in the Alabama Black Belt, more work remains to assist in the economic development, including infrastructure building, healthcare access, improved education, and economic and employment opportunities.

A. “LIFE AFTER COTTON”

With the onset of the Industrial Revolution, no state benefited from the burgeoning textile industry more than Alabama. In 1810, the U.S. Census Office estimated that the cotton gin increased the productivity of cotton seed removal at a rate of 1,000 to one. When Alabama opened for settlement, the rush to claim and cultivate the rich, dark soil led to “Alabama fever,” but the immigration of plantation farmers from Georgia, Virginia, Maryland, and the Carolinas into Alabama brought with it the institution of slavery.

By the 1830s, the positioning of Alabama on the larger international industrial markets made Alabama, and the planters who profited from the international markets, one of the wealthiest and politically powerful groups in the United States. With the slave-owning planters controlling state government, Alabama passed law after law tightening the restrictions on enslaved African-Americans, and slavery in the South became what is historically considered one of the harshest forms, based exclusively on notions of racial superiority and using extreme physical violence to ensure production and the continuance of the institution.

With the establishment of the Confederacy and onset of the Civil War in the 1860s, Montgomery was the first capital of the new Confederacy, and Jefferson Davis was inaugurated as the President of the Confederacy there on February 13, 1861. At the end of the Civil War, Wilson’s Raid swept through central and western Alabama in spring 1865, destroying iron furnaces in Shelby, Jefferson, Tuscaloosa, and Bibb Counties, burning the University of Alabama and the Confederate manufacturing complex in Selma, finally turning to Montgomery, where the capital surrendered without a fight on April 12, 1865, days after Lee had surrendered at Appomattox. Rebuilding the economy, which was agrarian and slave-

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38 See infra Part I.C.1.
40 BRIDGES, supra note 10, at 57.
41 Id. at 58.
42 Id. at 60.
43 Id. at 71; Heritage Act, supra note 13.
44 BRIDGES, supra note 10, at 78.
45 Id. at 80.
46 RODGERS, supra note 37, at 190–91; BRIDGES, supra note 10, at 96.
47 BRIDGES, supra note 10, at 111.
48 Id.
based in Alabama and most of the Southern states, was a top priority for both then-Democrats and Republicans in the state.\textsuperscript{49}

\textbf{1. RAILROADS, IRON AND STEEL MILLS, AND THE FOUNDING OF BIRMINGHAM}

During Reconstruction, Alabama turned to building railroads at the core of its economic development plan. Throughout the 1870s, two railroad companies, The South & North Railroad from Montgomery to Decatur and the Alabama & Chattanooga Railroad from Meridian to Chattanooga, competed for the land where the two rail lines converged.\textsuperscript{50} The South & North Railroad line struck first, forming the Elyton Land Company and naming the new town at the junction site Birmingham.\textsuperscript{51} Birmingham, in support of railroad building, became home to a burgeoning and successful iron and coal industry, and its coal production supported the Birmingham economy for years to come.\textsuperscript{52} Dubbed the “Magic City,” Birmingham grew from a town of 3,086 people in 1880 to a major “New South” city of 132,685 people by 1910.\textsuperscript{53} Alabama entrepreneurs hoping to tap into this new economy often sought out of state investors to fund their new businesses, and these outside investors gradually began to control Alabama’s coal mines, furnaces, and railroads.\textsuperscript{54}

While the service and administrative jobs stayed within Birmingham, much of the wealth generated from the industry went to the investors and owners who were out of state.\textsuperscript{55} All of this industry supported the laying of railroad tracks. By 1880, Alabama had 1,800 miles of tracks and more than 5,000 by 1910, and railroad companies became a powerful economic and political driving force in the state.\textsuperscript{56}

\textbf{2. TIMBER AND TEXTILES}

When settlers first came to Alabama, over 90\% of Alabama was considered forest-land, and the production of timber, specifically long leaf pine, was a major contributor to the monetization of Alabama’s natural resources.\textsuperscript{57} Beginning in 1850, the government granted swaths of land to companies as an incentive to develop it, mostly to the railroad companies as they laid more tracks through the state.\textsuperscript{58} By 1869, Alabama produced approximately 86

\textsuperscript{49} Id. at 112. Historians break down the ten years of Reconstruction in Alabama into three periods: from 1865 to 1867, when President Andrew Johnson set the terms for Reconstruction, which were considered lenient to the former slave-holding states; from 1867 to 1874, when U.S. Congress actively sought to protect the liberties and economic opportunities for former slaves; and 1874 to the end of Reconstruction, during which time the federal government essentially “gave up” on protecting the rights of African-Americans, allowing white Democrats in Alabama to regain their political control in the state.

\textsuperscript{50} Id. at 129–30.

\textsuperscript{51} Id. at 130.

\textsuperscript{52} Id. at 131.

\textsuperscript{53} Id. at 133.

\textsuperscript{54} Id.

\textsuperscript{55} Id.

\textsuperscript{56} Id. at 135.

\textsuperscript{57} Id. at 136.

\textsuperscript{58} Id. at 137.
million board feet of lumber and, by 1899, almost 1 billion.\textsuperscript{59} According to the 1910 census, 22,409 of Alabama’s 72,148 wage earning workers cut or milled wood.\textsuperscript{60} With the invention of the steam engine, Alabamians were able to transport their lumber nationwide and overseas, building structures in Alabama, the northern United States, and Europe.\textsuperscript{61} Allegedly, the walls and floors of Prince Albert and Queen Victoria’s royal castle in Scotland were built with longleaf pine from Alabama’s forests.\textsuperscript{62}

Reconstruction also saw the re-emergence of Alabama’s textile industry, and producers from the Northeast began building textile mills in the South, which were simply closer to the cotton supply and the waterpower used to pump the machines.\textsuperscript{63} Most importantly to textile mill owners, wage rates in the South were much cheaper than in the North, and by 1910, textile manufacturing became Alabama’s second largest industry based on employment, where one-third of these workers were women.\textsuperscript{64}

3. RURAL ALABAMA

While many out-of-state and Alabama residents flocked to Birmingham and other urban centers supporting the coal, steel, timber, and textile industries, most of Alabama and its residents remained in rural areas.\textsuperscript{65} According to the 1910 census, 17% of the Alabama population lived in towns or urban centers of 2,500 people or more, and 83% of the 2.1 million Alabama residents lived in considerably bleak rural areas.\textsuperscript{66} While sharecropping grew after Reconstruction, in 1910 85% of all Alabama farms operated by African-Americans and 48% operated by whites were considered tenant or rental farming.\textsuperscript{67} Sharecroppers paid for the use of their land by pledging a portion of their crops in advance to the landowner; tenant farmers paid cash to rent their farmed tracts, and both groups cultivated crops on land that they did not own.\textsuperscript{68} Sharecroppers would often rely on the landowners to advance funds to pay for things they needed for the upcoming year like seed, fertilizer, and a mule, which costs were then deducted from the sharecroppers’ profits when the landowner sold the cotton, and sharecroppers often ended up in debt.\textsuperscript{69} Despite emancipation, in many ways Reconstruction became a continuation of the institution of slavery as Alabama struggled to rebuild its broken, cotton-based economy.

