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UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI

June 1942

I hereby recommend that the thesis prepared under my supervision by ZELL SHUMAKER WALTER

entitled THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN VIRGINIA

be accepted as fulfilling this part of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN VIRGINIA

A dissertation submitted to

The Graduate Faculty of the Teachers College
of the University of Cincinnati

in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

1942

by

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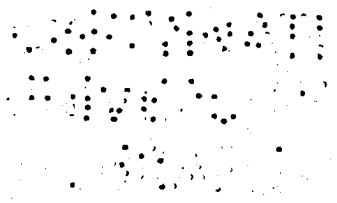

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

LIST OF TABLES.....vi
LIST OF FIGURES.....viii

Chapter

I. INTRODUCTION 1
The Problem..... 1
Delimitation of the Study..... 1
Justification of the Study..... 2
Sources of Material..... 3
Plan of the Study..... 3
Definition of Terms..... 5
Survey of Related Literature..... 7
Summary.....32

II. STATUS OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN VIRGINIA PRIOR TO 1870.....33
Education During the Colonial Period.....33
The Academy Movement.....41
Attempt to Establish a School System before 1800.47
Development of Support for Free Schools.....51
Developments between 1800 and 1830.....54
Developments during the Eighteen-Forties.....55
Summary.....64

III. THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS FROM 1870 TO THE OPENING OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY..... 69
Introduction..... 69
Problems Created by the Civil War..... 70
Effect of Social-Economic Conditions on Education..... 75
The School System Established in 1870..... 76
Relative Importance of Subject Matter..... 79
Reports of Division Superintendents Regarding Subject-Matter..... 86
Problems of Housing and Equipment..... 92
Types and Varieties of Textbooks..... 96
Teachers and Teacher Training.....100
Methods of Instruction.....110
School Organization.....115
Summary.....118

S '42

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IV. DEVELOPMENTS FROM 1900 to 1917..... 123
Influence of Economic Conditions on Education.... 127
Developments in 1905..... 127
The First State Course of Study..... 129
Analysis of the 1907 Course of Study..... 137
The 1909 Revision..... 144
The 1915-16 Revision..... 146
Analysis of the 1915-16 Course of Study..... 147
Summary..... 154

V. DEVELOPMENTS FROM THE FIRST WORLD WAR TO THE REVISED CURRICULUM OF 1934..... 157
Introduction..... 157
The School Survey of 1919..... 158
Findings of the Survey Committee..... 159
Recommendations of the Survey Staff..... 170
Courses of Study in Local Communities..... 172
The 1923 State Course of Study..... 178
Analysis of the 1923 Course of Study..... 180
The School Survey of 1928..... 189
Criticism of the Course of Study..... 190
Recommendations of the Survey Committee..... 200
Summary..... 201

VI. SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC FACTORS AFFECTING THE CURRICULUM 205
Introduction.....205
Social and Educational Implications of Economic Conditions..... 218
Summary..... 227

VII. THE REVISED CURRICULUM OF 1934..... 229
Introduction..... 229
Installation of the Revised Curriculum..... 236
Analysis of the Revised Curriculum..... 237
Basic Philosophy of the Revised Curriculum..... 249
Psychological Basis of the Revised Curriculum.... 253
Evaluation of the Revised Curriculum..... 256
Educational Activity in Virginia Since 1934..... 261
The Curriculum of 1938..... 265
Summary..... 267

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VIII. LEGAL BASIS OF THE CURRICULUM..... 269
Introduction..... 269
Legal Considerations Affecting Textbooks..... 270
Legislation Affecting the Curriculum..... 284
Legislation Concerning School Attendance..... 290
Summary..... 293

IX. GENERAL SUMMARY..... 294
The Development of the Public Elementary School Curriculum in Virginia..... 299
Conclusions and Recommendations..... 303

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List of Tables

Table		Page
I	Growth of Academies in Virginia from the Revolutionary War to the Civil War	44
II	The Median Allotment in Minutes per School Day for the Total Recitation of Pupils in 800 Non City White Schools of Virginia, 1918	161
III	Illiteracy in Virginia in 1930 Classified According to Race and Age	223
IV	Judgment of 5,300 Virginia Teachers Indicating How Traits of 25,000 Pupils Were Affected by the New Curriculum, June, 1937	258
V	Comparative Achievement of Ten Thousand Virginia Pupils Under the New and the Old Curriculums, 1938	260
VI	Report by 7,661 Virginia Teachers Indicating the Percentages Using the Elementary Course of Study, May, 1941	262
VII	Report by 7,661 Virginia Teachers Indicating Percentages not Using the Elementary Course of Study with Reasons for Non-Use, May, 1941	263
VIII	Comparative Expenditures for Basic Educational Activities in Virginia During the Period, 1934-37	265
A	Schedule Proposed by the State Department of Education in 1907 for the First Four Grades of the Elementary School	368
B	Schedule Proposed by the State Department of Education in 1909 for an Elementary School of Seven Years	369
C	Daily Schedule for One-Teacher School, Recitation Program	371

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Table		Page
D	Daily Schedule for One-Teacher School, Study Program	372
E	General Programs, 1923	373
F	Schedule for Daily Class Instruction in a One-Teacher School of Seven Grades, 1926	375
G	Evolution of the Virginia Elementary State Course of Study, 1879-1938	377
H	Scope of Work in the Core Curriculum for Virginia Public Schools	379

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List of Figures

Figure

Page

I. Provision for the State School System under the Reconstruction Constitution of 1869..... 74

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

The Problem

The title of this study, "The Development of the Public Elementary School Curriculum in Virginia," is almost self-explanatory. The primary purpose is to trace historically the evolution of the curriculum in the public elementary schools of the state, schools that have been and are entirely public institutions. In Virginia the elementary school includes grades one through seven, inclusive.

Delimitation of the Study

This investigation is concerned mainly with the historical aspects of the problem. It is not the purpose to evaluate in detail the current curriculum, to set up standards, or to compare the curriculum in the schools of Virginia with the offerings of other states. Such investigations no doubt would be worth while but are beyond the scope of the present study.

In-so-far as possible, primary sources have been used. A few secondary references are cited, but tabulations and discussions are for the most part based upon data secured from primary sources.

In selecting curriculums for purposes of comparison, an effort was made to secure those that would fairly represent prevailing practices and tendencies. The majority of the

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curriculums analyzed are from the larger schools, since those followed by the smaller schools in many cases have not been preserved.

Conclusions deal with general practices and tendencies for the state, since the purpose of the narrative is not to present connected accounts of individual schools.

Justification of the Study

This investigation can be justified as follows:

1. It is the first study that gives a comprehensive account of the development of the curriculum in Virginia.

2. It adds to the knowledge of the history of the state system of education in Virginia, and to the history of public education in general.

3. It attempts to show the relation between early and modern educational philosophy, psychology, and practice, as applied to curriculum development, and to reveal the changes that have occurred therein since the inception of the Virginia public school system in 1870.

4. It undertakes to point out the factors and forces that have influenced the development of the public school curriculum in Virginia and especially to show the relationship between social and economic trends and curriculum practices in the state.

5. It points out some of the peculiarities of the curriculum in Virginia and provides general considerations and conclusions with respect to its complete development.

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6. It seeks to identify modern curricular trends in Virginia.

7. It provides considerable source material for future investigators in the field of curriculum development in the state of Virginia.

In the final chapter the evidence will be summarized and evaluated, demonstrating how the study has achieved its purposes, as outlined in the preceding statements.

Sources of Material

Materials for this study have been secured from a number of sources, including: the biennial reports of the superintendent of public instruction in Virginia, bulletins of the State Department of Education, courses of study from various Virginia cities, catalogues of public schools, reports of city and county school systems, unpublished graduate theses on education in Virginia, the reports of the Virginia Educational Commissions in 1919 and in 1927, newspaper clippings, personal interviews, and the Virginia Journal of Education.

Plan of the Study

The present chapter, in addition to explaining the plan, purpose, and objectives of the study, includes a survey of related literature in the field of curriculum development.

As background material for the study of the evolution

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of the public elementary school curriculum in Virginia, Chapter II presents a brief history of the academy and private school movements and attempts to show how each of these institutions affected later education in the state. This chapter deals with educational developments in Virginia prior to the introduction of free public schools into the state.

Chapter III traces the development of public education in the state from 1870, the beginning of free public education in Virginia, until the opening of the twentieth century. Attention is given to the organization of the schools and to the difficulties confronting the friends of free public education. Information, based on the reports of a number of school superintendents, is presented on the status of education in various sections of the state.

Chapter IV attempts to interpret the outstanding developments from 1900 to 1917, the date of America's entry into the first World War. In this chapter the first statewide course of study, which is given in full in the Appendix of this manuscript, is analyzed.

In Chapter V are outlined the important developments from 1917 to 1934, the year that marks the introduction of the present curriculum into the schools of the state.

Chapter VI deals with social and economic conditions in Virginia and shows the influence of such changes on curriculum development in the state. It provides a background for

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the next chapter.

Chapter VII is devoted to an interpretation of the revised curriculum in Virginia. Owing to the scarcity of objective evidence for evaluating the revised curriculum, conclusions are in the main necessarily qualitative rather than quantitative.

In Chapter V are outlined the important developments from 1917 to 1934, the year that marks the introduction of the present curriculum into the schools of the state.

Chapter VI deals with social and economic conditions in Virginia and shows the influence of such changes on curriculum development in the state. It provides a background for the next chapter.

Chapter VII is devoted to an interpretation of the revised curriculum in Virginia. Owing to the scarcity of objective evidence for evaluating the revised curriculum, conclusions are in the main necessarily qualitative rather than quantitative.

In Chapter VIII the legal basis of the curriculum is outlined. The purpose of the chapter is to show how the curriculum has been affected in its development by legislative enactments.

Throughout the study the writer has attempted, not only to present a historical treatment of curriculum development in the state, but also to cite periodic trends and tendencies in education, and, where possible, to identify

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causes for these trends.

An attempt has also been made to depict the slow but gradual transition from the extremely formal subject-matter teaching, which characterized instruction in the early days of the public school movement, to the child-centered type of instruction that prevails in the modern, progressive schools of the state.

Definition of Terms

Since certain curriculum terms will be used frequently throughout this study, an explanation of their meanings is in order at this point.

Curriculum.--The curriculum may be defined as the totality of subject matter, activities, and experiences that constitute a pupil's school life.[1]

Course of Study.-- A course of study is the material, usually in pamphlet form, that sets forth for the teacher such items as the objectives and content of a given subject, and the activities and books to be used to accomplish desired results.[2]

Program of Studies.--This term refers to all the subjects offered in a given school and does not infer any principle of organization involved in arranging these courses into a curriculum.[3]

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[1]Hollis L. Caswell and Doak S. Campbell, Curriculum Development, p. 72. New York: American Book Company, 1935.

[2]Ibid., p. 72.

[3]Ibid., p. 72.

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School Subjects.-- A school subject is any one of the standard recognized divisions of knowledge consisting of one or more courses as offered in the program of studies.[4]

Course.--A course is a quantitative conception of a kind of subject-matter instruction in a given school subject, offered within a definite period of time.[5]

Grade.--For purposes of this study the term "grade" means a certain amount or level of achievement.[6]

Survey of Related Literature

In carrying on a study like the present it becomes necessary to search the field of related literature for sources of information. Related literature used by the writer for this purpose may be divided into: (a) curriculum studies, (b) history of education, (c) special subjects, and (d) administrative practices affecting the curriculum.

Curriculum Studies.--Bobbitt[7] lists seven types of activity curriculums, arranged along a scale from the most narrow and mechanical at one end to the most generous and humanized at the other. Highest in the scale he lists the type of activity curriculum that embodies the conception that both the objective and the end of education should be

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[4]Anderson Duguid Owens, "Public Schools of Kentucky with Special Reference to the Curriculum," p. 2. Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Cincinnati, 1939.

[5]Ibid., p. 7.

[6]Hollis L. Caswell and Doak S. Campbell, op. cit., p. 291.

[7]Franklin Bobbitt, "The Trend of the Activity Curriculum," Elementary School Journal, XXXV (December, 1934), 257-66.

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activity. Such a curriculum aims, not at subject matter, but at life properly lived. It aims, not at static factors of the personality, but at a continuity of human behavior. In this series of seven types of activity curriculums, Bobbitt discerns an evolutionary trend. He points out that this country is, and has been moving through these seven phases of curriculum activity. He finds that the unyielding fixity of the concept that the objectives of education are knowledge, skills, and appreciation is a major factor in preventing educational progress.

Henderson[8] attempts to determine the needs and experiences of the children in Hurricane Magisterial district of Buchanan County, Virginia, that should be considered in the adaptation of the curriculum of the schools serving them; and to determine the way a teacher in the classroom can adjust the instructional program to meet such needs and experiences. She develops a technique for using the needs and experiences of pupils in the curriculum.

Hopkins[9] and his co-authors treat the subject of integration from several standpoints. Various types of school curriculums are treated, including the correlated type. The

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[8]Helen Ruth Henderson, A Curriculum Study in a Mountain District. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 732. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. 189.

[9]L. Thomas Hopkins and Others, Integration, Its Meaning and Application. New York: D. Appleton Century Company, 1937. Pp. 315.

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chapter dealing with the core curriculum is of particular interest, since it deals with a fundamental principle of the revised Virginia program. The scholarly treatment of integration is also of interest to students of the revised curriculum.

Jones'[10] volume is primarily devoted to an experiment to determine whether demonstrable improvement can be made in the moral behavior of public school children through group and individual activities in the classroom. This work is of particular interest to the present study, since it emphasizes citizenship, one of the basic concepts in the revised curriculum.

Murray and Bathurst[11] discuss activities and techniques, and suggest sources of content which teachers in various socialized and creative schools are using to help children build worthwhile programs. The authors place special emphasis on "creativeness", a basic feature of the revised curriculum.

Shearer[12] finds four distinct types of state curriculum programs in operation as follows: (1) the comprehensive cooperative type, (2) the committee-personnel state-wide type,

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[10]Vernon Jones, Character and Citizenship Training in the Public Schools. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936. Pp. xii+404.

[11]Josephine Murray and Effie Bathurst, Creative Ways For Children's Programs. New York: Silver Burdette Company, 1938. Pp. xiv+396.

[12]Allen E. Shearer, "Procedures in Curriculum Revision Programs of Selected States." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Duke University, 1937. Pp. 228.

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(3) the state department of education, or small committee type, and (4) the college class-constructed course of study type. All of the state curriculum programs, except three, are listed as belonging definitely to one of the above types. The Virginia program is of the comprehensive co-operative type. In this type of program are included a considerable number of teachers, teacher training institutions, the supervisory members of the state department of education, and selected lay groups. The distinguishing characteristics of the comprehensive co-operative type of state curriculum program are as follows: (1) A large number of teachers participate. (2) The state organization plans and directs study groups for teachers. (3) Faculty members of teacher training institutions participate. (4) Members of the state department of education co-operate by serving on committees, attending study group meetings, acting as consultants, and supervising the installation of the program. (5) Laboratories are operated for curriculum workers. (6) Trained curriculum workers are secured to serve as consultants. (7) The program includes work of all school grades. (8) Selected teachers serve on production committees. (9) Laymen are included in the program. (10) The program is planned for a long period of time without definite limit. (11) Colleges and universities co-operate by increasing curriculum offerings and by having members of their faculties serve on committees and act as consultants.

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(12) Appropriations sufficient for carrying on the work are received from some source such as educational foundations, state teachers' associations, or state departments of education. (13) A considerable number of teachers contribute materials that have been tried out in their own classrooms. (14) A full time curriculum director is employed by the state department of education. (15) The primary purpose is to improve instruction. (16) Teacher training accompanies curriculum revision. In addition to Virginia, eleven other states were found to have the comprehensive-co-operative type of curriculum program. These states are: Alabama, Arkansas, California, Florida, Georgia, Kansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas.

Wake[13] prepared a set of four paper-and-pencil tests for the purpose of measuring the teachers' ability to understand, interpret, and apply the new Virginia curriculum. The first test in the set deals with the understanding of the philosophical and psychological concepts upon which the new curriculum is based. The second test is concerned with the teachers' ability to select teaching materials suggested in the course of study, so as to realize certain aims. The third test deals with the teachers' understanding of certain basic terms used in the new curriculum. The fourth test was designed to discover whether the teacher had the ability to organize a

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[13]Orville Wentworth Wake, "Ability of Teachers to Interpret the New Virginia Curriculum." Unpublished Master's thesis, Duke University, 1937. Pp. 137.