Additionally, poor farming practices decimated the actual farming land, as sharecroppers had little incentive to protect or restore land that they might not even farm the
following year.\textsuperscript{70} These poor farming practices led to erosion, loss of topsoil, and decreased soil fertility.\textsuperscript{71} In 1896, George Washington Carver visited the Tuskegee Institute to head the school’s Agricultural Department and noted the “devastated forests, ruined estates, and thoroughly discouraged people, many just eking out a miserable sort of existence from the furrowed and guttered hillsides and neglected valleys called farms.”\textsuperscript{72} While life in the small towns that served the rural farms was somewhat improved,\textsuperscript{73} throughout this entire period after Reconstruction, wages in Alabama remained at about 50% of the national average.\textsuperscript{74} Rural industrialization proceeded slowly, and landowners had a vested interest in having a workforce with limited alternative employment opportunities, who were forced to piece together sustenance through farming or any available factory work.\textsuperscript{75}

B. CIVIL RIGHTS IMPACT

The census of 1870 showed approximately 475,000 black residents in Alabama and 521,000 whites.\textsuperscript{76} Formerly enslaved freedmen made up almost 48% of the state’s population. Most laws used by Alabama officials during the years following Reconstruction were not overtly racist, such as vagrancy laws, even if such laws disproportionately targeted African-Americans.\textsuperscript{77} Most state officials were too fearful that the federal government would strike down any such overtly racist laws.\textsuperscript{78} However, during the 1870s and 1880s, prompted by a series of Supreme Court decisions which weakened the impact and intended effects of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments,\textsuperscript{79} and the with the pivotal Supreme Court decision of \textit{Plessy vs. Ferguson} in 1896 which upheld Louisiana’s “separate, but equal” mandate,\textsuperscript{80} Southern whites were emboldened to tighten their control over the growing African-American middle class.\textsuperscript{81}

\textsuperscript{70} Id. at 145.
\textsuperscript{71} Id.
\textsuperscript{73} BRIDGES, supra note 10, at 146.
\textsuperscript{74} Id.
\textsuperscript{75} Id. at 144, 146.
\textsuperscript{76} Id. at 112.
\textsuperscript{77} Id. at 153.
\textsuperscript{78} Id.; JILL NORGREN & SERENA NANDA, AMERICAN CULTURAL PLURALISM AND LAW 46 (3d ed. 2006).
\textsuperscript{79} See United States v. Reese, 92 U.S. 214 (1875) (held that the 15th Amendment did not confer the right to vote, but that right derived from the states, leaving states to determine under what circumstances voting would be allowed); United States v. Cruikshank, 92 U.S. 542 (1875) (held that the 14th Amendment only protects against state action); United States v. Harris, 106 U.S. 629 (1883) (held that federal laws aimed at preventing the invasion of equal protection did not apply to private persons, essentially allowing white supremacists to attack African Americans seeking to vote).
\textsuperscript{81} In rural areas, segregation laws had little impact on the already existing social and political structure in which wealthy planters and landowners controlled the social and economic culture of the area. BRIDGES, supra note 10, at 154. But in cities, where residents were crowded together \textit{en masse}
The New Deal and World War II created new challenges for Alabama’s system of racial segregation and oppression. The African-American middle class in towns and cities across the U.S. grew, with African-Americans becoming teachers, preachers, doctors, lawyers, business owners, skilled workers, and public employees. Many had college degrees and understood the systems of inequality and oppression in which they lived. Both urban and rural parts of Alabama were impacted by the Civil Rights Movement that was to come, and Alabama’s historical ties to the Civil Rights Movement continue to shape its residents’ economic instability, racial tensions, and perceptions of state government.

1. ROLE OF SCHOOLS & INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING

Schools and institutions of higher learning became a symbolic and material battleground for segregationists. One Alabama historian points out that the most violent and emotional area of desegregation was in education and public schools. Even in the face of the Supreme Court’s decision in Brown v. Board of Education in 1954, public institutions resisted integration. Atherine Lucy, the first African American to enroll at the University of Alabama in 1956, was expelled a month later “for her own safety” after rioting occurred on campus. Federal judges, in particular Judge Frank Johnson of Alabama’s Middle District, were forced to issue comprehensive and detailed orders for school desegregation in Alabama. White-dominated school boards continued to resist and, in the political struggle, historians in public spaces, new laws required segregation in public transportation, restrooms, lodging, theaters, parks, swimming pools, libraries, hospitals, stadiums, prisons, and waiting rooms. Self-appointed individuals and groups acted as enforcement agencies, often in concert with and supported by state and local officials, using fear, violence, and intimidation. These years saw the re-emergence of the Ku Klux Klan, prompted further by the widespread dissemination of the film The Birth of a Nation, which painted the Klan as the saviors of white morality and purity. See Eric M. Armstrong, Revered and Reviled: D.W. Griffith’s “The Birth of a Nation”, MOVING ARTS FILM J., May 29, 2010, https://web.archive.org/web/20100529224316/http://themovingarts.com/revered-and-reviled-d-w-griffiths-the-birth-of-a-nation/. A 2015 study by the Equal Justice Initiative in Montgomery identified 363 recorded lynchings of African-American’s in Alabama alone between 1877 and 1950. EQUAL JUST. INITIATIVE, LYNCHING IN AMERICA: CONFRONTING THE LEGACY OF RACIAL TERROR 16 (2d ed. 2015), https://eji.org/sites/default/files/lynching-in-america-second-edition-summary.pdf.

82 BRIDGES, supra note 10, at 206.
83 Id.
84 Id.
85 Id. at 220.
86 Id. at 221.
87 Diane McWhorter, The Day Atherine Lucy Dared to Integrate the University of Alabama, 32 J. BLACKS HIGHER EDUC. 100–01 (2001); see also The Papers of Martin Luther King, Jr., https://swap.stanford.edu/20141218232248/http://mlk-kpp01.stanford.edu/kingweb/about_king/details/560206.htm. When Alabamians saw that Justice Hugo Black, a graduate of the University of Alabama School of Law, sided with the majority in Brown vs. Board of Education, he was ostracized so strongly that he did not return to his native soil for over twenty years. DANIEL JOHN MEADOR, THE TRANSFORMATIVE YEARS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA LAW SCHOOL, 1966-1970, at 14 (NEW S. BOOKS 2012).
88 BRIDGES, supra note 10, at 221.
point out that the white reactions to integration shaped Alabama’s current public school racial and socioeconomic demographics today.

2. ROLE OF STUDENTS

Students also played a crucial role in the Civil Rights Movement. Alabama State College students staged numerous sit-ins in Montgomery in 1960, but officials forced the college to expel or suspend the student leaders and fire the faculty members that supported them. Many of the 1961 Freedom Riders, who organized to test the new anti-segregation laws in public transportation, were organized by students at Tennessee State University and Fisk University in Nashville, including then-student John Lewis, a native of Troy, Alabama. The violence that befell the Freedom Riders in both Birmingham and Montgomery drew national attention to the plight of African-Americans in Alabama. President Kennedy focused more attention on equality and caused moderate whites in Alabama to support the anti-segregation movement.

But state officials in Alabama continued to resist. When George Wallace won the governorship in 1962, in his inaugural address in January 1963 he appealed to his base, declaring “segregation today, segregation tomorrow, segregation forever” to rapturous applause from his constituents. When the University of Alabama was desegregated in 1963, Governor Wallace ceremoniously engaged in his infamous “Stand in the Schoolhouse Door” to protest the admittance of two African-American students, Vivian Malone and James Hood. While Hood left the University after a few months, Vivian Malone became the first black graduate of the University of Alabama in 1965.

In April 1963, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. and protest leader Fred Shuttlesworth arranged a series of sit-ins and demonstrations in Birmingham, joined by hundreds of students and young people who were thirsty for equality and change. The police commissioner arrested the students by the hundreds and, in the face of national news TV cameras, turned the fire hoses and dogs on the students in an attempt to punish them for their demonstration. The national outrage in reaction to the violence prompted Birmingham to begin desegregating its public facilities. In retaliation, Klansmen planted a bomb at the Sixteenth Street Baptist Church in Birmingham, then dubbed “Bombingham,” killing four little girls aged 11 to 14 who were attending Sunday School on September 15, 1963. Two months after President Kennedy

89 Id. at 209.
90 Id. at 210–11.
91 Id. at 211.
92 Id. at 213; Governor George C. Wallace, Inaugural Address (Jan. 14, 1963), http://media.al.com/spotnews/other/George%20Wallace%201963%20Inauguration%20Speech.pdf.
95 BRIDGES, supra note 10, at 213.
96 Id. at 215.
97 See generally ANTHONY GROOMS, BOMBINGHAM (2002).
98 RODGERS, supra note 37, at 560.
proposed his Civil Rights Bill to end segregation in employment and public facilities, he was assassinated, but his successor Lyndon Johnson was able to secure the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.  

3. ROLE OF SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS

Socioeconomic status became just as crucial as race in shaping the outcomes of the integration “experiment” in the 1960s. For middle-class African-American students whose lifestyles already resembled those of their white classmates, their chances for success were higher despite the intense discrimination they faced, many moving to more affluent suburbs so their children could attend better schools. However, in parts of Alabama with large numbers of African-American students who lived near or below the poverty line, like in many Alabama Black Belt counties, white families who had the financial capacity abandoned public schools, either by moving or by establishing private schools and charter schools. This resulted in de facto segregation in public schools and triggered a “self-reinforcing cycle of public school decline and abandonment.” The lasting impact of the role that schools and public universities played in the Civil Rights Movement is not forgotten. Many who lived through the violence and resistance on university campuses still remember the impact of the events today, and the University of Alabama in particular has actively sought to honor the legacies of those students who fought for equal access to education.
A. CURRENT ECONOMIC STATE

While the urban areas may have experienced more resiliency in bouncing back from both racial and economic oppression, rural Alabama, especially the Black Belt counties, struggled to find economic stability. Numerous organizations, both affiliated with government agencies and institutions of higher learning in the state, have designed and implemented development activities and initiatives aimed at increasing economic development and support to residents in the Alabama Black Belt. Because many of these programs were initiated within the last ten to twenty years, the long-term impact of these programs remains to be seen. What is apparent, however, is that current Black Belt residents continue to suffer from the impacts of racial, social, and economic depression, causing what some have referred to as a human rights crisis in Alabama.

1. INDUSTRIAL IDENTITIES

Today, Alabama’s industries are a reflection of its past and a nod to its potential economic future. These industries include: the aeronautics, space program, and tech industry; the automotive manufacturing industry; chemical manufacturing and metal manufacturing; natural resources industries focused on timber, textiles, and agricultural development; and the University of Alabama university system itself, which supports a medical center hub in Birmingham, for example, and a state-wide football culture that unifies recognition and support of the Crimson Tide football program.

2. ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS AND INITIATIVES

Building off of the area’s economic history and natural resources, programs aimed at improving economic development focus on increasing low-skilled manufacturing jobs in the transportation industries, agriculture and forestry, mining, fishing, and construction. Other initiatives focus on improving health outcomes and overall quality of life for Alabama Black Belt residents.

In 2005, a joint plan was announced between Alabama and Mississippi to create a two-state authority for economic development in the region. The plan was to locate four sites for industrial parks, two of which would be in the Alabama Black Belt, which would bring low-
skilled, assembly-line type jobs to the area.\(^{108}\) The Black Belt Development Alliance, in conjunction with the University of West Alabama, was created in 2011 and focuses on 11 counties in the Alabama Black Belt, aimed at “assist[ing] companies and site location consultants [to] find available sites and buildings” in the region.\(^{109}\) In addition to these programs, smaller organizations, such as the Economic Development Partnership of Alabama,\(^{110}\) the Alabama Forestry Association,\(^{111}\) and a Pilot Loan Program for Black Belt Farmers seeks to capitalize on the area’s farming and forestry history to bring economic stability to the region.\(^{112}\)

Other initiatives have stated goals of improving the overall quality of life of Black Belt residents, building upon the area’s historical and cultural history. These initiatives include the Alabama Rural Heritage Foundation,\(^{113}\) Alabama’s Front Porches,\(^{114}\) the Alabama Black Belt National Heritage Area Act of 2010,\(^{115}\) the Alabama Black Belt Adventures Association,\(^{116}\) Black Belt Treasures Cultural Arts Center,\(^{117}\) and the Robert Trent Jones Golf Trail,\(^{118}\) among others.

Additionally, other programs aim at improving educational outcomes or are sponsored by institutions of higher learning in order to immerse college-age students in the problems facing Alabama Black Belt residents. These include Books for the Alabama Black Belt,\(^{119}\) a Black Belt Community Foundation Head Start Grant for $1.4 million,\(^{120}\) the Alabama Coalition for a Healthier Black Belt,\(^{123}\) Alliance for Economic Inclusion,\(^{124}\) and Community Grants through the Black Belt Community Foundation.\(^{123}\)

In 2009, the University of Alabama

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108 Id.
115 Heritage Act, supra note 13, at 2–3.
Honors College launched a “Black Belt Experience” for its honors students, and the Culverhouse College of Business at the University of Alabama houses the UA Center for Economic Development, the Alabama Small Business Development Center, the Center for Business and Economic Research, and the Alabama Entrepreneurship Institute.