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program of instruction, using the course of study as a guide. Wake finds that the ability of teachers to answer his tests was directly influenced by the extent of their training. Those having the highest certificates scored much higher than those with the lowest certificates. Average scores also varied consistently with the amount of college training required for the intervening certificates. It would therefore seem advantageous to the new curriculum program in Virginia to have teachers throughout the state increase their college training. A gross inability on the part of teachers to state how they would use the course of study in preparing their teaching program for the year was indicated by the results of the test. Wake concludes, therefore, that inability to organize a teaching program for the year is one of the difficulties to be encountered in putting the new course of study into practice. His study indicates that in the school systems of the state supervisors are the chief source from which teachers may secure aid in interpreting the new curriculum. This investigation initiated work in a new area, namely, the ability of the teachers to interpret a new curriculum. To date little research has been conducted in this field.

Warren's[14] study deals with what pupils in the elementary schools of rural Virginia have done to improve community life and relationships. The underlying philosophy of pupil

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[14]Marian Cynthia Warren, "A Survey of Elementary Pupil Participation in Community Improvement in Rural Virginia." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Virginia, 1940. Pp. 120.

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participation in community enterprises is brought out through accounts of actual pupil participation in community projects. The activities reported resemble the illustrative practices on the elementary level which are found in the literature bearing on pupil participation in community improvement. Children participating in community enterprises acquire functional information pertaining to health, hygiene, science, geography, and civics. Their efficiency in reading, writing, oral expression, and arithmetic increases, and they learn how to collect data and locate materials.

A useful compilation of material pertaining to the curriculum field has been made by the American Educational Research Association. On three occasions this organization has attempted to review the important research studies that have been made in the curriculum field. The Association issued the first number of its journal in January, 1931.[15] This publication dealt with the curriculum. Since this was the first issue, an attempt was made to summarize all the significant research concerning the curriculum that had appeared up to December, 1930. Considerable attention was given to the three years prior to that date. The research reported in the publication was listed under seven headings:

I. General Curriculum Making
II. Investigations of the Objectives of the Curriculum.

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[15]"The Curriculum," Review of Educational Research, I (January, 1931), 1-64.

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III. Nature of Learning Activities.
IV. Time Allotment and Grade Placement.
V. Measuring Ability and Achievement.
VI. Evaluation of Curricula and Texts.
VII. Public and Private School Curricula.

About three years later another issue of The Review of Educational Research was devoted exclusively to the curriculum.[16] This publication included a summary of the important curriculum investigations made in the three years since the first curriculum number had been published. The research conducted during this period was grouped as follows:

I. Plans of Curriculum Building and Research.
II. Curriculum Investigations at the Elementary and Secondary School Level.
III. Evaluation of Courses of Study and Textbooks.
IV. Curriculum Investigations at the Teacher Training, College and University Levels.

It appears that the majority of the studies made in this second period were in special subject fields. Consequently the research summarized was classified according to the subjects involved. Subjects of the elementary and secondary fields in which there had been sufficient research to justify a summary were: reading, arithmetic, handwriting, English, language, and grammar, spelling, modern foreign language, health and physical education, social studies, mathematics, music, art, industrial arts, home economics, commercial education, and certain extra-curricular activities.

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[16] "The Curriculum," Review of Educational Research, IV (April, 1934), 121-252.

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The April, 1937,[17] issue of the Review of Educational Research begins the third series of triennial reviews in the various fields of educational investigation. Attention is called to the fact that since publication of the last issue dealing with the curriculum in 1934, about a score of elaborate studies have been carried out pertaining to the social basis of the curriculum. Owing to the increasing number of activity curriculums, studies reporting experimentation and evaluation in this field are included. One chapter of the foregoing publication is devoted to activity curriculums. Surveys of school systems have been added because they usually include an appraisal of the curriculum. The committee found the output of investigations in the various subject matter fields so large that in some cases the investigations reviewed were limited to a relatively few of the most significant studies. This was especially true in science and mathematics. Chapter IV, which is concerned with the field of curriculum investigations, reviews studies in the following subjects: art, music, commercial education, English, language and grammar, handwriting, reading, spelling, foreign language, health and physical education, home economics, industrial arts and vocational education, mathematics, science, and social studies. The research reported in this number is listed under seven headings:

I. Social Basis of the Curriculum.

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[17] "The Curriculum," Review of Educational Research, VII (April, 1937), 117-84.

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II. Plans for Curriculum Building and Research.
III. Reorganization of Subjects.
IV. Curriculum Investigations.
V. Activity Curriculums.
VI. Curriculum Surveys.
VII. Curriculum Investigations at the Teacher Training, College, and University Level.

The three foregoing publications are valuable as related literature in a study dealing with the curriculum, since they include investigations and findings for a considerable period of time. They also indicate curricular trends and contain an extensive bibliography.

Historical Studies.--Aymett[18] reviews the early history of education in the city of Memphis, Tennessee, starting in 1819, as traced in the few available early records. He surveys public education during the reconstruction period, and describes the development of the city's public school system from 1901 to 1936. His study shows that the educational needs of a growing commercial center are being met by an increased building program, a larger corps of better trained teachers, and a better adaptation to the curriculum needs of the student.

Bell[19] traces the relationship between the church, the state, and education in Virginia. The influence [illegible]

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[18]McCallum Aymett, "The Development of Public Education in Memphis, Tennessee." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Colorado, 1937.

[19]Sadie Bell, The Church, the State, and Education in Virginia. Philadelphia: Science Press Publishing Company, 1930. Pp. iv+796.

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that the church exerted on education from earliest days is pointed out. The inter-relationship between the church, the state, and the school is emphasized, as is also the line of cleavage between the three institutions. The development of the curriculum, with special attention to moral education, is traced.

Bowman[20] discusses the various types of private and secondary schools for white and Negro pupils in Virginia during the colonial period. He describes the various types of private, semi-public, and public control and support of these schools. He shows that the school buildings varied from humble log buildings to large brick structures; that in some cases boarding departments were provided in the buildings, while in other instances boarding accommodations were provided elsewhere in the town or village; that in general the seminary school buildings for girls surpassed the average academy for boys; and that the private home schools were usually housed in family residences or in a school plant consisting of one or more buildings located near the family home. Bowman points out further that the library of the typical secondary school was not large; that the program of studies usually embraced courses in the English branches, Latin, Greek, French, German, mathematics, history, and the industrial

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[20] P. G. Bowman, "Secondary Education in Virginia, 1870-1886." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Virginia, 1938.

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sciences. He also finds that the seminary for girls stressed the branches of composition, literature, French, music, drawing, and painting. The matter of discipline was left largely to the principals or masters. Enrollment was not large, ranging from 5 to 10 to 250 or 300 pupils. The influence of the religious denominations predominated, and many of the teachers had no more than a secondary education.

Dabney,[21] in an exhaustive treatise, has presented a picture of education throughout the South with specific reference to conditions in Virginia. Interesting biographical sketches of educational leaders are presented. The influence of the Peabody Foundation in the South is brought out.

Heatwole[22] has prepared the only complete history of education for the state of Virginia. He discusses the development and influence of the academies on the educational life of the state and traces the decline of the private schools and academies, followed by the rise of the public school. Considerable attention is given to the institutions of higher learning in Virginia.

Kemp[23] indicates that public education in Arlington

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[21]Charles William Dabney, Universal Education in the South. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1936. Volume 1, pp. vii-586; Volume II, pp. vii-606.

[22]Cornelius J. Heatwole, A History of Education in Virginia. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916.

[23]Fletcher Kemp, "The History of Public Education in Arlington County, Virginia." Unpublished Master's thesis, American University, 1937. Pp. 73.

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County has been primarily and increasingly a county function; that there was a steady growth in the white school enrollment from 1870 to 1910, and also a rapid growth from 1910 to 1936. He shows that enrollment in the Negro schools has remained fairly constant since 1876. He explains that the attitude of the citizens of Arlington County has proved favorable to public education. The children are provided with modern, well equipped school buildings and playgrounds. The professional standards for teachers have advanced markedly since 1917, and the average monthly salary of teachers has been more than doubled since that date. He indicates that the schools are functioning under modern educational philosophy and practice, and that such co-ordinate activities as health work and playgrounds are provided through public school funds and are an asset in the promotion of public school efficiency.

Knight[24] traces the evolution of public education in Virginia. He finds a rapidly maturing educational tendency developing through the nineteenth century. The influence of social evolution on educational theory and practice is stressed. Certain important educational milestones in the state are identified.

Owens,[25] in a study of the development of public education in Kentucky, gives particular attention to the curriculum. All secondary and elementary schools that have been and are

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[24]Edgar W. Knight, "The Evolution of Public Education in Virginia, "Sewanee Review, (January, 1916), 24-41.

[25]Anderson Duguid Owens, op. cit., pp. 465.

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partly or entirely public institutions are included. The investigation is limited to a study of the historical aspects of the problem. Owens reports that the trends in the public school curriculum in Kentucky indicate that the elementary curriculum is to be considered social in character and as emphasizing the importance of the child as the center of the educational process. He finds that the course of study is regarded as a teacher-learning program that brings together learning materials and organizes them in terms of the child's interests and needs. He also reveals that "life situation" material is being included, more and more, in the courses of study. Also the changes taking place in the elementary curriculum in Kentucky are largely in the method of presentation of the subject matter, rather than changes in the subjects themselves. The following suggestions are made:

1. The curriculum of the elementary schools may be made more practical by instituting a form of state supervision similar to that now given to the high school.

2. Perhaps a state-wide program of continuous curriculum study and revision might be profitably established as a means of determining the desirable objectives of the curriculum.

3. Some form of standardization of approval for elementary schools by the State Department of Education would prove beneficial to the elementary schools.

4. The curriculum as it exists is something apart from the life and needs of the pupils. The entire curriculum should

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be examined in the light of these present needs and interests.

5. Owing to the rapidly changing social and economic conditions in the society in which the children of Kentucky are living, the curriculum of the future should give more emphasis to creative and leisure time activities.

Overton[26] presents a brief history of the settlement, formation, and development of Bath County, Virginia, and discusses every public and private school for which records could be found.

Special School Subjects.- Richman[27] concludes that fewer than half the children in the public schools of Virginia are enjoying a planned program of music instruction. Consequently he believes that there is definite need for concerted action to bring music experiences to all of the children in all public schools of the state. He finds that in 1938 more than half of the teachers in the elementary schools were unprepared to give music instruction in their school situations. In-service training in music for some six thousand teachers is recommended. Richman also states that financial support of the music program is inadequate. He reports that, in order to encourage the school boards of the state to take more responsibility for the financial support of the music program,

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[26]Edward F. Overton, "History of Education in Bath County, Virginia." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Virginia, 1937.

[27]Luther Richman, "The Status of Music Education in the Public Schools of Virginia." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Cincinnati, 1938. Pp. 210.

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the State Board of Education has approved the setting up of a state music fund that is to be used to match funds provided by the local school boards for the purchase of music equipment. This study makes detailed data available concerning the music instruction carried on in the schools of the cities and counties of Virginia during the year 1937. It gives an accurate picture of the extent of the music instruction in the various localities and indicates the shortcomings of the music program.

Administrative Practices Affecting the Curriculum.-In view of certain recent studies dealing with the matter of administrative techniques affecting the curriculum, the writer has deemed it advisable to devote some attention to this phase of curriculum development.

Alexander[28] made a study of the leadership service function of the State Departments of Education in Virginia, Tennessee, and Louisiana. He analyzed the program of each department, attempted to determine the consistency of these programs with the underlying concept of state leadership, and listed implications for future educational development and further study. He points out that tendencies toward acceptance of the leadership service function in Louisiana, Tennessee, and Virginia have followed closely the general pattern of the development of this function. Furthermore, points of

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[28]William M. Alexander, State Leadership in Improving Instruction. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. 193.

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emphasis in state supervision, the amount and type of service rendered, and specific procedures were found to vary widely, but in each state there was: (1) relatively little recognition of the responsibilites of state leadership, (2) an emphasis on regulatory activity, and (3) some attempt or attempts to expand state department service designed to stimulate and assist local efforts towards instructional improvement.

Alexander finds that in each of the three states the development of a central educational staff did not come until after 1900. In each state the staff developed by a process of addition, and only recently have attempts been made toward its co-ordination and functional organization. He shows that, although various items relative to personnel have varied markedly, positions and assignments have been common. Staff positions in each state have almost invariably been filled by persons previously holding administrative or supervisory positions within the state.

Certain types of service were found to be common. Each state department had fairly recently initiated a state curriculum program, each in 1938-39 gave considerable attention to the direction or assistance of local supervisory activities, and each placed some reliance upon standardization as a means of improving high school instruction. Local educational workers in each state were found to be receptive to the idea of state department service and generally expressed need for more of it

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rather than less.

Alexander considers the plan used by the Louisiana State Department of Education as "directive." He finds that Louisiana state supervisors have shown great faith in patterns, and in uniform instructional and supervisory programs. In accordance with the views of their superintendent, they have maintained close contact with schools and teachers and have dominated and prescribed on a state-wide basis efforts for improving instruction.

The directive Louisiana program has been characterized by a relatively large staff and by rather ample funds. The proportion of funds devoted to general supervision indicates the greater interest of the Louisiana State Department in this field and in the maintenance of close contact with the schools.

Both the scope of services of the directive program, the number of local workers affected, and the estimates by respondents to Alexander's queries, indicated that state department services in Louisiana were considerably more extensive than those in Tennessee and Virginia.

Alexander characterizes the method used by the Tennessee State Department as "indirect." He finds there no such uniform pattern as is exhibited in Louisiana. Furthermore, the service actually provided has been considerably less extensive, and only scattered projects showed recognition by state department workers of their responsibilities for

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service. The maintenance of minimum standards in Tennessee has generally been regarded as desirable, and many state supervisory activities have been devoted to this purpose.

Although estimates of need for state department service were higher in Tennessee than in either Louisiana or Virginia, the indirect program, as compared with the other two, included in 1939 a narrower scope of services, affected directly a smaller proportion of educational workers, and was generally regarded more frequently by the latter as inadequate.

The findings of the study indicate that the Tennessee state department gives more attention to regulation and standardization than to service activities.

Alexander calls the method used by the Virginia State Department "co-operative". He finds, that although certain antecedents of the co-operative program approach are apparent in early state department activity in Virginia, the leadership emphasis and the particular co-operative program were actually initiated in 1931. His study points out that various items concerning the Virginia staff in 1939 confirmed the considerable respect which the state department has generally been accorded. It is revealed that superintendents, supervisors, and principals in Virginia have greater confidence in the state department staff than is the case in the other two states included in the study. Lack of funds was believed by local educational workers to be a great handicap to the activities of the state department. The size of the staff, the

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proportion of the entire staff having instructional functions, and state department expenditures were less in Virginia than in Louisiana but higher than in Tennessee. The educational training of Virginia staff members was found to be higher than that of those in Louisiana and Tennessee. The Virginia staff was organized on a functional basis, and functions pertaining to instruction were closely coordinated.

Bowman[29] presents a detailed account of legislative acts and legal decisions affecting the development of the public school curriculum in Virginia.

Caswell and Campbell[30] provide a comprehensive statement of the philosophy that underlies the revised Virginia curriculum. Reference is made to the type of activities included in the curriculum suitable for units of work. The authors explain that the material of the curriculum is organized around a "common core". Considerable space is given to an interpretation of the function of the curriculum. Certain features of the curriculum are illustrated, including: (a) a cumulative inventory, (b) activities suggested by the social functions approach, and (c) suggested teaching procedures. Information is given concerning the aims, guidance features, and actual construction of the curriculum. The part taken by teachers, lay committees, and others in the planning of the curriculum is explained.

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[29]Warren D. Bowman, "Legal Basis of the Curriculum in Virginia." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Chicago, 1928. Pp. 305.

[30]H. L. Caswell and Doak S. Campbell, Curriculum Development. New York: American Book Company, 1935. Pp. vii+580.

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Dunn[31] devotes one part of her study to the nature of state courses of study and their adjustment to rural schools. She gives some examples of states that attempt to adjust their curriculums to various types of rural schools, particularly the one-teacher school.