Overall, government agencies and Black Belt developers are optimistic that such programs, along with many others too numerous to discuss here, will bring increased economic activity, cultural development, improved educational outcomes, and infrastructure development to residents in the Alabama Black Belt.

3. CONTINUED NEED FOR ACCESS TO INFRASTRUCTURE

Because many of these Black Belt focused economic development programs are relatively recent, the long-term impact of the influx of capital, resources, and humanitarian aid to the region remains unknown. What is apparent is that, to this day, the poverty in the Alabama Black Belt counties is still starkly clear to the naked eye, and more work remains to alleviate the dire economic instability and poor health outcomes for Black Belt residents.

When United Nations official Philip Alston visited Alabama in December 2017 during a two-week long investigation into poverty in the U.S., he opined that the level of poverty he witnessed in the Black Belt of Alabama was “very uncommon in the first world. This is not a sight that one normally sees.” The Alabama Department of Public Health estimates that 40 to 90 percent of homes [in the Alabama Black Belt] have either inadequate or no septic system,” and that at least half of the septic systems that are installed do not work correctly. Many residents of the area, including a man named Paul, who was interviewed by journalist Michael Harriot for The Root, “straight-pipe” their sewage, which involves digging a hole near the property and then running pipes, above ground, from their homes to the pit, allowing the raw sewage to fill the holes.

Some residents do not even bother to dig a pit and instead simply allow the pipes to flow into their yards a few feet from their homes. Even with installed septic tanks, the humid soil and the heavy Alabama rains often cause the septic tanks to overflow. In either instance, sewage often leaks into the soil, which infects the ground with parasites and diseases. Paul, who jokingly played on President Trump’s “shithole country” remarks, said “You wanna see

128 Harriot, supra note 22.
129 Id.
130 Id.
131 Id.
a shithole? I’m finna show you a shithole,” he exclaimed.\textsuperscript{132} “That man needs to come down here. He’ll see that he’s the president of a shithole!”\textsuperscript{133}

The infrastructure crisis facing the Alabama Black Belt counties is just one feature of the poverty and lack of access to resources experienced by residents of the area. The infrastructure failures reach further than broken sewerage systems, and impacts other vital resources, such as Wi-Fi and broadband access, which limits economic growth, educational opportunities, and business opportunities. While many of the economic development initiatives are aimed at ameliorating the poor health outcomes and lack of opportunity to Black Belt residents, including those run and operated by institutions of higher learning in the state, to experience economic empowerment, Black Belt residents must see economic development and infrastructure building so that they will feel like they no longer live in the “Place God Forgot.”\textsuperscript{134}

II. SYMBOLISM AND MATERIALITY IN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

To get away from poverty, you need several things at the same time: school, health, and infrastructure—those are the public investments. And on the other side, you need market opportunities, information, employment, and human rights. —Hans Rosling\textsuperscript{135}

Institutions of higher learning can play both a symbolic and material role in instituting programs and initiatives aimed at improving the economic and social wellbeing of urban and rural populations supported by the institution. College campuses can play a symbolic role within their communities, in both the branding of their university names, flagship programs, and their historical ties to political and social movements that become permanent links in the minds of the community members. However, institutions of higher learning have received criticism for valuing research and symbolic program innovations without impacting on a material or practical level the community that supports the institution.\textsuperscript{136}

Legal clinics, in particular transactional legal clinics that support entrepreneurship, community development, and innovation, can overcome the symbolic versus materiality divide and produce measurable positive impacts in the supporting community. While more data is

\textsuperscript{132} Id.
\textsuperscript{133} Id. The sewerage crisis alone has led to the rise of diseases associated with third world countries—hookworm and E. Coli—and Alabama has seen a resurgence of these diseases in recent years. Hookworm causes iron deficiency, anemia, weight loss, tiredness, and impaired mental function. \textit{Id.} A peer-reviewed research paper, published in the \textit{American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene}, found that among 24 households tested in Lowndes County, 42.4\% reported exposure to raw sewerage within their homes, and from 55 stool samples, 19 (34.5\%) tested positive for \textit{N. americanus} (hookworm), four (7.3\%) for \textit{Strongyloides stercoralis} (roundworm), and one (1.8\%) for \textit{Entamoeba histolytica} (amebic dysentery). Megan L. McKenna, Shannon McAtee, Patricia E. Bryan, Rebecca Jeun, Tabitha Ward, Jacob Kraus, Maria E. Bottazzi, Peter J. Hotez, Catherine C. Flowers & Rojelio Mejia, \textit{Human Intestinal Parasite Burden and Poor Sanitation in Rural Alabama}, 97 AM. J. TROPICAL MED. & HYGIENE 1623 (2017).
\textsuperscript{134} Harriot, \textit{supra} note 22.
\textsuperscript{136} See \textit{Johnson, supra} note 32, at 110–11.
needed to measure the qualitative impact of transactional legal clinics, a new Entrepreneurship & Nonprofit Clinic at the University of Alabama School of Law aims to contribute to bridging the symbolism versus materiality divide and to reclaim the branding and symbolism historically tied to institutions of higher learning in Alabama by supporting programs and organizations focused on eradicating poverty and building infrastructure in the Alabama Black Belt.

A. RECLAIMING THE SYMBOLISM VS. MATERIALITY PARADIGM

*Black’s Law Dictionary* simply defines “symbol” as a “sign or word used to indicate or signify an idea, relationship[,] or object.” According to *Merriam-Webster Dictionary*, a “symbol” is “[s]omething that stands for or suggests something else by reason of relationship, association, convention, or accidental resemblance; especially: a visible sign of something invisible.” The Greek definition is particularly useful, as a symbol represents “inferences of other phenomenon, perhaps ones of greater permanence and importance.” By viewing a symbol, the viewer can infer larger societal, cultural, or historical significance that the symbol represents or conjures.

1. SYMBOLS AND CULTURE

Symbols are intrinsic to the cultural fabric of the United States. According to the Library of Congress, the United States itself has six primary symbols that represent larger concepts underlining an American value system: the Liberty Bell, the U.S. flag, the bald eagle, the national anthem, Uncle Sam, and the Statue of Liberty. According to Murray Jacob Edelman, the author of *The Symbolic Uses of Politics*, “[e]very symbol stands for something other than itself, and it also evokes an attitude, a set of impressions, or a pattern of events associated through time, through space, through logic, or through imagination with the symbol.” Understanding the symbol conveys to the viewer a broader cultural and historical concept or idea and can bestow upon the viewer a “comprehensi[on of] the social fabric within which they are enmeshed, and which therefore expresses the character of the organization,

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138 Symbol, BLACK’S LAW DICTIONARY (2d ed. 1910).


140 JOHNSON, supra note 32, at 8.


Symbols are a concrete indication of more abstract values, often with some end in view, so that symbols often have some instrumental value. In recent years, there has been a culture war over historical symbols in public spaces, particularly those with linkages to the Confederacy and the institution of slavery. For example, New Orleans Mayor Mitch Landrieu recently ordered the removal of a statue from famed “Lee Circle,” a roundabout in New Orleans at the center of which stood a statute in memoriam to the Confederate General Robert E. Lee. This order caused outrage by many members of the New Orleans community and generated strong support from others. Those who opposed the removal argued that it was erasing a part of New Orleans and Southern history, while those who supported the removal tied the statute to its larger symbolic support of the institution of racism-based slavery upon which the Confederacy was built. This one example also demonstrates that symbols can evoke different value sets and cultural references to different groups, depending on the viewer’s larger perception of the symbol’s linkages to history and society.

2. SYMBOLS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Symbols in higher education and college campuses have not escaped the recent political and cultural melee. This past year, Yale University decided to change the name of a residential college named after John C. Calhoun, the valedictorian of his Yale class and a 19th century white supremacist statesman from South Carolina, who later became the seventh U.S. Vice President. Yale renamed the residential college after Grace Murray Hopper, a computer scientist and Navy rear admiral who received her master’s degree and doctorate from Yale and who was once quoted as stating, “Humans are allergic to change. They love to say, ‘We’ve always done it this way.’ I try to fight that.”

Symbolism on college campuses and institutions of higher learning reach further than those touching on the political. Flagship programs can represent and tie the university to the larger community and come to define the culture and history of a university on a national

144 JOHNSON, supra note 32, at 8.
147 See id. Contractors slated to remove the monument received death threats, forcing the first three of four monuments slated for removal to occur in the middle of the night. Id.
148 See id. The author remembers “Lee Circle” as a popular meeting place to watch parades during her youth.
150 Id.
level. Athletic programs, such as the football program at the University of Alabama, can come to symbolize the university’s intrinsic value in community and culture building for residents close to the institution. When such athletic programs are tarnished, such as the Penn State football program or the Michigan State gymnastics program, it can diminish the overall cultural standing of the university and forever tie its memory to the scandal on a national level. Innovative academic programs and prestigious graduate schools, such as law schools, business schools, and medical schools, can become flagship symbols of a university to the larger community, gaining the university not only increased academic prestige but community and local pride. Especially in the law school context, many future leaders of the bar, state and federal judges, state legislators, and members of Congress will likely have law degrees and will go on to shape the larger social and political fabric of the country.

In that sense, reputation becomes the corollary to the symbol that the institution has in the view of outsiders and community stakeholders. Reputation management of those symbols can become a challenge when different stakeholders measure the value of a symbol based on their individual interaction and understanding of what it represents to them. For institutions of higher learning that have strong historical linkages to the Civil Rights Movement, where public education and integration played such a prominent role in a school’s national perceptions, addressing the continued impact of those symbolic linkages must address those symbol’s meanings to all constituents involved. Any symbolic action or innovation must embrace the full range of that institution’s symbolic value to university officials, educators, alumni, students, and community members. Those responsible for programmatic innovations must therefore contemplate both the symbolic and practical impact of the program. Symbols matter in higher education because they become just one way that a university signals its values to these different stakeholders.

3. Symbolism Versus Materiality

In his recent book, Innovations as Symbols in Higher Education, J. David Johnson examines and critiques higher education in the United States and its embrace of innovative programs as their signaling function. While Western culture, he argues, values progress and is pro-innovation, often the “primary purpose of participating in innovation is purely symbolic—a demonstration that you are forward looking and modern, willing to jump on

154 See MEADOR, supra note 87, at 23.
155 JOHNSON, supra note 32, at 13.
156 Id. at 1.
157 Id.
whatever bandwagon may be rolling by.” Further, he argues, the innovation must “meet certain criteria in terms of its qualities, but it also must be acceptable, in both a social equity and a moral sense,” to the larger community in which the stakeholder engages with it.\(^{159}\)

Johnson measures academic innovations along two paradigms, the symbolic function and the material function.\(^{160}\) The first function, symbolism, represents the reputation or representative nature of the innovation, measuring the intrinsic value of the symbol to the university or to the larger community simply by what it represents.\(^{161}\) The material function, at the opposite end, is how the program innovation impacts the lives of the community stakeholders.\(^{162}\) When both the symbolic and material importance of a proposed innovation are low, he argues that such an insignificant innovation would be unimportant to a university and would be unlikely to be adopted or implemented.\(^{163}\) In this condition, he states, “nobody cares, so nothing happens.”\(^{164}\) On the other side of the spectrum, program innovations that have both salient symbolic and material elements are the mostly likely to be widely implemented, as a diverse array of organizational participants are likely to view the program more favorably.\(^{165}\) This situation, he posits, is ideal because all parties will work together to adopt and implement the innovations, which will therefore be more likely to succeed.\(^{166}\) Thus, “for symbolic management to be successful, symbolic expressions must also take material forms that support the meanings they entail.”\(^{167}\)

A “pragmatic innovation” is one that may be low in symbolic significance but high in materiality.\(^{168}\) While such innovations are put into place because of their efficiency and intrinsic benefits, they “do not capture the imagination or attention of the managers or stakeholders.”\(^{169}\) While pragmatic innovations can result in localized and successful improvements, widespread adoption is usually slow because they do not receive outside impetus from other actors.\(^{170}\) While it is somewhat of a mystery as to why pragmatic program innovations spread so slowly, Johnson suggests that while they may accomplish material ends, they do not serve symbolic purposes.\(^{171}\)

Conversely to a pragmatic innovation is a “decoupled innovation,” which may have a strong symbolic value that stands for something else but has low real, material impact.\(^{172}\) These decoupled innovations become the main focus of Johnson’s book, as he critiques institutions of higher learning in the U.S. for valuing research and innovative programming that have little to no actual societal and community impact.\(^{173}\) Such decoupled innovations are particularly

\(^{158}\) Id.
\(^{159}\) Id.
\(^{160}\) Id. at 9–10.
\(^{161}\) See Id. at 9–11.
\(^{162}\) Id.
\(^{163}\) Id. at 9.
\(^{164}\) Id.
\(^{165}\) Id.
\(^{166}\) Id.
\(^{167}\) Id.
\(^{168}\) Id. at 10.
\(^{169}\) Id.
\(^{170}\) Id.
\(^{171}\) Id.
\(^{172}\) Id.
\(^{173}\) Id. at 1, 10.
dangerous for state universities, as they can often have severe consequences on morale, leading to a sense of being “let down” by the community, and can often waste badly needed resources and attention.\(^{174}\) State universities have traditionally espoused the mandate of improving their practices and implementing innovations that economically benefit the citizens of the larger community and the state.\(^{175}\) Universities, he argues, are simply “assumed to be engines for economic development,” but these claims are made without much rigorous specificity, allowing universities to decouple their symbolic programs and innovations from internal operations and services.\(^{176}\)