Estes[32] finds tremendous variation between schools of similar size with reference to facilities, teachers' salaries, and per-capita cost of instruction in secondary schools. He finds also a need for considerable increase in curriculum offerings in vocational work, a need for a revised program for consolidation, and a more efficient bus system.

Garrison[33] discusses the problem of state support of schools, with its effect on the development of the school program. He finds that the constitutions of Virginia for more than half a century have made ample provision for education. However, he cites evidence to indicate that the General Assembly has failed to realize its responsibility for state support to the full extent.

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[31]Fannie W. Dunn, "The Rural Elementary Curriculum", The Status of Rural Education, pp. 112-20. Thirtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1931.

[32]Eley Marshall Estes, "The Development of a Plan to Administer the New Curriculum Program of Virginia So That Each Pupil Will Be Better Prepared Vocationally for Life." Unpublished Master's thesis, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, 1937. Pp. 82.

[33]Albert L. Garrison, "Legislative Basis for State Support of Public Elementary and Secondary Education in Virginia since 1811." Unpublished Master's thesis, Duke University, 1932. Pp. 112.

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Hall,[34] superintendent of public instruction, states that Virginia is gradually getting under way a training program in keeping with the demands of the revised curriculum. He explains that it is obvious that the revised curriculum will demand better prepared teachers, with broad training in the several fields of knowledge, and with a greater knowledge of child growth and psychology.

Hoyle[35] finds that school libraries of Virginia appear to be better stocked and supported than public libraries. There is only one county public library in the state. She reports that school libraries in Virginia are experimenting with a number of methods of increasing the size of the group served, and thus making adequate school library provision economically possible for the large number of small schools. She recommends a county circulating library, operating on a year-round basis, with a trained librarian. In towns and cities the same principle would be applied by employing a professionally trained librarian for the high school and assigning her supervisory responsibilities in connection with the other school libraries of the school division.

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[34] Sidney B. Hall, "A Report from Virginia," Curriculum Journal, VII (January, 1936), 2.

[35] Nancy Hoyle, "A Study of the Development of Library Service in the Public Schools of Virginia." Unpublished Master's thesis, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. 168.

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Langvick[36] shows the current practices in the construction of state courses of study, as found by analyzing published courses of study. She discusses such problems as: (1) Should state courses of study be published by the state department of education? (2) If so, could all types of school organization in the state use the course of study? (3) Should the program be continuous? (4) Should the program for curriculum revision precede or follow textbook adoption? (5) By whom should the state course of study be constructed? (6) How should the work of the state-wide curriculum commissions be coordinated and integrated?

Reynolds[37] made a study of the characteristic features of superior state courses of study. The three conditions that she found responsible for the improvement in state courses of study were: (1) State departments of education are better organized for course-of-study making. (2) Teacher training institutions, supervisors, superintendents, and teachers are becoming more interested in co-operating with the state departments of education in curriculum construction. (3) Compilers are better acquainted with the more

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[36] Mina M. Langvick, Current Practices in the Construction of State Courses of Study. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, No. 4, 1931. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1931. Pp. 13.

[37] Annie Reynolds, Characteristic Features of Recent State Courses of Study. Rural school Leaflet No. 41. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1926. Pp. 13.

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recent teachers in professional literature and know how to use it in writing.

Saylor[38] analyzed the characteristic likenesses and differences of a group of counties that participated most extensively and of a group that was least active in the Virginia state curriculum program. He found that the amount of locally taxable wealth per pupil enrolled for the most freely participating counties was much greater than that for those participating least. Leadership and high economic ability to finance schools are listed as basic to extensive participation by local school systems in a state co-operative curriculum program.

Wake[39] developed a test for measuring four phases of understanding and integration of the new state curriculum.

Walker[40] analyzed the curriculums of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, and Virginia. He found that the execution of the curriculum programs in the various

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[38] Galen Saylor, Factors Associated with Participation in Cooperative Programs of Curriculum Development. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. 365.

[39] Orville Wentworth Wake, "Ability of Teachers to Interpret the New Virginia Curriculum." Unpublished Master's thesis, Duke University, 1937. Pp. 139.

[40] Alva Alson Walker, "A Comparative Study of State Organizations for Curriculum Study in the Southern States." Unpublished Master's thesis, Louisiana State University, 1938. Pp. 174.

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states is similar; that two states have just completed orientation studies, two others have been engaged in the try-out phase of the program, and that the other states have produced courses of study.

Vaughn[41] explains the methods and general plans used by the various cities and counties of Virginia in installing the present revised curriculum.

Curriculum Changes in Other States.- Recent interest in curriculum revision has not been limited to any one state or locality. Leary[42] finds that current curriculum changes are taking place in practically every state of the Union. In total number of courses of study and supplementary materials, California ranks first with 280 and Wisconsin is second with 120.

It is a common practice of school systems at the present time to organize courses of study for two or more grade levels. This should not be interpreted as a tendency to disregard grade boundaries, since, in most cases, composite courses define grade boundaries and provide specific content and activities for each grade.

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[41] Eva Inez Vaughn, "Installation of the New Virginia Course of Study for Elementary Schools." Unpuplished Master's thesis, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1936. Pp. 180.

[42] Bernice E. Leary. A Survey of Courses of Study and other Curriculum Materials Published Since 1934. United States Office of Education Bulletin, No. 31. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937. Pp. v+185.

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Other states having programs of curriculum reconstruction which have some similarity to the Virginia program are: Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, and Texas. In these states an attempt is being made to adjust the work of the school to present social and economic conditions. It is planned by these states to conduct a continuous program of research and experimentation for the purpose of revising the curriculum in the light of current needs. The present Virginia curriculum has evolved from a series of experimental editions, the outcome of each having been tested and evaluated and the effects scientifically determined before a revision was made.

Summary

The primary purpose of this study is to trace historically the evolution of the curriculum in the public elementary schools of Virginia. It is the first study to give a full and comprehensive account of the development of the curriculum in Virginia.

The narrative will depict the slow, gradual transition from the extremely formal subject-matter teaching that characterized instruction in the early days of the public school movement to the child centered type of instruction now prevailing in modern, progressive schools of the state.

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CHAPTER II

STATUS OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN VIRGINIA PRIOR TO 1870

Introduction

In order to secure an intelligent understanding of the present public school system in Virginia, it is necessary to go back to its beginnings and to trace the development of those concepts and attitudes which influenced educational practice during the various periods of the state's educational history.

Virginia was settled largely by Englishmen, and it was only natural that English conceptions and English educational practices should have been transplanted. Hence, in harmony with the practices of the mother country, education in Virginia during the colonial period was taken care of largely by private foundations, old field schools, private tutors, education abroad, and apprenticeship education for the poor.

Education During the Colonial Period

The Free School Foundation.--The first foundation for free education, established in English America by a citizen of an English colony, was provided by Benjamin Symmes and bears the date of February, 1634. By the provisions of his will, "the income from two hundred acres of land belonging to his estate, and the proceeds from the sale of the milk

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were to be expended in affording a free education for the children residing in the parishes of Elizabeth City and Kipotan, situated in Elizabeth City County."[1]

A school house was to be erected with the first proceeds of the bequest, but all the profits accruing subsequently were to be devoted to the founder's general design.[2] In March, 1642-43, about eight years after the date of the will, the Assembly passed a special act providing for the carrying out of the design in strictest conformity with the donor's directions. This body recognized the donor's "Godly disposition and good intent," and expressed its determination to enforce his wishes to the letter as an encouragement to other citizens to follow the noble example that Symmes had set.[3] By the year 1647, the school was in active operation, entirely self-supporting, and apparently

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[1] P. A. Bruce, Institutional History of Virginia During the Seventeenth Century, Vol. 1, pp. 345-46. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1913.

[2] Ibid., p. 352.

[3] Ibid., p. 352.

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resting on a firm foundation.[4] The management of the entire property seems to have devolved upon the school master, acting under the supervision of the county courts.[5]

The Old Field Schools.--Most Virginia children who received an education during the seventeenth century obtained it in what came to be known at a later date as the "old field" school. This type of school was a co-operative undertaking on the part of the heads of various families living in the same neighborhood who combined in the employment of a teacher for their children. The schoolhouse was frequently located in some abandoned field which was in convenient reach of all the children of the neighborhood. Quite frequently the ministers were the teachers in the schools; they, as a class, were well educated for that time. Many of the teachers were licensed by the governor upon recommendation from the justices

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[4] "The two schools existed until 1805, when they were incorporated in one as Hampton Academy. In 1852 the fund amounted to $10,000 and is still preserved apart from the state school fund. A portion was used in 1902 to erect in Hampton a handsome academy building, which is known as the Symmes-Eaton Academy and is a part of the public school system." P. A. Bruce op. cit., p. 356. (Present writer's note) The building is of brick and is composed of eight rooms. The school was discontinued in September, 1939 owing to small enrollment, and children in this district were sent to the John M. Willis School in Hampton. The name Symmes-Eaton School is to be continued, since the name of the John M. Willis School is to be changed to Willis-Symmes-Eaton School.

[5] P. A. Bruce, op. cit., p. 353.

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of the peace.[6]

For a period of more than one hundred years rather primitive types of "old field schools" were the only schools in some parts of Virginia. These schools accumulated traditions and customs which they bequeathed to the public free schools upon their advent into the state. Because of the fact that the public free schools owe many of their faults and a few of their virtues to this heritage, some account of the "old field schools" may be given here.

The buildings were of the crudest sort and without conveniences or refinements of any kind. According to one authority these schools "were taught either in meeting houses or in unoccupied dwelling houses; the latter more often than not had dirt or puncheon floors, wind doors with shutters but no glass, and stick and clay chimneys with fireplaces wide and deep enough to accommodate logs of almost any size."[7]

The tactics and methods of the "old field" schools were of a kind suited to the habits and customs of a primitive community. It has been claimed by Addington[8] and other authorities that in these schools there was little attempt at classification. Apparently each pupil was called to recitation throughout the day in the order of his arrival in the morning.

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[6] Ibid., pp. 331-342.

[7] Robert M. Addington, "The Old Time School in Scott County," The Radford Normal Bulletin, Vol. 2, No. 2, p. 6. Radford, Virginia, August, 1914.

[8] Ibid., p. 6.

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Pupils sometimes reached the school house by daybreak in order to be first in the circle of recitations throughout the day. Some of these schools were called "blab" schools because the pupils studied aloud.

The Aims of the Old Time School.--The aims of the old time school were markedly different from the objectives of modern elementary education. The general idea seemed to be that education was only for the favored few. It was not expected that the old time school would prepare its pupils for success in industrial achievement, in the professions, or even in business. The ability to read and spell fairly well and a knowledge of arithmetic sufficient to keep one from being cheated in ordinary business transactions were deemed valuable. However, it was not considered that the training of the schools would be of much value in practical life. In substantiation of this belief, there is the following statement:

> The attitude of the public regarding education was shown in talks occasionally made by the teachers and others wherein it was revealed that the reward of hard work in school would be the possibility of going to Congress or becoming president of the United States. The failure of these speakers to stress the practical value of an education may be taken to indicate that they thought an education worth while only to those who had high political ambitions.9

The Tutorial System.--The tutorial system has been handed down to present generations from ancient times. It was the method used by the rich planter in providing education for his children. Sometimes the tutor's task was confined to giving

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9 Robert M. Addington, op. cit., p. 8.

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the rudiments of education, but frequently he carried the pupils into the wider fields of knowledge, giving them most of the education that could be obtained in those times outside the walls of the advanced schools and colleges of Europe.[10] Many of the tutors came from England, and not infrequently the tutor in a private family was a person under indenture. Consequently, it will be noted that school training in this state had a lowly origin.

It is common knowledge that one of the most effective forms of instruction in England was the tutorial system. The families of the upper classes in the mother country always employed a tutor for their children. Some of the most noted educators in England served in this capacity. Such private tutors played an important part in the educational life of early Virginia. The plantation system and the absence of towns in Virginia made this method of instruction the most satisfactory. The plantation was a complete community in itself, having grouped together a great number of people. There were carpenters, blacksmiths, laborers for the tobacco fields, and, in fact, artisans of all the handicrafts. A teacher was a necessity in this kind of concentrated community.

The rich planters employed a tutor from among the young men who were candidates for orders, or who were recent

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[10]P. A. Bruce, op. cit., p. 323.

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arrivals from England or Scotland. Frequently these teachers were from the class known as "indentured servants" who took this opportunity of getting away from unwholesome social and political conditions in England. Many of the rich planters, from the earliest days of the colony, sent their children to England after a period of tutorage at home. This seems to have been the custom many years before William and Mary College was founded. Girls, as well as boys, were instructed by tutors. The girls' training was frequently directed into the field of literature. After the beginning of the eighteenth century it was not uncommon for planters to employ women as tutors. It is thought that this was the beginning of the more recent custom in Virginia families of employing governesses.[11]

Education Abroad. --The wealthy planters frequently provided for the education of their children in England. This method was favored for two reasons: first, the mother country offered many advantages for education for which the colony made no pretenses and, second, the pupil would enjoy many liberalizing and broadening influences outside of the school room. But the dangers of the voyage, together with the necessity of being away from home for so long a period, prevented many from availing themselves of this means of education for their

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[11] C. J. Heatwole, History of Education in Virginia, p. 53. New York: Macmillan, 1916.

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children. No information is available as to the number sent abroad, but records and private correspondence show that many availed themselves of the opportunity to receive their education in England. [12]

Apprentice Education.--The English practice of providing education for the poor was transplanted to the Virginia colony and is reflected in the numerous laws passed for the education of this class during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

There seem to have been four motives back of this practice in the colony: first, economic, the desire to increase the number of artisans and to promote industrial efficiency; second, humanitarian, the desire to alleviate the condition of unfortunate children; third, religious, to promote the study of the Bible; and fourth, educational, to teach boys and girls to read and write.

The earliest tendency was to require the overseers and guardians of orphans to educate them according as their estate would bear, but later provision was made for apprenticing those orphans whose estates were not sufficient to maintain and educate them.

The practice of apprenticing orphans and of requiring the master to teach them to read and write was soon extended so

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[12] P. A. Bruce, op. cit., p. 316.

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as to include those poor children whose parents were unable or unwilling to support them and to provide them with the simple elements of education. In 1769 the law was further extended so as to include illegitimate children.

The Academy Movement

The academy movement began in Virginia during the last quarter of the eighteenth century and extended practically to the close of the nineteenth century. The academies grew largely out of the classical schools of the previous century and were known by such names as "academies," "seminaries," "classical institutes," "educational societies," and in some cases "old field" schools.

The great majority of academies incorporated were for boys. The first female academy was incorporated in 1807 and was known as Richmond Academy.[13] During the period from 1800 to 1870, forty-two academies were incorporated for girls only. Thirty-seven of these were incorporated between 1830 and 1850. Apparently the greatest period of development of co-educational academies was between 1840 and 1860. In this period eleven were incorporated.

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[13] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 84, 1870.

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There is no available accurate evidence which enables one to ascertain how long the academies remained in existence. Probably some of them existed only on paper. Apparently some became extinct because of lack of funds. At the beginning of the free public school era the trustees of numerous academies were authorized to dispose of the academy property and to devote the proceeds to public free school purposes.[14] A few academies exist today as private or special schools.

Support of the Academies.--State aid to the academies was limited and a very few pupils thus benefited.[15] Several of these institutions during this early period were granted permission to raise money by lottery.[16] Proceeds from the sale of glebe lands were donated for the support of a few academies.[17] In one instance a tract of land was reserved for the establishment of a school or seminary.[18] In 1821 it was provided by the General Assembly that whenever the annual income of the literary fund should exceed $60,000,

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[14] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 253, 1852; Chapter 355, 1858; Chapter 296, 1871; Chapter 210, 1876.

[15] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapters 22, 23, 24, 1803.

[16] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 70, 1793.

[17] Ibid., Chapter 95, 1787; Chapter 96, 1787.

[18] Ibid., Chapter 21, 1780.

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the academies should share in the excess up to $20,000.[19] A limited number of academies received aid from this source.

Growth of the Academies.- Before 1800 there were as many as twenty-five academies in Virginia. They were generally known as "classical schools." The term academy came a little later when the sciences were becoming popular and some of them were being taught in these secondary schools. Schools of this type had arisen in New England and New York State. In the latter part of the seventeenth century they had multiplied very rapidly throughout other sections of the country, notably in Maryland, Virginia, and other sections of the South.