Johnson devotes an entire chapter in his book to the innovation of tech centers and R & D parks that have sprung up through the U.S. and abroad over the past few decades.\(^{177}\) In an attempt to mimic the German model of higher education, which historically created successful linkages between research findings and commercialization that benefits the community, U.S. universities are “jumping on the bandwagon” of creating university tech incubators, entrepreneurship and innovation support programs, and research and development parks.\(^{178}\) As an example of this phenomenon, Johnson looks at the Research Triangle in North Carolina.\(^{179}\) While North Carolina is usually considered a prime example of how research developments can contribute to the larger economy, Johnson argues that a closer examination of North Carolina’s model has had only a localized impact, creating instead “two North Carolinas,” describing how North Carolinians overall have one of lowest rates of social mobility.\(^{180}\)

4. BRIDGING THE DIVIDE

Transactional legal clinics can bridge the symbolic and materiality divide by espousing both high symbolic value to the university and its stakeholders, as well as having high material impact on improving the lives of the community members they serve. Transactional legal clinics are uniquely situated to fall within both symbolic and material lanes. They tap into the larger national movement of supporting technological progress and innovation and providing intrinsic value to the institutional stakeholders involved, while at the same time providing useful and necessary legal services and resources to businesses and organizations specifically focused on increasing economic output in a region or improving and contributing to community development.

For some transactional legal clinics that serve rural clients suffering from high rates of poverty and “economic stagnation,”\(^{181}\) the benefits of the high symbolic value and high material advantages cannot be ignored. In serving a community so heavily impacted by racial
oppression and economic stagnation, both symbolic and material functions are paramount to its success. As A.D. Meyer points out in his 1984 article, “Mingling Decision Making Metaphors,” while some organizational symbols are so dramatically tied to historical events and “sustain myths perpetuated by environmental actors,” this should not “obscure other symbols that are robust mechanisms generating commitment to future courses of action.”

Similarly, a transactional legal clinic attached to a larger state university with a storied historical tie to the Civil Rights Movement can have a dual symbolic purpose.

One symbolic impact of such an innovative program is that it demonstrates the university’s overall commitment to supporting entrepreneurship and innovation, keeping in trend with the overall national movement in support of innovation and keeping the institution relevant. The second symbolic impact of such a program focuses on the types of clients the transactional clinic will serve and how that signal embraces the university’s historical past and the impact such historical actions may have had on alumni and community constituents. Many transactional legal clinics espouse their social and economic justice function and seek to serve diverse, low income clients who have been traditionally underserved business owners and entrepreneurs, such as women and minority business owners. By also focusing directly on serving both urban and rural clients affected by historic disenempowerment and economic disenfranchisement, such transactional clinics embrace their community’s larger historical symbolism in attempts to support and assist clients who have been impacted on a long-term basis by those historical events. Urban and rural clients must therefore experience the economic impact of the symbolic innovation and feel supported, not forgotten. The dual symbolism provides legitimacy (renown of the law school and its embrace of the entrepreneurship and innovation movement) and historical significance (attachment to the larger history of the university) to the transactional clinical program.

Entrepreneurship and economic development work are also considered bi-partisan. Operating within the economic development space requires collaboration across professional industries and across political ideologies. Transactional legal clinics that support economic development and industrial identity-building can have a unifying and reparative symbolic impact as well on the clients and communities served.

Transactional legal clinics provide high symbolic value as an institutional program, but they also bridge the institutional divide by providing much needed material services to community stakeholders in a manner that reflects how a law clinic can theoretically impact a community. In fact, transactional legal clinics are prime examples of educational programs and innovations that have direct material and practice effects on the community surrounding the institution. Transactional legal clinics provide direct transactional legal services to clients engaged in entrepreneurship and community economic development aimed at improving the overall social, health-related, and economic wellbeing of community members. Transactional legal clinics can also have long term impacts on their regional communities by choosing to work with clients and communities that have historical and cultural significance or can contribute to the economic development and vitality of the community.

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183 See JOHNSON, supra note 32, at 119–23.
184 See Jones & Lainez, supra note 137, at 89.
185 See generally Harriot, supra note 22.
B. CURRENT STATISTICAL DATA ON IMPACT OF TRANSACTIONAL LEGAL CLINICS

A 2017 survey of publicly available information demonstrated a steep rise in the increase of transactional legal clinics.\(^{186}\) This survey also showed approximately 200 ABA accredited law schools offer about 1700 clinics in total, of which 240 (14%) are considered transactional in nature.\(^{187}\) Only about 20% of law schools examined had no transactional clinical offerings.\(^{188}\) This surge shows a 20% increase in the number of transactional clinics since 2014 and a 60% increase in the last three.\(^{189}\) A 2014 survey, using information from the Kauffman Foundation’s Entrepreneurship website, divided the types of transactional legal clinics into six categories: (1) Small Business and Entrepreneurship, (2) Microenterprise, (3) Nonprofit Organizations, (4) Intellectual Property, (5) Arts and Entertainment, and (6) Community Economic Development.\(^{190}\)

In many ways, transactional clinics are still considered innovative program offerings at law schools. Most clinical offerings are still litigation based (approximately 86%), while most of the early transactional clinics were community economic development clinics.\(^{191}\) While some law schools offer multiple transactional clinics to its law students, most who offer transactional clinics typically offer only one transactional, non-litigation based clinic, and such clinics are often forced to handle the full panoply of corporate and transactional law issues.\(^{192}\)

Transactional clinics are undoubtedly part of the larger U.S. trend toward supporting entrepreneurship and innovation. Professor Steven Hobbs, one of the first champions of the “law and entrepreneurship movement,” called upon law schools and lawyers to harness their own entrepreneurial spirits in studying entrepreneurship.\(^{193}\) Transactional legal clinics also aid in the need to “cultivate an entrepreneurial spirit in law students” by exposing them to entrepreneurs and social entrepreneurs in a market in which clients are demanding efficiency from their lawyers and demonstrated added value.\(^{194}\) As Professor Susan Jones and Professor Jacqueline Lainez point out in 2014, “today’s entrepreneurial emphasis is broad[,] ranging from microbusiness to high technology, and requiring myriad lawyering abilities.”\(^{195}\)

Transactional legal clinics thus give students the opportunity to familiarize themselves with the entrepreneurial culture in the U.S. while developing transactional legal skills that contribute to the overall economic impact of entrepreneurship and community

\(^{186}\) See Ball & Viswanathan, supra note 137, at 49.
\(^{187}\) Id.
\(^{188}\) Id. at 49–50.
\(^{189}\) Id.
\(^{190}\) See Jones & Lainez, supra note 137, at 99.
\(^{191}\) See Ball & Viswanathan, supra note 137, at 50.
\(^{192}\) See id.; see also Patience A. Crowder, Designing a Transactional Law Clinic for Life-Long Learning, 19 LEWIS & CLARK L. REV. 413, 415 (2015) (noting that law school instruction focuses almost entirely on litigation to the exclusion of business and transactional law).
\(^{194}\) Jones & Lainez, supra note 137, at 87, 104.
\(^{195}\) Id. at 88. See also Praveen Kosuri, “Impact” in 3D—Maximizing Impact through Transactional Clinics, 18 CLINICAL L. REV. 1, 5 (2001).
development. Transactional legal clinics thus have strong innovative and symbolic value as well as high material and practical applications and benefits for their university and community constituents.