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[19] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 11, 1821.

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The following table from Heatwole shows the growth of academies in Virginia from the Revolutionary War to the Civil War. It should be noted that about twenty of these would fall within the territory of the present state of West Virginia.

TABLE I[20]

GROWTH OF ACADEMIES IN VIRGINIA FROM THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR TO THE CIVIL WAR

	Male	Female	Co-educational	Total
1776-1800	21	0	0	21
1800-1820	32	6	1	39
1820-1840	33	15	7	55
1840-1860	40	48	12	100
1860-1870	1	2	0	3
	127	71	20	218

It will be noted that the period from 1820 to 1860 was the most active in the establishment of this type of school. This corresponds to the educational revival in America from the 1830's to the 1850's. It will be noted further that the

[20] C. J. Heatwole, op. cit., p. 127.

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growth of the academies was abruptly terminated during the Civil War period.

Heatwole explains the curriculum of the academies and the place they filled in the educational life of the state as follows:

> The academy was the type of school that spread through Virginia and served as the means of education for the majority of the children of the state. These schools, while they taught the classics, higher mathematics, and the sciences (physics, chemistry, and botany), also gave instruction in the elementary subjects, which was a necessary preparation for this secondary instruction. The state had no other connection with these academies than the matter of chartering them or passing acts enabling them to conduct lotteries for the purpose of raising funds to erect buildings or to add to their endowment. It gave no money to their support except for the few that received a meagre appropriation from the Literary Fund at different times. The more substantial of them were endowed and controlled by a board of trustees which was a self-perpetuating body. The chief means of support was by tuition fees paid by the students. [21]

The Curriculum of the Academies.--The curriculum of the academies was largely of the traditional type, preference being given to such subjects as Latin, Greek, mathematics, and rhetoric. In addition, such sciences as chemistry, physics, and botany were sometimes taught, and bookkeeping was frequently offered in the course. As a whole the curriculum seemed to tend toward preparation for college rather than toward preparation for the practical affairs of life.

While the usual advanced branches of the day were taught, yet Latin and Greek were the staple of the academies. Grammar lessons were learned by heart; paradigms were studied so carefully as never to be forgotten; parsing was taught with infinite detail and wearisome repetition. Many of the teachers were capable

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21 C. J. Heatwole, op. cit., p. 127.

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classical scholars and knew large portions of the text almost by heart. Edward S. Joynes, a man who had attended one of these academies described one of his teachers as follows:

> As we recited the teacher would pace across the room, chewing his great quid of tobacco, yet watchful of every word or intonation, now and then interpolating brilliant exposition or apt renderings, which fired us with interest and emulation. Here I read Caesar, Sallust, Virgil, the Eclogues, Georgics, and six books of Aenead; Cicero's oration against Catiline and Verres; and Horace's Odes and Satires,--all in two years.[22]

The academies represented an advance in the evolution of the educational system in Virginia. They came into being in response to the popular demand for a more practical type of training which included the sciences. They developed out of the old classical schools, known in some sections of the state as the "parsons' schools" and "old field" schools. The teaching of the sciences came with the movement that demanded a more practical type of training. This movement was sponsored and maintained by the middle class and the wide-spread movement of new industrial, economic, and political forces in the state. This type of education persisted so long in Virginia because of the transition of political ideals, represented by Jefferson's philosophy of local self-government, and the fear of centralized power in matters of state control. "It appears

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[22] C. J. Heatwole, op. cit., p. 132.

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evident that the evolution of American education has gone along with the idea of a certain degree of centralized power." [23]

Attempt to Establish a School System Before 1800

Jefferson's Bill for Diffusion of Knowledge.--Numerous attempts were made in Virginia between 1776 and 1870 to establish a really uniform system of free schools. The first plan of this character was drawn up by Thomas Jefferson and presented to the General Assembly in 1779. "Since this 'Bill for the Diffusion of Knowledge' as it was generally called is accepted as the first American proposal for a modern state school system and served as a stimulus for later legislation in Virginia, its main provisions are worthy of examination." [24] The essential provisions of the bill are as follows:

(1) Each county was to be laid off into small districts five or six miles square, called hundreds, in each of which was to be established a school for the teaching of the three R's.

(2) The teachers were to be paid by these hundreds, and each patron living in the hundred was entitled to send his

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[23] Ibid., p. 133.

[24] W. A. Maddox, The Free School Idea in Virginia Before the Civil War, p. 12. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1918.

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children to the school three years free, and longer if he paid for the privilege.

(3) Every ten schools were to be supervised by an overseer who was to introduce a general course of instruction. The overseer was to choose annually one boy, the most promising in the school, whose parents were unable to provide for his further education, and send him to one of twenty grammar schools which were to be established in different parts of the state, for the teaching of Latin, Greek, geography, and mathematics.

(4) Trial was to be made for one year of the pupils selected, the best to be retained and the rest to be dismissed. Those pupils retained were to be further educated at public expense for six years.

(5) At the end of six years, one-half of the less bright in each grammar school were to be dismissed and the other half sent to William and Mary College for three years at public expense.

(6) William and Mary College under an approved form was to be the State University.[25]

This was Jefferson's idea of a school system for the democracy that he advocated. Through this system he hoped that

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[25] P. L. Ford, Writings of Thomas Jefferson, pp. 11, 20, 29. New York: G. F. Putnam and Sons, 1916.

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each free white child would have at least three years of schooling and secure a fair knowledge of reading, writing, and arithmetic. Selection of the brightest for higher education conformed with Jefferson's idea that the state should profit by the intellectual genius of her citizens wherever it could be found. While this bill represented a noble attempt to establish a public school system, it was apparently too advanced for the time and failed to pass the assembly.

Permissive Law of 1796.--Although Jefferson's bill failed of passage, a bill in 1796 calling for an "Aldermanic" system of local primary schools actually passed the assembly. The act unwisely left education purely optional, granting the counties permission to establish a system of schools to be supported by local taxation or community subscription. The act provided that in each county there should be chosen three of the most able men to be called aldermen. These aldermen were to meet annually on the second Monday in May, "if it be fair." If the aldermen deemed it expedient they were to divide the county into convenient sections of such size that all free children could attend the schools established therein. The site for the school building was to be chosen by the householders residing within the district. All white children were to receive three years of instruction free, and they could moreover attend the school as much longer at private expense as their parents or guardians might deem proper. The aldermen were to appoint a teacher for each school and at least one of them was to visit every school at least once in every half year and superintend the conduct of the

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teacher in all matters relating to the school. The salary of the teacher and the expense of maintaining and repairing the school property were to be defrayed by the inhabitants of each county in proportion to the public assessments. Reading, writing, and common arithmetic were the chief subjects to be taught. The act further provided that the court of each county should first determine the year in which the first election of the aldermen was to be made, and until the courts determined the year no such election was to be conducted.[26] So far as the available records show, no petitions were presented to the courts and no meetings were held to consider the law. There were certain inherent reasons besides the general inertia and distrust by county magistrates of so new a principle, to account for Virginia's failure to take advantage of this law. In the first place, local taxation of property for the support of community schools entirely free and open to rich and poor alike was not a popular measure. Then, too, the principle that the state should compel an individual to tax himself for the education of his neighbor's children had not yet been widely accepted in Virginia. Finally, the rural conditions and atmosphere helped to promote satisfaction with things as they were.

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[26] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 1, 1796.

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Development of Support for Free Schools

Means of Support for Free Schools.--In 1802 an act was passed which provided that glebe lands, the plate of deserted churches, and unclaimed, forfeited, and deserted lands could be sold by counties on petition and the funds appropriated to free school purposes. [27] According to the record, a considerable number of counties took advantage of this provision and applied glebe funds to free school purposes.[28]

A direct tax on property for the support of schools was seldom levied during this period. However, provision for such a tax did appear in the early statutes. An act passed in 1806 empowered the trustee of the town of Charlottesville "to lay and assess on the tithables and property, real and personal, within the said town, a tax not exceeding two hundred dollars, to be applied under the direction of said trustees, towards the establishment of a public school or seminary of learning in the said town". [29]

The evidence indicates that Virginia was slow to accept the principle of direct property taxation for schools and endeavored to find some other way of supporting free schools. This attitude was reflected in the creation of the literary fund in 1810.

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[27] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 5, 1802.

[28] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 23, 1811; Chapter 79, 1817; House Journal, December 15, 1807, p. 20.

[29] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 65, 1806.

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The Literary Fund of 1810.--In 1810 an act was passed by the Assembly which provided that "escheats, confiscations, fines, penalties, and forfeitures, and all rights in personal property accruing to the Commonwealth," should be appropriated to the encouragement of learning. The auditor of public accounts was given permission to open an account to be known as the "Literary Fund". The fund was to be apportioned and distributed as the next legislature deemed best for the promotion of literature; provided, always, that the fund "be appropriated to the sole benefit of a school or schools, to be kept in each and every county within this Commonwealth".[30]

In 1811, the Assembly defined the purpose of this fund as that of "providing schools for the poor of the State", and a definite protest was made against the misappropriation of the fund by any future assembly. The control of the fund was placed in the hands of a board of directors composed of the governor, lieutenant governor, treasurer, attorney general, and the president of the court of appeals. It was the duty of this board of directors, as soon as sufficient funds were available, "to provide a school or schools for the education of the poor in each and every county of the Commonwealth".[31] At this time the board was empowered to

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[30] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 65,1806.

[31] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 62, 1871.

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raise by lottery annually for a period of seven years "any sum not exceeding thirty thousand dollars".[32] In 1816, the legislature donated the sum of $210,550 to the literary fund which represented the payment of a loan made by the state of Virginia to the government of the United States during the War of 1812.[33] The constitution of 1850 provided that one-half of the capitation tax should be applied "to the purposes of education in primary and free schools", [34] provided that the funds were apportioned by the directors of the literary fund.

In 1853 the Assembly appropriated all the tax from this source to the literary fund for apportionment to the free schools.[35] In 1823 the expenditure of money belonging to the literary fund was provided for by placing additional power and responsibility upon the second auditor who became the disbursing officer of the state school funds. It was also provided that the county commissioners should report annually

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[32] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 62, 1811.

[33] Ibid., Chapter 2, 1816.

[34] Constitution of Virginia, Article IV, Section 24, 1850.

[35] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 26, 1853.

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through the second auditor to the General Assembly.[36] From this period until the public school system was permanently established in 1870 there was a quasi-superintendent of public instruction in the office of the second auditor, although his powers were very limited. The board of directors of the literary fund provided the nucleus from which the State Board of Education finally emerged.

Developments Between 1800 and 1830

This new literary fund of over one million dollars, to be used for purposes of public education, was a great encouragement to the progressive educators of the state. It must now be decided how to use the fund to the best advantage. One faction wanted to use it for the establishment of a system of primary schools for all classes, while another group desired the establishment of a state university. The outcome of this bitter struggle was the Act of 1818 which proved to be a compromise.[37]

School Legislation of 1818.--The school law of 1818 provided for an annual appropriation of $15,000 to the University of Virginia, to be provided from the literary fund;[38]

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[36] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 11, 1823.

[37] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 33, 1818.

[38] Ibid., 1818.

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$45,000 was to be provided from the same fund as an annual appropriation for the education of poor children. The law governing apprenticeship education still remained in force. The principal gain in this connection was in providing public education for the poor beyond that provided by apprenticeship and local legislation. The appropriation of $45,000 for the education of the poor proved to be entirely inadequate to meet the demands. It is a significant fact that by making the literary fund a poor fund the public schools of Virginia were given a pauper taint which fostered class distinction and hampered the effectiveness of the schools for many decades.

Developments during the Eighteen-Forties

Between 1840 and 1850 the conventions which seemed successful in creating some enthusiasm for public schools were held in various sections of the state. In these conventions the trans-Allegheny counties appeared to be the aggressors; however, the enthusiasm for public education was noticeable throughout the state.

In 1841 and 1845 educational conventions were held in the city of Richmond. The enthusiasm generated by these conventions was responsible for the twin acts of March 5, 1846; one, entitled, "An Act to Amend the Present Primary

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School System,"[39] the other, "An Act for the Establishment of a District Free School System.[40]

The Twin Acts of 1846.--By the act to amend the existing primary school system Virginia inaugurated a system of county superintendents to be elected by the county boards of school commissioners. The superintendents were to act as clerk and treasurer of their respective boards and were to require an exact accounting of school officers. They were also to visit and supervise the schools.

According to the provisions of the act that established a district free school system, the board of school commissioners was to divide the counties into districts; the size of said districts was to be regulated according to the discretion of the board. These districts were to contain a sufficient number of children to make up a school and the school buildings were to be large enough to take care of all who wanted to attend. Each district was to be under the supervision of three trustees. The districts were also to be divided into precincts in each of which a school commissioner was to be elected annually. The curriculum provided for instruction not only in the three R's, reading, writing, and arithmetic, but in English Grammar,

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39 Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 41, 1846.

40 Ibid., Chapter 42, 1846.

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and history (especially the history of Virginia) together with the history of the United States. The elements of physical science, and such other branches as the school commissioners directed, were also to be taught.

The first act of the twin acts provided that, "if this system failed to meet the needs of any of the counties or was disapproved by them, they might, through an election, adopt any free school system that had been previously adopted in the State." [41]

It was provided that teachers were to be examined as to qualifications and moral character by the board of school commissioners or by some other person appointed by the board for that purpose. Trustees found negligent in this duty were to be fined at least ten dollars. The county's quota from the literary fund was to be used entirely for the payment of teachers' salaries. The school building was to be provided by the district. All white children residing in the districts were to receive instruction free of charge. It was left optional with the counties to accept or reject the law at the polls. It was further stipulated that, "the counties which may not choose to adopt the foregoing provision for the establishment of free schools may call a meeting of their county magistrates to determine a proper course". [42]

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[41] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 41, 1846.

[42] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 48, 1846.

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The Special Act of 1846.--During the year 1846 a special act was passed in an effort to establish directly by statute a complete district free school system in the counties of Lancaster, Westmoreland, Richmond, King George, Accomac, Northumberland, Loudon, Brooke, Jefferson, Henry, Frederick, Kanawha, Prince William, York, James City, Fairfax, and the city of Williamsburg. The act provided for pupils between the ages of five and twenty-one years of age. The curriculum was to comprise reading, writing, arithmetic, and, whenever possible, English grammar, geography, history, moral philosophy, and such higher branches as the board might direct. The system was to be supported from the annual quota of the literary fund, donations, and bequests, interest on glebe funds, a tax of one dollar on all white males over twenty-one years of age, and an assessment not to exceed fifty per cent of the state taxes paid by each individual in the county. If the board of school commissioners thought it advisable, they might add a tuition of fifty cents per quarter for each child in attendance.[43]

Legislation and Individual Counties. --During the period of the late eighteen-forties and the early fifties a number of special acts were passed which permitted individual counties

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[43] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, Chapter 42, 1846.

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to establish school systems as the demand or need was felt. These counties were: Albemarle--1845,[44] Norfolk--1845,[45] Essex--1846,[46] Frederick and Jefferson--1847,[47] also Loudon, Fairfax, and Kanawha--1847,[48] Patrick--1848,[49] King George - 1849,[50] Ohio--1849,[51] Hanover--1851[52] Accomac--1852[53], Halifax, Culpepper, and Marshall--1853,[54] and Clarke--1854.[55]

When the state code was revised in 1849, an attempt was made to provide as soon as possible every county with some system of free schools. According to the provisions of this act, each county had the privilege of adopting any one of the free school systems authorized prior to 1850.

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[44] Ibid., Chapter 26, 1845.

[45] Ibid., Chapter 27, 1845.

[46] Ibid., Chapter 43, 1846.

[47] Ibid., Chapter 32, 1847.

[48] Ibid., Chapter 33, 1847.

[49] Ibid., Chapter 101, 1848.

[50] Ibid., Chapter 113, 1849.

[51] Ibid., Chapter 115, 1849.

[52] Ibid., Chapter 53, 1851.

[53] Ibid., Chapters 249, 250, 251, 1852.

[54] Ibid., Chapter 342, 1853.

[55] Ibid., Chapter 103, 1854.

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It seems apparent that when the code went into operation in 1850 a considerable group of counties and cities had created systems of free public schools which actually meant the beginning of a real system of common schools.

By the year 1855 common school systems were in complete operation in the following counties: Accomac, Elizabeth City, Norfolk, Princess Anne, Northampton, King George, and also in the tidewater cities of Norfolk, Portsmouth, and Fredericksburg. Public schools were also in operation in the trans-Allegheny counties of Washington, Jefferson, Kanawha, and the city of Wheeling. Practically all sections of the State were trying out the common school idea. The Norfolk county and Portsmouth city systems were especially active.[56]

Early Schools in Norfolk.-- A picture of the Norfolk schools of about 1855 is found in a bulletin of the Norfolk Board of Education:

> The earliest schools in Norfolk, were as elsewhere, private schools and it was not until 1850 that the city was authorized by the Assembly of Virginia to inaugurate public schools. Even then it took five years to get the local authorities to the point of appointing a committee to consider the establishment of public schools in Norfolk, and two years of preparation by the committee before the schools were actually opened. It is interesting to note that one of these schools was opened in a building that had been, up to that time, used as a private school employing Lancaster's monitorial system of instruction. These schools, although operated as public schools, were free only to the children of parents too poor to pay the two dollars tuition

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[56] W. A. Maddox, op. cit., pp. 163-64.

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fee. Five years after the opening of the schools there were 450 pupils enrolled, of which 252 had paid tuition.57

Judging from the foregoing description of the Norfolk schools in 1850, one might well conclude that there was much room for improvement, in spite of the fact that this system was represented as being one of the most progressive in the state at that time.

Further information on the condition of the Norfolk schools during this period is contained in the following statement:

> An interesting sidelight on the status of the profession of education in Virginia in 1857 is shown by the statement that a "prominent lawyer" was charged by the school committee with the organization and putting into operation of the new school system.
>
> The record of the Norfolk schools for many years was a record of a continuous struggle to provide buildings and seats enough for all who sought the advantage offered by the public schools. Many times pupils were refused enrollment because of lack of space.58

It is evident that public school teaching in 1857 had not yet reached anything approaching the status of a profession in Virginia, since it was necessary to employ a laywer to administer the public schools of Norfolk at that date.

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57 The Public Schools of Norfolk, Virginia, p. 4. Unpublished School Board Bulletin. Norfolk, Virginia: School Board of the City of Norfolk, November, 1925.

58 Ibid., p. 7.

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Public Sentiment for Popular Education.-- From the 1830's to the 50's a great wave of discussion arose as to the best system of education for the state. The churches were particularly interested in the fostering of secondary and higher education. They were demanding that the State subsidize the institution which they had already established. There was a strong feeling among one class that the State should adopt a complete system of education under state control. Charles Fenton Mercer, in 1817, drew up and presented to the Legislature a bill providing for a Board of Public Instruction, with a permanent secretary, and for a system of primary schools free to all white children. The bill also provided for a system of academies and for colleges and a university. Although the bill passed the House it was defeated in the Senate. The academies were popular in Virginia during this period and any proposed school legislation usually included this type of school. However, there were some people who though that educational matters should be omitted from all legislation and one man branded the literary fund as a "public nuisance."

The people had a decided tendency to fear taxation and central control of public matters. Many considered it heresy to tax public property for the support of free

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schools. The private school idea had a powerful hold on the people, and the public schools labored under the stigma of charity schools. Thus, public education lagged, and the idea of complete local control in matters of education was dominant. Under such circumstances academies continued as the best type of education in the state.

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Summary

Private Education During the Colonial Period.--During the colonial period, education in Virginia was provided in the following ways: (a) by private or "free school foundations", (b) by community or "old field" schools, (c) by the private tutor in the home, (d) by education abroad, and (e) by apprenticeship education for the poor.

The most important of the early free school foundations were those of Benjamin Symmes and Thomas Eaton (1634). In 1805 these schools were incorporated into one as Hampton Academy.

The "old field" schools represented a co-operative undertaking on the part of heads of various families in the employment of a teacher for their children. The school house was located within reach of the children of the neighborhood. Perhaps the majority of children who received an education in the seventeenth century obtained it in these schools.

The tutorial system was a method which the rich planter employed in providing education for his children and, frequently, for the children of his neighbors. Sometimes the tutor's task was confined to the rudiments of learning, but more frequently to giving an advanced education.

Education abroad was favored by many of the wealthy planters

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for their sons because of the superior educational advantages and liberalizing influences of the mother country. Quite a number went to England for their education.

Apprenticeship Education.--The English practice of providing education for the poor was transplanted into the Virginia colony and is reflected in the numerous laws passed for the education of this class, especially during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

There appear to have been at least four motives back of this practice in the colony: first, economic, the desire to increase the number of artisans and to promote industrial efficiency; second, humanitarian, the desire to alleviate the condition of unfortunate children; third, religious, to promote the study of the Bible; fourth, educational, to teach children the fundamentals, especially to read and write.

The earliest tendency was to require the overseers and guardians of orphans to educate them in such manner as the orphan's estates would permit, but later a provision was made for apprenticing those orphans whose estates were not sufficient to provide for their education.

The practice of apprenticing orphans and of requiring the master to teach them to read and write was soon extended so that it would also include those poor children whose parents were unable or unwilling to support them and to provide

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them with the simple elements of education. There was a tendency to enact laws to compel those charged with such functions to perform their duties and to penalize them for failure to do so.

The Academy Movement.-- The academy movement began in Virginia during the last quarter of the eighteenth century and extended almost to the close of the nineteenth century. The academies usually represented private undertakings and were controlled by a board of trustees who were granted the usual corporate powers. They were allowed to develop according to local demands, unfettered by action of the state.

Although the curriculum of the academies included a number of the modern subjects, the classical subjects seemed to predominate. The academy movement was strengthened by the popular demand for a more practical type of training, including instruction in the sciences. The academies of this period offered instruction in both elementary and secondary subjects.

Attempts to Establish a Free School System in Virginia Before 1800.--The first attempt to establish a public school system in Virginia was made in 1779, when Thomas Jefferson presented to the legislature his famous "Bill for the Diffusion of Knowledge". This bill contemplated a complete school system from the elementary grades to the university, but it

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failed to pass the assembly.

The most important educational step during the early part of the nineteenth century was the creation of the literary fund in 1810. This act provided that "escheats, confiscations, fines, penalties, and forfeitures, and all rights in personal property accruing to the commonwealth" should be devoted to the encouragement of learning.

In 1818, when the income of the literary fund was sufficient to furnish considerable aid for education, an attempt was again made to establish a public school system. Differences of opinion arose among the political leaders as to whether the state should begin by establishing a university or a common school system. The result was a compromise act in 1818, providing for an appropriation of $45,000 from the literary fund for the education of poor children and for an annuity of $15,000 to the state university. The provision for free schools failed because $45,000 was not sufficient to educate all who applied, and it also gave the schools a pauper taint which fostered class distinction.

During the eighteen-forties three laws were enacted in an attempt to establish a school system. The forward step in these laws was the provision for a county superintendent and a board of school trustees for each county. Financial support of the schools was left to be taken care of by the

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limited revenue of the literary fund, unless two-thirds of the taxpayers in a county voted to increase it by taxation. This latter provision, added to the fact that the establishment of either system proposed was purely optional with the counties, caused the failure of the laws.

On the eve of the Civil War, Virginia had a county superintendent and a board of school trustees, or commissioners , in each county and seemed to be on the verge of creating a more effective public school system, but the hovering war clouds prevented further legislative action at that time.

After peace was declared the state was so burdened by the aftermath of war that any existing sentiment for free schools was buried beneath the weight of more urgent problems, such as: (1) an enormous state debt, (2) controversies of the reconstruction period, and (3) the problem of the emancipated Negro.

In July of 1870 a comprehensive bill making constitutional provision for a uniform system of free schools, with a state board of education, state superintendent, county superintendent, local school trustees, and support through a permanent fund, in addition to state and local taxation, passed the legislature. It is at this point that Virginia's public free school system began.

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CHAPTER III

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS FROM 1870 TO THE OPENING OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

Introduction

The present chapter deals with the public school system from 1870 to the opening of the twentieth century. Outstanding developments during this period were: (1) the reconstruction constitution of 1869 which made provision for a public school system to be financed by the State, (2) meeting the issues and problems which the Civil War created for education, (3) the establishment of the public school system in 1870, and (4) overcoming the existing popular prejudice against public free schools and creating a favorable public sentiment for public education.

The problems that faced the schools during this period were extremely difficult. To meet these problems and establish the school system, William Henry Ruffner was elected the first state superintendent of public instruction. This chapter analyzes some of the principal accomplishments of Ruffner's administration. Reports from a number of division superintendents in various parts of the state are included. These reports tell of conditions as they existed in the different communities of the state and explain how the schools were established in these districts.

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Problems Created by the Civil War

When the literary fund was diverted to the military defense of the state the interest in public education in Virginia rapidly disappeared. Even after peace was declared the state at large seemed to forget its ante-bellum educational history and popular opinion against the common schools was easily aroused. The main reasons for this condition were: first, the state was burdened with an immense debt; second, the people became involved in the political controversies of the period of reconstruction; and, third, the emancipated Negro presented a serious problem. As a result of emancipation a new class of people was ready for the common schools, and many Negroes and a few white radicals proposed that democratization be complete by admitting the Negro to the schools on equal terms with the white. Although public education was a heavy burden for a broken state to assume, the social menace that threatened to accompany it was even a greater factor in retarding the development of a public school system.

In 1860 there were 85,433 pupils attending the public schools in comparison with 8,700 in 1870. The number of public school teachers had dropped from 3,896 to 171. The number of academies reported to be in existence in 1860 was 398, in contrast with 88 reported a decade later. The number

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of colleges had dropped considerably from 23 to 14. When one reflects that these statistics were reported five years after peace was declared, it becomes difficult to over-estimate the disastrous consequences of the war on public education in Virginia. The trend in education seemed to be the abandonment of the public schools and a reversion to the private school idea which had marked the early period of history in this state.

A vivid picture of the existing conditions is painted in the following statement written by a school superintendent in 1885:

> At the close of the war Lunenburg County was in a most pitiable educational condition. The ranks of our men were decimated. Those who survived and were capable of taking charge of our educational interests found that their neighbors were not able to pay them adequately for their services. They emigrated or fell into other vocations. Hence when the free schools were at first re-opened we had few teachers qualified to take charge of them; in fact some of the teachers were so thoroughly disqualified and they made such a miserable botch of the business that the system fell into disrepute from which it required several years to overcome.[1]

State Superintendent William H. Ruffner apparently shared the foregoing opinion. He explained that the schools had to be set going with such materials as were found existing; that it was impossible always to find such material as should have been used. Public schools multiplied so rapidly that it was impossible to secure a sufficient number of teachers. However, he gave his opinion that "the schools were fair, always

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[1] O. L. Hardy, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 216. Richmond: Department of Education.

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equal and often superior to those which had previously existed in the same localities."[2]

From 1860 to 1869, only two acts were passed relating to public free schools: the first, concerning the organization and duties of district school trustees in the county of Jefferson,[3] and the second, stipulating how the public school funds should be raised in King George County.[4]

During the latter part of the decade from 1860 to 1870 there was a revival of the spirit for a uniform system of free schools which reached its climax in the constitutional convention of 1867-68. This body was composed of 105 members, 33 of whom were conservative, and 72 radicals. The radical majority was composed of 25 Negroes and 47 whites, 14 of whom were native white Virginians, while the others came from the northern states and probably a few from abroad. In the opinion of Eckenrode,[5] the majority in the convention was dominated by the political ideas that then held the popular mind in the North. It is an established fact that

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[2]William H. Ruffner, Virginia School Report, 1871, p. 13. Richmond: Department of Education.

[3]Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1861, Chapter 149.

[4]Ibid., Chapter 324, 1866.

[5]H. J. Eckenrode, Political History of Virginia During Reconstruction, p. 87. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1904.

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Virginia owes the establishment of her first system of uniform public schools to this unique assembly. After nearly a century the educational dream of Jefferson was to be realized in part at least. Figure 1 presents a graphic picture of the provisions for public education under the constitution of 1869.

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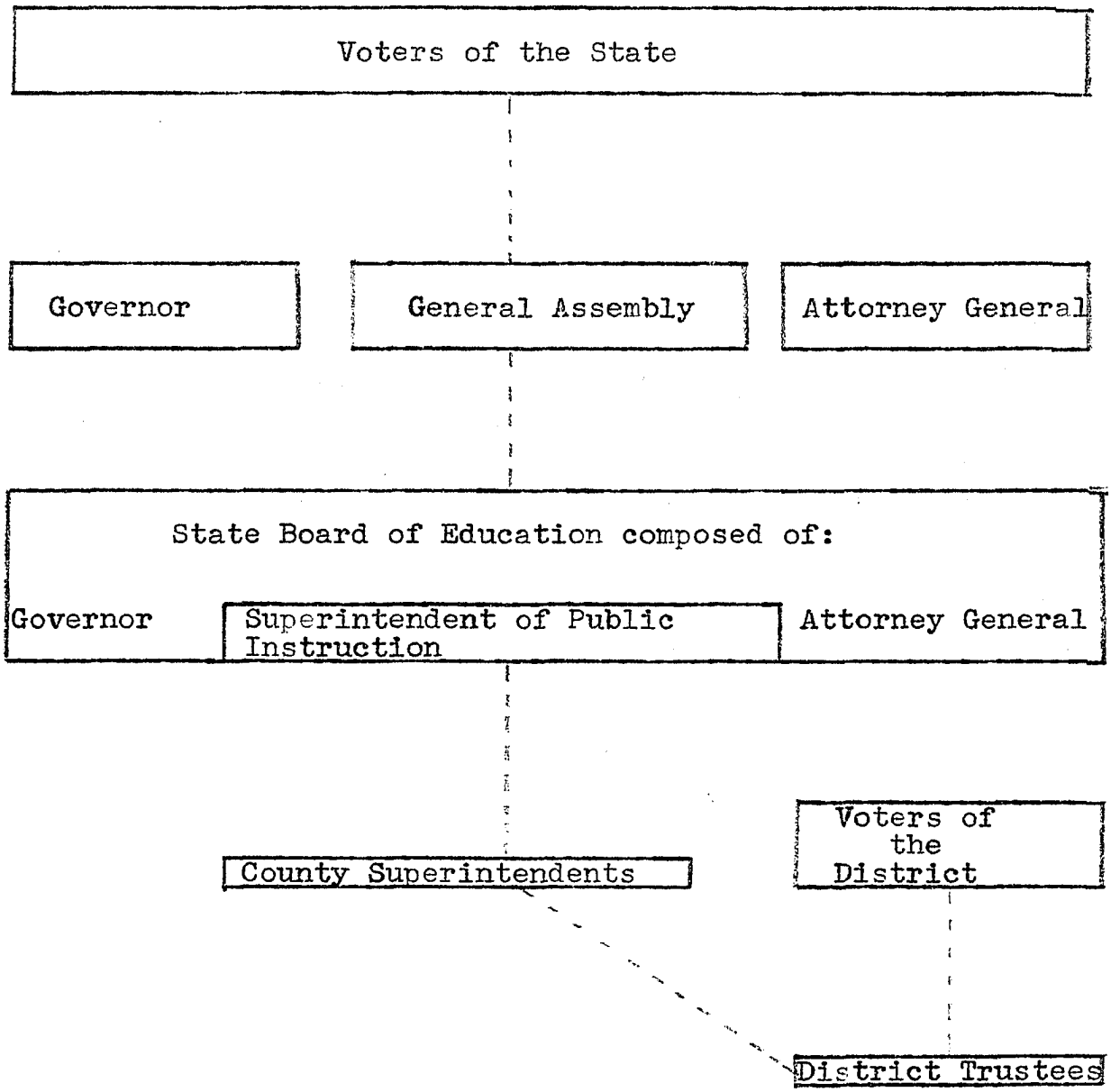
FIGURE 1

PROVISION FOR THE STATE SCHOOL SYSTEM UNDER THE RECONSTRUCTION CONSTITUTION OF 1869



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Effect of Social-Economic Conditions on Education

It is evident that the development of public education in Virginia during the period following the Civil War was greatly influenced by social, economic, and political conditions. The economy of the state was completely disrupted by the war and had to be repaired before any appreciable progress could be made along educational and cultural lines. Agriculture had been a basic industry, but farmers were bankrupt, their equipment gone, and their credit ruined. Agricultural operations, which had been geared to slave labor, had to be completely reorganized.