C. ENTREPRENEURSHIP & NONPROFIT CLINIC AT ALABAMA LAW: A MODEL

In furtherance of those aims, a new transactional legal clinic at the Hugh F. Culverhouse Jr. School of Law at the University of Alabama School of Law, the Entrepreneurship & Nonprofit Clinic (“E-Clinic”), seeks to provide pro bono transactional legal services to individuals and organizations, with a focus on improving economic development for low income communities in the Alabama Black Belt. While one of many programs aimed at improving the economic fabric of the Alabama Black Belt, this new clinic aims to both teach and prepare law students to serve these constituent groups while also contributing to the development of the economic identity and vitality of their communities.

1. COMMUNITY IMPACT

One main goal of the E-Clinic is to impact the community by providing pro bono transactional services directly to entrepreneurs and organizations, choosing to work with clients whose missions and industries preserve and respect the cultural and historical identity of the respective community, acting as a general legal knowledge provider to the community, and acting as a “think tank” to provide research and implementation strategies to policy makers.

The E-Clinic provides a service area traditionally ignored by pro bono and low bono legal service providers: transactional law and counseling for businesses and organizations. Most providers of legal aid in West Alabama, Birmingham, and the Black Belt counties focus on protecting individual rights: housing, immigration, federal benefits, bankruptcy and credit, veterans aid, healthcare, domestic violence, and wills and end-of-life. Far fewer pro bono legal service providers offer transactional legal services that focus on building up businesses and local economies instead of representing individuals in front of administrative agencies or in court, although some do provide support for community development organizations. By providing free legal services to these businesses and organizations, the entrepreneurs and organizations are able to focus their resources and disposable income on building their businesses and directly impacting their communities. The E-Clinic provides the full suite of transactional legal services to new and existing organizations, including but not limited to:

198 Id.
199 See generally id.; see also Crowder, supra note 192, at 431–32.
• Pre-venture counseling to founders and co-founders;
• Choice of entity counseling and drafting of organizational and operational documents;
• Strategizing, negotiating, and drafting agreements;
• Employee management counseling;
• Intellectual property counseling;
• Regulatory compliance and risk management;
• Nonprofit counseling and board governance training; and
• Counseling to authors, artists, and musicians.

Client selection is how the E-Clinic reflects the historical, cultural, and industrial uniqueness and identity of the state and each respective community and contributes to the economic vitality of an area. The E-Clinic provides pro bono transactional legal services to new and existing small businesses, entrepreneurs and start-ups, social enterprises, community development organizations, nonprofit organizations, and authors, artists, and musicians in both urban and rural counties in Alabama. The E-Clinic is particularly committed to working with clients who seek to preserve and enhance the social fabric, physical infrastructure, and economic health and well-being of urban, working class, rural, and underserved communities in Alabama, as well as supporting businesses and organizations owned and operated by traditionally underrepresented groups. Hypothetical ideal clients include:

• An historic train depot preservation club and model railroad club
• A woodworking club, outdoors club, or agricultural guild
• A textiles threading or quilting organization
• University students starting businesses in a STEM industry, such as aeronautics, or a creative industry, such as textile, paper design, or creative writing
• A muralist transforming blighted and abandoned spaces in partnership with the local community

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200 Co-founder agreements, pre-formation structuring, and capitalization advice.
201 Choice of entity counseling (sole proprietorship, partnership, joint venture, corporation, limited liability company, benefit corporation, and nonprofit association or corporation), formation and governance documents (articles of incorporation, partnership agreements, bylaws, and operating agreements).
202 Project partner agreements or memoranda of understanding, customer agreements, vendor agreements and supplier contracts, commercial leases, financial documents.
203 Employee manuals and contracts, independent contractor agreements, incentive compensation schemes, labor compliance and reporting issues, non-compete and non-solicitation counseling.
204 Trademark and logo counseling and registration, copyright counseling and registration, licensing agreements, non-disclosure agreements.
205 (Excluding tax advice and preparing tax forms), business licenses, if applicable, insurance and liability protection advice, governmental agency and regulatory compliance, such as labeling, FDA, OSHA, and SEC compliance.
206 Applications for tax-exempt status, board governance training, fiscal sponsorship agreements, and charitable donations registration.
207 Intellectual property protection, publicity contracts, commission contracts, and licensing agreements.
For profit stores with cultural and economic value as community meeting places or preservers of local culture, such as barbershops, coffee houses, restaurants, social clubs, and salons

• A tech-based client using online and mobile apps as a service delivery model

• Community development nonprofits and organizations working on empowerment and plight issues in historical civil rights and urban communities

• Student empowerment and educational outreach groups

• Community credit unions and credit circles

• An infrastructural and industrial developer looking to bring new sustainable energy methods to West Alabama

• A farming and agricultural cooperative wanting to create a community land trust.

In addition to providing direct legal services to these ideal constituent clients, the E-Clinic will also serve as a general provider of legal knowledge. By providing one or two-hour start-up workshops or legal cafes to larger groups of individuals or businesses on generally applicable topics such as choice of entity, pre-formation legal issues, intellectual property overviews, or due diligence, the E-Clinic can help groups overcome the knowledge and resource gap facing so many low income or new businesses.

The E-Clinic will also impact the community on a longer-term basis by focusing on improving the administration of justice by researching state and federal initiatives to improve infrastructure development. Such research and data collection issues could focus on initiatives to increase broadband Internet access for public spaces, public places of business, and public schools in rural Alabama counties, or could focus on implementation studies on how to improve sewerage and refuse infrastructure. The E-Clinic will provide its support and research to both state and federal level policymakers working on economic and industry development issues in Alabama.

2. CLINIC DESIGN

In crafting the new Entrepreneurship & Nonprofit Clinic with those community impact goals in mind, the E-Clinic will provide these transactional services using three service models: direct Student Attorney client representation, Student Attorney-led legal education workshops, and Student Attorney-supported research on administration of justice policy issues.