It is an established fact that the period following 1870 saw great development in many partsof the country, especially the new West. However, owing to the economic chaos produced by the war and its aftermath, little of this development came to Virginia. Unable to provide the necessary finances needed for farm and industrial operations, some of the more ambitious in Virginia moved to the newly developing West.

Although the Constitution of 1870 provided for free, tax-supported schools, as a result of the foregoing situation it was not until near the end of the century that these could be assured of even a small portion of the revenue necessary for their effective operation. Consequently, the schools were

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the beginning of a new era in the history of Virginia.

Prior to the Civil War the General Assembly had been occupied with theoretical discussions of state versus local control in the establishment of schools and with the consideration of means of supporting schools without taxation. The new constitution settled the first controversy and led the people into accepting taxation as the means of school support. Although Virginia now had the machinery for a first class modern system, she had to wait for the coming of a new generation and the further crystallization of public sentiment, as well as greater economic prosperity, before the schools really became established. The turn of the century marked a new era in Virginia's educational system.

This action by the legislature secured at least a trial of the public free school system. Its success or failure depended largely upon Ruffner. It should be remembered that Ruffner was not the first who had undertaken this important task. Jefferson had attempted it and achieved only limited success. He did succeed in establishing the University of Virginia; but he failed in that portion of the scheme which lay nearest to his heart. He failed to set up a school system which was popular with the public.

Without doubt it required a great heart and persistent determination to face the old time combination of political,

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social, and religious agitators who had thwarted Jefferson's favorite contention and had beaten to the wall for more than a century a system of state education. Ruffner's opponents contended that as a result of the free schools the number of criminals would be increased, lawlessness and vice would become more prevalent, and the state would be burdened with convicts, the fruits of the free school system.

One of the principal opponents of free, public education was R. L. Dabney who sympathized with the eastern aristocratic spirit. He feared that free public education would create a mixture of the children of the decent and the children of the vile, creating, as a resultant, a class of citizens of mediocre value. Again he argued that:[7]

> Not all could be great; therefore the preferable plan would be to let some be educated while others remained in ignorance. The truly great would rise under any condition. The destiny of the greater part of the human family is the alternative of manual labor or savagery. Why, then should this inevitable tendency be interrupted by a smattering of education? Besides by a system of free schools the youths would be created into a class of readers only one-fourth or one-tenth cultivated; the sure result will be the production of a false, shallow, sciostic literature, science, and theology infinitely worse than blank ignorance. Quoting Pope, Dabney declared, "a little learning is a dangerous thing: Drink deep or taste not the Pierian spring."

Ruffner's sound logic and knowledge of political economy enable him successfully to refute the objections of his opponents.

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[7]The John P. Branch Historical Papers of Randolph-Macon College, p. 141, Vol. 3, No. 1. Ashland, Virginia: Randolph-Macon College Press, 1909.

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He proved by example of certain European countries that education and obedience go hand in hand. His pen was constantly busy, furnishing material for the large number of periodicals and newspapers in which he upheld his views. As the years went by the system became more and more successful until, within a short while, after 1876 the last cry of opposition had ceased. Never before has a commonwealth, so overwhelmed by the results of a disastrous Civil War, risen with such persistent determination and, in one short and troubled generation, placed itself in all ways so far in advance of any previous period of its history.

From 1876 forward State Superintendent Ruffner became the leading educator of his state. He had risen as the champion of education, had borne every kind of insult, had braved the fury of his opponents, and had conquered; now, when the significance of his work had become apparent throughout the state, he was heralded with epithets far different from those with which he had been greeted before.

Relative Importance of Subject Matter

English was considered of utmost importance at this period, even as it is today. (See Appendix, pp.323-48). Arithmetic held a high place in the curriculum. Superintendent Ruffner predicted that natural science would eventually occupy a prominent place in the school program. He pointed out that

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the most obvious thing a child needed to be taught was the use of the mother tongue. He believed that arithmetic was the initial subject of mathematics and formed part of a science which, "though the most abstract of all sciences, had innumerable applications and was of indispensable service to man in all periods and circumstances of life."[8] In spite of the traditional contention that language and mathematics were by eminence the great educational studies, Ruffner argued that physics would soon share the throne on an equal footing with the two others. He believed that geography belonged to and was a part of the natural sciences. In his judgment only a few authors had yet caught the idea out of which the geography of the future was to grow. He criticized the method of teaching geography where pupils were required to commit to memory page upon page of small names and facts which were merely dead wood in the brain. He recommended for primary schools a geographical science with its main facts and nothing more. As a further means to the study of geography he suggested that "the drawing of outline maps should accompany all geographical study as a means of cultivating accuracy of eye and hand and of fixing the features of the country permanently in mind. Indeed, free-hand and mechanical drawing will in time and should constitute a regular branch of instruction in the elementary schools."[9]

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[8]William H. Ruffner, Virginia School Report, 1872, p. 9. Richmond: Department of Education.

[9]William H. Ruffner, op. cit., p. 29.

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It will be noted that Superintendent Ruffner predicted that free-hand and mechanical drawing would, in time, become a regular branch of instruction in the elementary school. He also defended music as a part of the elementary school curriculum. This action on his part indicates that these subjects were already pressing for a place in the school program, and as a consequence, drawing the fire of critics. The tendency of the public to look with suspicion on new subjects and methods still exists, as will be shown later in this study.

Physiology and Hygiene.--In the state school report for the year 1887 John L. Buchanan, state school superintendent, suggested that physiology and hygiene be made required subjects in the public schools of the state. He stated that the value of this branch of knowledge was obvious. He also pointed out that, "a large majority of states had already placed physiology on the list of branches required to be taught in the public schools."[10]

Manual Training.--In the same report the state superintendent discussed the advisability of introducing manual training into the public schools. He analyzed the arguments for and against manual training as follows:

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[10] John L. Buchanan, Virginia School Report, 1887, p. 32. Richmond: Department of Education.

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> The subject of manual training continues to attract earnest attention in some sections of our country as it had done for many years in Europe.....It is maintained that manual, or industrial, or mechanical training ought to begin early and constitute a part of the process of education, that such training can be given to an extent that is valuable without heavy expense; ..... that the training of the hand and eye is an essential part of a complete education.11

Continuing with the discussion, Superintendent Buchanan indicated that opponents of manual training maintained that it was not practicable because of the expense attending it. In addition he concluded that "the course of study was already overcrowded, and that there was no room for it without neglecting other essential branches of symmetrical education."[12] In the final analysis, he argued that the matter of how far the State had a right to educate was involved in the controversy over industrial arts, and that on this point opinions varied and were antagonistic. Finally, there was no available money to make provisions for this subject.[13]

It is interesting to note that the controversy over how far the State has a right to educate existed as far back as 1887, and that this was one of the main reasons given by

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[11] Ibid., p. 33.

[12] John L. Buchanan, op. cit., p. 33.

[13] Ibid., p. 33.

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the state school head for opposing the introduction of industrial arts. Since that time industrial arts have been introduced into many elementary and secondary schools of the state, but the problem of how far the State has a right to educate is still a burning issue and is far from being settled.

It will be seen from the foregoing discussion that the attitude of the public regarding changes in subject matter and methods was a vital factor in the controversy over industrial arts. As this study progresses, it will be noted that public sentiment has continued to play an important part in the development of the public school curriculum.

Arithmetic.--At this period, the late decades of the nineteenth century, arithmetic had a very important place in the school curriculum, and a teacher's ability to work the hardest problems was a very important basis for the esteem with which he was regarded in the community. Addington[14] points out that arithmetic, of all subjects in the curriculum, was the best taught. The old time teacher's enthusiasm for it was infectious and was communicated to his pupils. Individual, not class instruction, was very largely given.

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[14]Robert M. Addington, The Old Time School in Scott County, Vol. 2, No. 2, p. 13. East Radford: East Radford Normal School, August, 1914.

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Any kind of school work could be interrupted by a problem. The main responsibility of the teacher was to solve the problem. He could give such explanation as he saw fit. (See Appendix, pp. 323-31).

Public Speaking.-- The schools of this early period in Virginia gave considerable attention to public speaking. Since it was generally considered that education was a preparation for a political career and it was customary for the people of the community to gather in the school houses for various types of entertainment, the importance of public speaking as a school exercise becomes apparent.

It has been said that the Friday evening exercises in public speaking became a close rival of the spelling match in popularity with the teachers, although never quite so popular with the pupils.[15] Usually the declamation and recitation presented a literary medley ranging in variety from the nonsensical couplet, "I had a little pig and fed him clover; when he died he died all over", to the "Supposed Speach of John Adams".[16] There was little training in modulation or gesture. Frequently, while on his way to the stage the pupil was admonished to let his hands hang down and to look natural.

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[15] Robert M. Addington, op. cit., p. 13.

[16] Ibid., p. 14.

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Spelling.--Before starting the study of spelling the pupil was required to learn the alphabet from "A to Z". When the alphabet was thought to be thoroughly mastered the pupil was then permitted to spell "on the book". Spelling "on the book" was followed by spelling "off the book", or spelling by heart. This was frequently continued until the pupil was able to spell every word in the speller. One of the favorite spelling books of this period was Holmes' Speller, which was the successor of Webster's old blue back speller.

Every pupil able to spell orally was expected to recite a "heart lesson" some time during the day, usually the last thing in the evening. "Heart lessons" were studied aloud, a custom of the old time school that had been brought down from the "blab" school. "Head marks" were given and often there was much rivalry in contesting for the prize. The old time school was one-tenth spelling match.[17]

From available information it is apparent that a considerable knowledge of spelling was considered necessary before taking up the study of reading. Children did not begin to read at very tender ages. Grown men were often members of first reader classes. The test of good reading was the ability to pronounce the words; little attention was given to anything else. In some of the schools, after McGuffey's

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[17] Robert M. Addington, op. cit., p. 15.

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series of readers had been completed, New Testament classes were organized and pupils required to read "verse about".

Many of the schools then adhered to the principle of the three R's and were averse to following the rest of the course prescribed by the state. "In the very brief curriculum, oral spelling seemed to predominate, and it was common to have it morning, noon and night from the dictionary, besides the regular lessons from the spelling book." [18]

There are those who say that children of today do not spell so well as in former days. Whether this be true or not, it is certain that much more is demanded now, not only by the enlarged school course but by our ever changing conditions.

Reports of Division Superintendents Regarding Subject Matter

Valuable information concerning the relative importance of the various subjects and the emphasis placed on each is included in the reports of a number of division superintendents of this period. One superintendent wrote that in all the schools of his division due attention was being given to the subjects of map drawing, mental arithmetic, and language teaching. He explained that the main object of map drawing.

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[18] G. H. Hulvey, The Public Schools of Rockingham County, Virginia. Harrisonburg, Virginia: Virginia News Record, April, 1915. (Pamphlets, Virginia State Library).

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was to make it auxiliary to the study of geography; also that the importance of relative proportions, distance, and directions was insisted upon. Definite progress was reported in the teaching of mental arithmetic and language. An interesting phase of this report was the substitution of the word and sound method for the old alphabet method of teaching reading.[19]

A college instructor wrote that the course of study was so arranged as to provide for the well rounded development of the individual.[20] He explained that in the scheme of education then becoming popular no part of man's nature, whether physical, mental, or moral, was neglected. He believed that the course of study was arranged with regard to proper gradation, influence upon mental growth, and the needs of practical life. The foregoing statement is particularly significant, since it points out the main objectives of the state's educational system, even down to the present time.

An optimistic report was also given by the superintendent of the Montgomery County schools, who claimed that the improvement in methods of instruction under the new system had

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[19]E. C. Glass, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 101. Richmond: Department of Education.

[20]F. V. N. Painter, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 39. Richmond: Department of Education.

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surpassed the expectations of the most sanguine. His statement continues:

> Present methods tend to educate and develop the faculties of the mind, while those of forty years ago only dwarfed and distorted the natural mental powers. Now the child is taught to think, then it was taught to memorize; now an idea is given with the word, then the word was given without the idea; then we had an ever recurring routine of dry profitless work, now we make the school room a place of life and interest, a training room for the rising generation. 21

If the foregoing statement clearly portrays the objectives of the schools at that time, more than fifty years ago, it left little to be desired by way of objectives and compares favorably with the present day philosophy of the leading educators of the state.

Continuing with his discussion, the superintendent mentioned certain existing defects in the schools, such as frequent change of school officers and the constant changing of textbooks. On the latter issue, he said, the dissatisfaction was almost universal.[22]

Superintendent Barksdale, of Halifax County, criticized the schools for failing to provide for a practical business education in the course of study. He said that, although criticized from every quarter, the schools had constantly and steadily grown in favor and that in his county private schools

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[21] F. D. Surface, Virginia School Reports, 1885, p. 224. Richmond: Department of Education.

[22] F. D. Surface, op. cit., p. 224.

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were passing out of existence. However, in his opinion, the course of study fell far short of embracing all that should be taught to those who wanted a thorough business education.[23]

Superintendent Hening, of Halifax County, in discussing the relative importance of the various subjects, explained that reading, spelling, arithmetic, and writing were considered of primary importance, while the other branches were of secondary importance. His statement follows:

> Funds being limited and the scholastic term short, teachers are required to devote their time principally to teaching spelling, reading, arithmetic, writing, grammar, and geography. The first four we deem of prime, the latter two of secondary importance.[24]

A. H. Buckner, superintendent of the Rappahannock County schools, explained that grammar and geography were first taught in the schools about 1810 by one W. W. Covington, who taught a school at what is now called Hollandsburg. This was said to be the first school in Virginia in which grammar and geography were ever taught.[25]

A report from the superintendent of the Madison County schools disclosed the information that, while geography was taught as to climate, location, etc., the child was not made certain that the sun didn't really move. However, in one thing the old pedagogue was ahead. He would take his class of larger

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[23] Thomas E. Barksdale, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 90. Richmond: Department of Education.

[24] William H. Hening, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 127. Richmond: Department of Education.

[25] A. H. Buckner, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 261. Richmond: Department of Education.

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boys to the field surrounding the school house, and survey and plat off land belonging to the parents.[26]

Grammar was taught but little, since its many idioms and peculiar forms seemed too arbitrary to be well understood by teacher or pupil; therefore, it was passed over, and for many years in Madison County there existed a prejudice against grammar on the part of many who had not known it as a science.

From the superintendent of the Lunenberg County schools came the information that arithmetic was considered to be mainly for boys; it was held unfashionable for girls to know much about arithmetic. Reading, writing, arithmetic, and spelling were the only branches taught in the primary schools, but the old masters were well versed in these subjects.[27]

R. M. Wells of Wise County, provided the information that arithmetic was considered the chief thing to be understood and was more taught and studied than any other branch. The teacher never heard a recitation, but the pupil was allowed to work along as best he could until he got stalled, and then the teacher solved the problem. Grammar was learned by committing

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[26]H. W. Frey, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 218. Richmond: Department of Education.

[27]O. L. Hardy, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 214. Richmond: Department of Education.

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the text; analysis and parsing were unknown, since the teachers at this time (1870-80) were unable to parse and analyze sentences.[28]

Continuing with his report Superintendent Wells offered an interesting sidelight on the daily schedule in which he explained that "judgment was not exercised as to the time the teacher ought to teach each day, but as the teacher was considered hired by the people he was to do them a full day's work, beginning or opening school at sun-up and closing at sun-down."[29] It will be noted that such a schedule plainly ignored the principles of education.

According to a statement from the superintendent of the Bedford County schools, the people were interested in writing and spelling only. In the rural districts it was considered snobbish to study the laws of the English language, while in many neighborhoods geography was considered foolishness.[30]

Recapitulation.-- Available information points to the conclusion that, until the Civil War and even later, probably almost up to the close of the nineteenth century, reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic were considered the very core

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[28]R. M. Wells, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 226. Richmond: Department of Education.

[29]Ibid., p. 226.

[30]J. G. Board, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 169. Richmond: Department of Education.

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of the curriculum. However, soon after the beginning of the free public school movement in 1870 geography and grammar began to bid for a place in the educational scheme; industrial education appeared on the horizon late in the century, while physiology made its appearance slightly later. (See Appendix, p. 378).

The work of the schools was, in the main, strictly formal and centered on subject matter. Books were to be studied and mastered. Pupils were expected to learn their lessons, usually a given number of pages in a single textbook, and recite the information back to the teacher. Memorization of facts was the order of the day. The teacher was a task-master whose chief duty was to hear lessons. The emphasis at this period was on subject matter rather than on the child. (See Appendix, pp.316-48).

Problems of Housing and Equipment

One of the most serious problems confronting the newly created state educational system was that of housing. From all indications the public did not realize the importance of good school buildings, but considered any material expenditure for buildings as a waste of money.

The present writer has considered it advisable to devote some space to the matter of school buildings, since buildings

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have a decided influence on the type of work accomplished.

State Superintendent Ruffner has provided a vivid description of one of these early buildings. They were ugly, badly planned, badly built, generally unfenced, unsheltered, unpainted, and without shutters. The door was usually left ajar, the benches were hacked, the walls covered with charcoal sketches, and the whole premises apparently congenial only to cattle and hogs.[31]

Ruffner also added that "to enter one of these pens would fill the most sensitive mind with pity if not with indignation. Probably forty children were crowded into a space not more than sufficient for twenty".[32] In addition the provisions for heating these buildings were extremely bad. Pupils near the stove were too hot, while those farther back suffered from the cold. The seating facilities were equally unsatisfactory:

> The children are ranged on long benches with straight backs, or no backs at all. The feet of the small ones dangle in the air whilst the larger ones rest their elbows on their knees. Some rows have their faces to the walls and a long board in front of them for a desk and little and big must all write at the same elevation. But anyone who has witnessed this scene of misery needs no further description.[33]

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31 William H. Ruffner, Virginia School Report, 1871-72, p. 20. Richmond: Department of Education.

32 Ibid., p. 20.

33 Ibid., p. 20.

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The testimony of numerous division superintendents only serves to emphasize the wretchedness of the shacks known as school buildings during this period. The superintendent of the Bland County schools stated that bad schoolhouses were a great drawback in his county. "The cracks were daubed with common mud; the benches were sometimes made of slabs of puncheons; the chimney was made of rough stones or wood, and the windows were generally very long, one pane of glass high."[34]

Superintendent Taylor explained that the reason so many bad houses were used was lack of money; that in order to get a free school the authorities would use almost any kind of house. There were no painted schoolhouses in Bland County prior to 1881.

The superintendent of the Bedford County schools also gave the lack of money as the principal reason for the inadequacy of the buildings. He cited the reluctance of the county board of supervisors to levy taxes for building purposes and stated that houses could be built only by taxation; however, "the power to tax was conferred on the board of supervisors which often refused to levy the maximum rate allowed by law on districts

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[34]James F. Taylor, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 54. Richmond: Department of Education.

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whose supervisors were opposed to public education."[35]

From the superintendent of Prince William County came the information that the chief cause for the poor buildings was the indifference of the school trustees. His statement was to the effect that the office of school trustee for many years remained a sinecure, and outside of towns and cities was seldom filled. It was not until after the close of the Civil War that any move was made to change this state of affairs.[36] "A crude log hut might occasionally be seen by the roadside but from disuse and inattention it soon went to decay, and there was no disposition on the part of those in power to provide a remedy or to advance in any way popular education."[37]

The superintendent of Wise County told of the limited equipment in use in the schools of his division about 1870. He stated that blackboards, chalk, and crayon were unknown and that the general equipment was very limited. School buildings in his division were cheaply constructed; however, occasionally a special school house was constructed.[38]

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[35]J. G. Board, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 169. Richmond: Department of Education.

[36]William B. Leacy, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 131. Richmond: Department of Education.

[37]Ibid., p. 131.

[38]R. M. Wells, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 226. Richmond: Department of Education.

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In Lunenberg County considerable improvement was made in buildings and equipment even as early as 1840-50.[39]

The lack of sanitary and health facilities was emphasized by Superintendent Hulvey, of Rockingham County. He pointed out that every room was heated by a separate stove, and that a common water bucket and cup were the inheritance of every teacher. Furthermore, no ventilation was provided, and an inadequate amount of light, and that often glaring full in the pupil's face, was common. The toilets contributed greatly to the liability to disease.[40]

Types and Varieties of Textbooks

In the schools of this period the type and nature of the textbooks affected the work of the teacher and apparently slowed up the work of the school.

The matter of uniformity of textbooks is discussed in Chapter VII of this study. However, it seems advisable here to give some space to the textbook situation existing during this period. The Constitution of 1870 provided that the state board of education "should provide for the uniformity of

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[39] O. L. Hardy, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 131. Richmond: Department of Education.

[40] G. H. Hulvey, The Public Schools of Rockingham County, Virginia. Harrisonburg, Virginia: Virginia News Record, April, 1915.

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textbooks, and the furnishing of schoolhouses with such apparatus and library as may be necessary, under such regulations as may be provided by law".[41] The school law of that year explained that this provision should be introduced gradually by the state board.[42]

In actual practice the administrative authorities of that time did not interpret the constitutional provision for uniformity of textbooks to mean that a single list of books should be used throughout the state, but took the position that the phrase "uniformity of textbooks" meant uniformity in a single school. Consequently, during the administration of Superintendent Ruffner and his immediate successor, the state board adopted the practice of recommending several books on each subject and permitting the local authorities to select from these for their individual schools. The practical effects of this action are indicated by the testimonials of various division superintendents scattered over different portions of the state.

Textbooks in Use.--According to the superintendent of schools in Appomattox County, the great variety of books in use caused some inconvenience. He claimed that the books used, for want of means to purchase and owing to lack of uniformity

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[41] Constitution of Virginia, 1870, Article VIII, Section 6.

[42] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1870, Chapter 259.

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at first, were of every grade, degree, and merit. However, as time advanced, the schools made progress in book selection and approved books were introduced. In this connection he added that, "free books for free schools are a coming necessity."[43]

Although the foregoing statement, suggesting free books for free schools as a coming necessity, was written fifty-five years ago, it is interesting to note that the State of Virginia does not yet provide free textbooks, although free textbooks represented one of the items in the "three-point" program recommended by the Virginia Education Association to the General Assembly of 1940.

The superintendent of the Craig County Schools was of the opinion that the book situation caused the teachers a great deal of trouble. He explained that there was no law requiring any particular book in school and that pupils brought whatever kind seemed to be most convenient; consequently, it was not uncommon for a teacher to have from four to six different authors represented in any one of the branches taught.[44]

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[43]J. B. Bristow, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 151. Richmond: Department of Education.

[44]P. O. Reynolds, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 69. Richmond: Department of Education.

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Superintendent Leacy, of Prince William County, believed that free books would tend to improve school attendance. He recommended that district funds no longer needed to build schoolhouses be applied to the purchase of books for those whose parents were unable or unwilling to do so. He added that pupils were more regular in attendance when provided with suitable books.[45]

In Bedford County, Superintendent Board inclined to the belief that much time was wasted because of the chaotic book situation. He deplored the fact that it was not uncommon to see a half-dozen works by different authors in the same school. In his opinion classification was impossible without uniformity of textbooks.[46]

It is interesting to observe that, under the revised Virginia curriculum, modern educators are recommending that classrooms be provided with books by several different authors rather than to require all children to study the same author. Such a procedure, it is believed, broadens the scope of the child's knowledge and facilitates the development of units of work. There is a decided contrast in the philosophy of the old

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[45] William B. Leacy, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 131. Richmond: Department of Education.

[46] J. G. Board, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 159. Richmond: Department of Education.

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time and that of the modern pedagogue, a contrast which should be significant in pointing out developments in educational philosophy since the beginning of the public, free school movement in Virginia.

In the opinion of Superintendent Graham, of Lee County, the failure of the state authorities to prescribe the books to be used was the cause of widely divergent teaching methods. He adds:

> Each teacher had his own way of conducting or managing his school, as there was no supervision required and no set standard of textbooks. It was not uncommon to have half a dozen authors in the school-room in the same subject.47

The superintendent of the Madison County schools reported a scarcity of textbooks. He found Pike's arithmetic to be a favorite with the teachers up to a few years before the Civil War. He added that Walker's dictionary, Murray's grammar, and Morse's geography were the books mostly taught.[48]

Teachers and Teacher Training

The teachers of this period were, of course, products of their day and age. According to competent authorities they were judged to be good, bad, and indifferent.

One factor that must be considered was the lack of facilities for the training of teachers. Another factor, no less important, was the matter of salaries. Obviously the small

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[47] James H. Graham, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 99. Richmond: Department of Education.

[48] H. W. Frey, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 218. Richmond: Department of Education.

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salaries and short terms did not appeal to the type of person who was ambitious to become financially independent. A correspondingly small amount of attention was given to curriculums or curriculum development. Although a few subjects were gradually being added to the curriculum, (See Appendix, p. 316) methods and subject matter remained, otherwise, practically unchanged.

In Bedford County, Superintendent J. G. Board found that the teachers were dissimilar in mental endowment and educational qualifications, and that there was no prescribed course of study that prospective teachers must master. In his opinion, many of the teachers were as ignorant of the principles of cancellation as were the colored laborers in the tobacco fields of the laws governing the motion of the heavenly bodies.[49] If the following statement is truly representative of public sentiment regarding the professional training of teachers in the early days of the free, public school movement, then education has made great strides since those days:

> A proposition to establish a normal school for the training of teachers would have met with as much ridicule as the attempt to navigate the ocean by steam did when Dr. Lardner proved by arithmetical calculation that a boat could never carry coal enough to last it across the Atlantic Ocean.[50]

Superintendent Frey, of Madison County, found that the

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[49] J. G. Board, op. cit., p. 169.

[50] J. G. Board, op. cit., p. 169.

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teachers who attended the Peabody Normals were far superior to those who had no professional training. He suggested that all prospective teachers be required to attend some school of modern training before being licensed to teach.[51] With reference to the attitude of the public toward school teachers, he reflected that during his boyhood the pedagogue was looked upon as a peculiar individual who could solve all the puzzles in Pike's arithmetic. However, later (about 1885) he found that the teacher was simply regarded as an educated person who knew more than his pupils, but was not infallible in book knowledge.[52]

From the foregoing discussion, it is evident that the attitude of the public was undergoing a change concerning what was expected of teachers. In the early days of the nineteenth century, teachers were expected to know nearly everything to be learned from books. They were highly esteemed for their ability to solve difficult arithmetic problems, even though the problems were of no practical value. However, much later in the century the public had already begun to look upon the teacher as a human being and not as a walking encyclopedia.

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[51] H. W. Frey, op. cit., p. 218.

[52] Ibid., p. 218.

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The realization that teaching was far from a profession and that the teachers sometimes found it necessary to misrepresent themselves to the public was brought out by the superintendent of the Northampton County schools, who explained that the schools were taught sometimes by qualified teachers, men who were teaching for convenience while waiting and watching until something better turned up. However, he could not remember that at any time the schools were taught by men who intended to make teaching a profession, "unless it was by one of those ignoramuses who could impose upon the patrons and make more money in this way than by some other occupation for which he was much better qualified."[53]

Superintendent F. D. Surface, of Montgomery County, explained that a large majority of the teachers of his county had little or no professional training beyond the common school; as a consequence, he found that the grade of instruction in his schools was far inferior to what it should be, even though the teachers of his county compared favorably with those of neighboring counties.[54]

Influence of School Officials on Teacher Training.--In

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[53] J. B. Dalby, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 244. Richmond: Department of Education.

[54] F. D. Surface, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 224. Richmond: Department of Education.

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regard to the professional training of teachers, State Superintendent Ruffner pointed out that, although there had been an improvement in the qualifications of teachers, yet the average teaching in the lower branches was miserably poor. He considered as a very discouraging factor the fact that many of the teachers and school officials seemed to be satisfied with this poor type of work. He found nine-tenths of the teachers far below what they should have been. In Richmond, Petersburg, Lynchburg, Norfolk, and Portsmouth some excellent teachers were to be found.[55] "Sometimes in the smaller places one meets a truly finished teacher who knows his subjects thoroughly and has good methods of instruction and discipline. But most frequently the sad spectacle of misrule and superficial teaching meets the eye."[56] In continuing with his statement Ruffner added, "What is worst of all the teacher's poor performance is often satisfactory to himself or herself as well as to the school board and the community."[57] He urged that the people invoke the constitutional provision providing for the establishmmant of normal schools, since this was necessary to provide properly trained teachers.

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[55] William H. Ruffner, Virginia School Report, 1874, p. 131. Richmond: Department of Education.

[56] Ibid., p. 131.

[57] Ibid., p. 131.

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Discipline.--That discipline during this period represented a major problem in the education of the pupils seems evident. No doubt the formal nature of the subject matter and the method of its presentation contributed to lack of interest, with the resulting lack of attention and disorder. Subsequent attempts to motivate school work through a curriculum that appeals to pupil interests are emphasized in later chapters of this study.

William H. Keister,[58] superintendent of the Harrisonburg City schools, provides an interesting description of his personal experience as a pupil in Highland County about 1875. Keister attended a one-room, ungraded school, known as the Liberty School. The building was made of logs, covered with pine shingles. Pupils sat on benches that had no backs. Other equipment consisted of a painted wooden blackboard. A long writing desk, made of pine boards, was fastened to the wall by hinges; the board was several feet wide and was adjustable, much too high for the smaller pupils. Keister recalls that the hinges were made and fastened to the wall by John Propst, a local blacksmith. Many of the pupils used slates and slate pencils which they made from slate rock in the community.

About 1876 Keister moved to the Bethlehem School which was taught by a Methodist preacher, named Porterfield. It appears

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[58]William H. Keister, Superintendent Harrisonburg City Schools, Harrisonburg, Virginia. (Personal interview, April 15, 1941).

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that Porterfield was very harsh in discipline. He would make the boys lie down on the slanting board intended for a writing desk. The boys frequently had difficulty in keeping from rolling off. Sometimes the teacher would tie the boys to the wall with a string or rope halter which had a "wooden bit" for the mouth. The teacher and other pupils would then laugh at the unfortunate culprit. If the boys whispered, the teacher would toss a switch at them and order one of the offenders to return it to the desk, where a short conversation would ensue between the teacher and the boy. If the boy's statements proved unsatisfactory to the teacher he would receive a whipping.

Keister[59] reports that his first teacher was his father, who had never attended school but had educated himself by reading history and available scientific books. In that day books on theory and methods of teaching were unknown.

Keister[60] has certain interesting reminiscences of his school days in the 1870's. In order to get to one of the schools that he attended, it was necessary to walk three miles through a mountain gorge. Later he walked five miles to attend the McDowell Academy, making a daily walk of ten miles. The academy offered instruction in Latin, English grammar, physical geography, algebra, and elocution. The latter subject was much

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[59] Wm. H. Keister, op. cit.

[60] Ibid.

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stressed. The boys chopped wood and pine knots, to be used as firewood. On one occasion, according to Keister, Lee Malcolm, one of the boys, cut a finger completely off. The boys applied some tobacco, which had been chewed, and then bandaged the finger, using some old cloth. In those days the pupils had an excellent opportunity to engage in nature study, first hand, as the woods abounded with deer, bears, foxes, and wild turkeys. The pupils could stand on the school grounds and see large droves of deer. Wild turkeys and foxes were frequently seen on the road to school.

Additional interesting information on the school of this period is furnished by Walter Wayland,[61] who attended a one-room, ungraded school in Shenandoah County during the 1880's. In those days the pupils were first taught the ABC's. McGuffey's Readers were used for the first six years. The pupils learned to spell by heart. They would line up on sides and "spell down". Captains were appointed by the teacher. It was the duty of each captain to select the members of his team or side. The teacher would give a "head mark" to the one who stood up the longest; McGuffey's Speller was widely used.

The children were classified, or graded, on the basis of the reader they used. Beginning with the sixth grade, a history

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[61] Walter Wayland, author and writer. (Personal interview, Harrisonburg, Virginia, May 14, 1941.)

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book took the place of the reader. The history class was considered the highest class in the school.

Wayland[62] recalls that Harvey's Elementary Practical Grammar, Appleton's Elementary and Advanced Geographies, and White's Elementary and Practical Arithmetics were used. Instruction in arithemtic was mainly individual. In writing, the Spencerian Graded Copy Books were used. The pupils were expected to reproduce the copies given in the book, as nearly as possible. Great emphasis was placed on reading, spelling, and arithmetic. The pupils furnished their own books, and all books in a given class had to be by the same author.