As part of the E-Clinic’s orientation activities, the Student Attorneys will learn about the economic history of urban and rural areas of Alabama, take a tour of the new EDGE Center for Entrepreneurship and Development in Tuscaloosa, as well as potentially tour downtown Birmingham’s Innovation District. The Student Attorneys will also ideally visit a business


located in the Black Belt dedicated to improving quality of life and community engagement, such as the nationally renowned PieLab in Greensboro, Alabama. After orientation, the Student Attorneys will spend the majority of their time providing direct services to clients. The law students will have the opportunity to, ideally, work with a partner on a joint client and as the sole attorney on a client file, representing clients in both urban and rural contexts and for profit and nonprofit contexts. In addition to the rigorous client work, the students attend weekly seminar, where they will review substantive legal topics, engage in simulations and learn practice-oriented skills, and develop an understanding of their ethical obligations to organizational and community development clients. During weekly “firm meetings,” the students will present the week’s new requests for legal services, evaluate the pedagogical potential of a client, and share their experiences, working together to solve client matters. The students will also engage in intense weekly supervision, in which they will advance their client matters and discuss in a reflective manner their experiences working with both urban and rural clients.

In collaboration with another university partner or community group, the Student Attorneys will also have the opportunity to present to entrepreneurs and community development organizations on issues affecting small businesses and nonprofit organizations. The Student Attorneys, as a group, will prepare a one to two-hour interactive topic, which will occur toward the end of the semester. The Student Attorneys might also provide a legal café, where participants submit questions about their business beforehand; the Student Attorneys are each assigned a participant and researches general answers to their questions; and then all participants and Student Attorneys meet at a specified time at a relaxed professional setting to discuss the participant’s transactional legal questions. The legal café would also ideally occur later in the semester.

The E-Clinic will also provide research and data development to improve the administration of justice, especially with respect to needed infrastructure building. The E-Clinic will work on one policy project at a time, over a long-term basis, under the leadership and direction of the E-Clinic director. The Student Attorneys will participate in this policy research by participating in administering empirical research, comparing and contrasting past and current policy initiatives, and conducting implementation best practices studies. The Student Attorneys will be introduced to the policy project during Orientation and will work on the policy project incrementally throughout the semester as time permits. The Student Attorneys will also take a field trip or educational tour relating to the policy project at the end of the semester. Depending on the state of the long-term policy project research, the Student Attorneys will also be involved in presenting the research to state and federal level policy makers.


Entrepreneurship & Nonprofit Clinic Course Information, supra note 208.

Id.
3. PEDAGOGICAL GOALS AND LONG-TERM IMPACTS

The E-Clinic’s pedagogical goals will not only provide Students Attorneys with tools to serve clients while enrolled in the E-Clinic but will provide them with the tools to make long-term impacts on their regional economies and communities.

The Student Attorneys will learn how to provide direct transactional legal services to clients that are transferrable across different subject matters and client industries, such as client counseling, drafting, research and planning, project management, advocacy, professionalism, conducting presentations and workshops, policy planning, and working with constituent groups. The E-Clinic also teaches students how to use their transactional skills in multiple ways: through direct client representation, community workshops and legal cafes, and conducting policy research. This shows the Student Attorneys at least three different ways that they do not have to be litigators inside of courtrooms to provide impactful work. Not all students will enroll in the E-Clinic because they want to provide direct transactional services; some may skew more toward conducting research and producing policy studies; others might relish the teaching and presentation-heavy workshop model for delivery group legal education. The E-Clinic exposes law students with different interests to a variety of ways in which they can use their transactional skills.

The E-Clinic also provides the Student Attorneys with hands-on, rewarding experience with direct access to clients from different backgrounds and with different business goals and missions, encouraging them to pursue lawyering in the public interest. The E-Clinic provides the students with the opportunity to see the contrast in resources and access between a client situated in an urban center in the state and a rural organization aimed at serving Alabama Black Belt communities, which face challenges such as a lack of access to resources, information, and capital. It will also provide the students with an opportunity to grapple with the state’s economic history, understanding the impact of their role as future attorneys in serving clients in the public interest. It will further expose the law students to understanding the goals of a business that operates and serves an urban community versus an organization or business dealing with rural development, such as agri-business regulations, farming issues, land trust issues, and specialized funding for rural projects.

The E-Clinic will also teach the Student Attorneys about entrepreneurship and economic development and teach them the role of lawyers in creating a successful regional system, thus cultivating a spirit of entrepreneurship in lawyers. Without access to legal knowledge and resources, low income entrepreneurs and economically stagnant communities have a difficult time taking the next steps to forming a business or organizing to develop the community. It will teach the Student Attorneys how to work collaboratively with other professionals, such as university or community programs and partnerships, to create innovative and tailored non-traditional client services delivery models, like workshops or legal cafes.

213 See Crowder, supra note 192, at 422–23.
The Student Attorneys will also learn about the importance of client selection in choosing businesses or industries to support with their legal assistance. The Student Attorneys will directly participate in the client intake selection process, conducting intake interviews, discussing as a group each potential client, and then voting as a group on which clients the E-Clinic should take and why. Once accepted, the Student Attorneys assigned to the file draft a client profile, which among many things discusses where their client is situated within the ecosystem of its community and what its potential economic impact could be. For Student Attorneys who will engage in this type of work after graduation, it shows them how to build a practice that is historically and symbolically significant and work with clients doing impactful economic work. For Student Attorneys who will graduate and work at a law firm, it provides them with a desire to continue to do pro bono work and gives them tools to select clients for a limited pro bono division who do work in historically and economically identity-shaping industries.

Through pairing both the transactional advocacy skills learning with the pedagogical goals of serving both urban and rural clients who have differing access to resources, the new Entrepreneurship & Nonprofit Clinic directly impacts to the community by providing transactional legal services and aims to prepare future transactional attorneys and community leaders, many of whom are native to Alabama, for positions in which they can use their skills and experiences to improve and increase the economic development of some of Alabama’s more rural and poverty-stricken counties, empowering these communities through economic inclusion and improved quality of life.

CONCLUSION

I speak not for myself, … but so those without a voice can be heard. Those who have fought for their rights: Their right to live in peace. Their right to be treated with dignity. Their right to equality of opportunity. Their right to be educated. —Malala Yousafzai

Since the December 2017 special election in Alabama, many have exclaimed that the victory was just the beginning in flooding the state with a “blue tide,” as a play on the “Crimson Tide” rhetoric so popularly linked to the University of Alabama and its football team. Perhaps. Time will only tell the overall impact of flipping a U.S. Senate seat in a deep red state, but it certainly caused a renewed vigor for Democrats throughout the country bent on resisting the Trump administration to continue to run for office and for supporters to stomp for votes. While it was a victory for Senator Jones and the Democrats, the victory is only a “contingent” one for the Alabama Black Belt residents who elected him.

While some are skeptical that Senator Jones will fall back into “the old and reliable pattern of Democrats forgetting who put them in office,” others are hopeful that he will

218 Id.
deliver on his promises to address the economic and environmental justice issues facing Black Belt residents.\textsuperscript{219} Regardless of the impact of Senator Jones’ election on the economic development of rural counties in Alabama, institutions of higher learning, law schools and legal clinics in particular, are uniquely situated to change symbolic perceptions of such institutions, preparing future lawyers and community leaders to address issues of economic justice, and have material and practical impacts on these communities by “bridging the divide” between academic research and practical applications.