Wayland[63] recalls that discipline depended largely on the teacher. Those pupils who broke the rules were "thrashed" in the room in the presence of the other pupils. In this school pupils were generally respectful in their attitude toward their teacher, and punishment was infrequent.

About the year 1890 Wayland taught school in Shenandoah County, Virginia, in a log building. Equipment was very meager. The stove had three legs. For fuel the farmers would bring wood which the boys chopped up. There was a blackboard, a water bucket, chalk, one tin, and wooden desks, so poorly adjusted that they had to be elevated with bricks for the taller boys.

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[62] Walter Wayland, op. cit.

[63] Ibid.

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The superintendent of the Craig County schools has provided the following graphic account of the discipline of the period, as well as the attitude of the public:

> Schools at this time were taught under the lash. Knock down and drag out was the order of the day. One impression seemed to rest in the minds of teachers and patrons, and that was that the only way to get a child to learn was to beat it into him by hard licks. So thoroughly was the idea impressed upon the minds of the people that if some teachers who might perchance view this subject from a different standpoint failed to use the rod he was cried down as worthless because he let his scholars do as they pleased.[64]

State Superintendent Ruffner decried the use of too much corporal punishment, stating that it rarely needed to be employed if the teacher understood his business. He believed that school discipline was a science which a teacher should understand before taking charge of a school.[65]

From the superintendent of the Wise County schools came the information that "the children under threat of corporal punishment were forced to commit long lines of spelling, and to repeat each word as the first lesson in the morning for a heart lesson".[66] Furthermore, it was considered that the teacher who could whip the largest boy was the best teacher.[67]

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[64] P. O. Reynolds, op. cit., p. 69.

[65] William H. Ruffner, op. cit., p. 28.

[66] M. M. Wells, Virginia School Report, 1885, Part III, p. 286. Richmond: Department of Education.

[67] Ibid., p. 286.

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Methods of Instruction

As has already been noted, the educators of this period decried the fact that the state had spent little or no money for the purpose of establishing normal schools where teachers might be trained in methods of instruction. It is quite probable that the average teacher of the time was limited in his knowledge of methods and the psychology of learning. This condition was reflected in the curriculum which, as already indicated, showed little change, either in content or method of presentation of subject matter, until the educational awakening of the early years of the next century. However, there is evidence that the leading school men were not content simply to follow the dictates of tradition, but were alert to discover and apply methods and practices that promised better results than could be obtained through use of time-worn and traditional methods.

William H. Ruffner listed four methods of teaching reading during this period as follows: The ABC method, the phonic method, the word method, and Leigh's phonotypic method.

He clearly characterized the ABC method as a melancholy operation and as the worst of the methods used where the work was carried on simply by memorizing the letters from A to Z. He recommended the use of a series of cards placed on the wall, the first having but few letters on it; and the second, more

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words, etc. He explained that the blackboard was a most useful instrument in this exercise and said that, "where letters are painted along the top of the board or made by the teacher and imitated by the pupils on their slates with various comments and pleasantries, the learning of the alphabet may become an entertaining exercise."[68] He contended that the whole style of ABC teaching tended toward mechanical and "sing-song" types of reading, because it was unnatural and unphilosophical. He declared that the tendency was to abandon it.[69] It is evident that the ABC method of learning to read was in ill repute among educators as far back as 1873.

The Phonic Method.--The phonic system was already in operation at this early date. Ruffner argued that it was easy and rapid, since it presented but one difficulty at a time and thus avoided the confusion and discouragement that came from being compelled to learn a thing not comprehended. In support of the phonic system he pointed out: first, that it always taught the sounds of the letters first, sometimes in advance of the names; second, that since the parts of this system were harmonious with each other, the learner was put in possession of a principle by which he was able to help himself; third, that at every step he was led to an exercise of intelligence as well as memory; and fourth, the learner was drilled in accuracy of observation and utterance and that his organs became habituated to a clear

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[68] William H. Ruffner, Virginia School Report, 1874, p. 211. Richmond: Department of Education.

[69] Ibid., p. 211.

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correct enunciation of the sounds of the letters.[70]

The Word Method.--J. N. Binford, superintendent of the Richmond schools, explained that the word method was used in his system because is was most natural. He listed the various steps in this method as: (1) teach whole words as the signs of things, qualities, etc; (2) after a number of words have been taught, so that they can be easily known on sight, teach the analysis of the word by its elementary sounds; (3) when the word can be distinguished and its elementary sounds given, teach the names of the letters and their order in spelling; (4) require pupils to pronounce, sound and spell the word; and (5) group the words into phrases and sentences.[71]

In support of the word method, Ruffner argued that, "the true unit of language was not a letter, not an elemental sound, but a word. Whether language was a divine gift or a result of necessity it came in words".[72] Finally, "what the child learns at home and uses, is not letters, not elemental sounds, but words. Then why not follow nature and direct the child to words first?" [73]

The system used to develop word mastery in the child, prior to the use of the textbook, was as follows: (1) during the

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[70]Ibid., p. 211.

[71]J. H. Binford, Virginia School Report, 1873, p. 217. Richmond: Department of Education.

[72]William H. Ruffner, op. cit., p. 212.

[73]Ibid., p. 216.

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process of learning a new word the teacher would show the object or picture of the word to the class; (2) words were analyzed by sounds; (3) the names of the letters were taught; (4) after all the letters had been learned the letters of the alphabet were taught in order; (5) words were taught that denoted qualities and actions; and (6) in order to increase their vocabularies the children were encouraged to suggest words to be printed on the board.[74]

As soon as the children were ready to use books the exercises were divided into four distinct and separate steps: (1) The pupils were trained to know the words so that they could readily pronounce them at sight. (2) As the sentences were read, pupils were required to understand their meaning. (3) Pupils were expected to read in easy, conversational tones. (4) Pupils were asked to tell in their own words what had been read.[75]

Teachers were advised to find out the leading faults in their reading cleasses and never to attempt to correct more than one fault at a time. Although Binford[76] explained that he did

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[74] J. H. Binford, op. cit., p. 217.

[75] Ibid., p. 217.

[76] Ibid., p. 217.

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not rely so much upon any method as upon the earnest, persistent, and systematic efforts of the teachers, yet it is evident that in the early 1870's, in the first year of free public education in Virginia, the city of Richmond had a very definite and systematic method for teaching reading.

The Phonotypic Method.--The fourth method of teaching reading listed by Ruffner[77] was the phonotypic method. This method, which was first used in Saint Louis, was employed by the Petersburg schools. It apparently was a modification of the phonic system. Sidney B. Owens, superintendent of the Petersburg schools, explained the system as follows:

> Dr. Leigh in his phonotype presents us indeed with a character for each sound of the letters of the alphabet, (thus securing all that is claimed for the phonetic system) but also with great ingenuity, by peculiar type he has indicated the orthgraphy of the word, the appearance it would present in common type. Every word presented in his series of Readers presents its orthography to the eye and its orthoepy to the ear. He does not propose to divorce spelling from reading. While it is true that the reader needs orthoepy only, the writer needs orthography. By this method both are taught.[78]

The principal steps in teaching this method, as used by the Petersburg schools, were: (1) The teaching of spelling was not undertaken until the child had learned to read. The three languages, the spoken, the written, and the printed, were taught in succession. (2) The smallest pupils were taught

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[77]William H. Ruffner, op. cit., p. 212.

[78]Sidney B. Owens, Virginia School Report, 1874, p. 97. Richmond: Department of Education.

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drawing, vocal music, and arithmetic at the same time they were learning the elements of reading. (3) Considerable emphasis was placed on phonetics. Much time was given to securing proper articulation through intensive drills, involving blackboard exercises in which words were written on the board and the children were taught to sound the words by first taking one or two letters, then gradually the entire word.[79]

An analysis of the foregoing method of teaching reading indicates that much emphasis was placed on articulation; great stress was placed on phonetic elements; reading was taught in conjunction with other subjects; and a unique plan was used in dealing with silent letters.

School Organization

Graded Schools.-- The State School Superintendent, Ruffner,[80] in his eleventh annual report, discussed the matter of grading schools. His statements indicated that little thought had been given to the matter of grading schools prior to that time. He explained that the principle of gradation was equally applicable to a school of one or many teachers;

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[79] Sidney B. Owens, op. cit., p. 97.

[80] William H. Ruffner, Virginia School Report, 1881, p. 104. Richmond: Department of Education.

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its cardinal feature was a required course of study which the pupils were expected to follow in a regular and orderly manner. He pointed out that the plan was in accord with the existing philosophy of education and also that it met the requirements of flexibility needed for rural schools.

In the course of his argument for graded schools, Ruffner[81] gave what he called three distinct steps in the organization of a country school: (1) the course of study, (2) the grading of the pupils on or under the course, and (3) the daily program of exercises. "These three are separate in fact and in time and may properly here be considered separately. The first may be fixed and permanent and may be the same in many schools and in the same school year after year."[82] The statement to the effect that the course of study may be fixed and permanent is significant in that it shows a decided contrast between the philosophy of that time and that of the present day regarding the permanency of the course of study.

G. H. Hulvey, superintendent of the Rockingham County schools, found that as graded schools were organized the school officials were devoting more time and attention to the betterment of the conditions surrounging the one-room schools. His

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[81] William H. Ruffner, op. cit., p. 105.
[82] Ibid., p. 106.

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statement follows:

The pupils of these schools come from a quarter of a mile to two miles and some even more. The lack of seating capacity and the crowded curriculum are conditions which the school-boards are gradually overcoming year by year. The former is being met by enlarging the school but the latter cannot hope to be bettered so long as one teacher is required to teach all classes in all grades, from the first to the seventh. The proper attention cannot be given either to the class or to the individual when there are on an average twenty recitations to be heard in five hours and twenty minutes.[83]

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[83] G. H. Hulvey, The Public Schools of Rockingham County, Virginia. Harrisonburg, Virginia: Virginia News Record, April, 1915. (Documents, Virginia State Library).

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Summary

The constitutional convention of 1867-68 provided that the General Assembly of Virginia should, at its first session, establish by law a uniform system of public free schools. Accordingly, the free public school system was established in 1870.

At that time the finances of the state had been greatly depleted on account of the Civil War. Another serious problem had developed due to the fact that the emancipated Negro constitued a new class of people ready for the public schools.

William H. Ruffner, the first state superintendent of public instruction, drew up a plan for a uniform system of public free schools which, after being amended by both houses, was passed and became law July 11, 1870.

The private school idea was still strong in Virginia and many of her prominent citizens were slow to accept the theory of free, tax supported public schools. The new superintendent faced a task of selling the schools to the public. By persistent effort he achieved marked success in the undertaking and within a short time was recognized as the leading educator in the state.

Relative Importance of Subject Matter.-- At the beginning of the public school movement in Virginia, arithmetic held a very prominent place in the curriculum. Much of its popularity was due, no doubt, to the traditional regard which people have had for this subject.

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Later, English, physiology and hygiene, public speaking, and manual training were accorded places in the school program. Of course, writing and reading were already established in the curriculum by virtue of the fact that they belonged to the three R's. The individual who could write a good hand was highly regarded, even though his education was sadly lacking in other respects. Spelling was also a great favorite in the early days, and much entertainment was provided for young and old by the Friday afternoon spelling bees.

It appears evident that, up to the close of the nineteenth century, reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic were the core of the curriculum, with the other subjects bidding for a place but considered more or less as "frills". (See Appendix, page 377).

Housing and Equipment.--The school buildings of this early period were woefully inadequate. It is doubtful whether inadequate finances were the main reason for this condition. Indifference and ignorance regarding the needs of the schools existed on every hand. Public education was a new experiment and it required time to extablish a civic spirit which would demand better buildings and facilities.

Due to the improper buildings and facilities, sanitary conditions were unsatisfactory, and it is probable that a realization of this fact may have led the people to demand better physical equipment.

Textbooks.--Although the constitution of 1870 prescribed

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that the State Board of Education should provide for uniformity of textbooks, the administrative officials did not interpret this provision to mean that a single list of books should be used throughout the state, but held that "uniformity of textbooks" meant uniformity in a single school. Consequently, in the early days of the public school system the State Board adopted the practice of recommending several books on each subject and of permitting the local authorities to select from these for their individual schools. It seemed to be the consensus of opinion among administrators throughout the state that this situation caused considerable confusion. As matters stood, books by several different authors were to be found in the same subject. Teachers complained that under such a system the work was difficult to organize. However, at the present time modern educators are recommending the use of several different authors in each subject or field in order to facilitate the development of units of work and to broaden the child's knowledge.

Teachers and Teacher Training. --In the early days of the school movement in Virginia little provision was made for the professional training of teachers. The day of the normal school and teachers college had not yet arrived. As a consequence teachers had little opportunity to master the science of instruction. However, the Peabody Normal Schools began to appear in parts of the South and teachers learned to

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take advantage of the courses offered.

A factor that tended to retard the development of teacher training institutions was the attitude of the public. It was considered that a knowledge of subject matter was all that was needed, and attendance at professional schools was thought foolish and unnecessary.

During this early period, discipline was the chief task and teachers relied mainly on force to secure order. If the teacher could work the hardest problems in the arithmetic text and wield the rod over the backs of the larger boys, he was usually considered a good teacher.

Methods of Instruction.--As previously indicated, little thought had yet been given to the science of instruction. Teaching was largely formal and direct, and in almost all cases by isolated subjects. Integration and correlation of subject matter were problems for future generations. Nothing was said about adjusting the school to the child; it was the child's responsibility to adjust himself to the school.

Obviously the psychology underlying this type of instruction assumed that the learner's mind was divided into compartments and that whatever the child learned in each subject was tucked away in the proper compartment to be called out when needed.

In teaching reading, four systems had developed, known as the ABC method, the word method, the phonic method, and the phonotypic method.

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Graded Schools.--Before the close of the nineteenth century considerable progress had been made in the matter of grading the schools. A graded school was supposed to have: (a) a course of study; (b) pupils graded according to the course of study; and (c) a daily program of exercises to be followed.

It was considered that graded schools were a definite step forward, since they saved time and avoided confusion. Yet, it should be remembered that the work of the schools of this period was centered in subject matter. Generally speaking, the pupils were promoted arbitrarily on the basis of being able to meet the academic requirements of a given grade. The child was expected to adjust himself to a school where instruction was authoritarian, direct, and formal.

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CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPMENTS FROM 1900 to 1917

Introduction

The years at the beginning of the twentieth century saw a new period of educational development throughout Virginia. Thinking had been stimulated by the public press regarding actual conditions in the public school system. A new generation was coming on; people were forgetting the troubles of reconstruction; the industries of the state were being developed, and the time had come for educational expansion. Outstanding developments of these years were: (1) the educational provisions of the Constitution of 1902, (2) the May Campaign of 1905, and (3) the State Course of Study of 1907. It is the purpose of this chapter to deal separately with each of these developments.

Educational Provisions of the Constitution of 1902.--The reorganization of the school system, as provided for in the Acts of the General Assembly of 1903, was as follows:

(1) The State Board of Education was to be made up of the governor, the attorney general, the superintendent of public instruction, and three experienced educators, to be elected quadrennially by the senate from a list of eligibles, consisting of one from each of the faculties of the following institutions: The University of Virginia, Virginia Military Institute, The State Normal School at Farmville, The School for the

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Deaf and Blind, and William and Mary College.[1]

(2) The superintendent of public instruction was to be an experienced educator elected by the qualified voters of the state at the same time and for the same term as the governor.[2]

(3) The State Board of Education was authorized to: (a) divide the state into school divisions of one county or city each, and to appoint a superintendent for each division for a period of four years subject to the approval of the senate; (b) have full charge of the investment and distribution of school funds as prescribed by law; (c) make all necessary regulations for the conduct and management of the schools; and (d) appoint a librarian and a board of directors to manage the State Library.[3]

(4) Three trustees were to be selected for each magisterial district, said district to constitute a separate school district.[4]

(5) The State Board was to appropriate all school funds on the basis of school population, which included all persons between the ages of seven and twenty.[5]

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[1] Constitution of Virginia, 1902, Article IX, Section 130.

[2] Ibid., Section 131.

[3] Ibid., Section 133.

[4] Ibid., Section 135.

[5] Constitution of Virginia, op. cit., Section 135.

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(6) The annual tax for school funds was to be not less than one, nor more than five mills on the dollar.[6]

(7) Each county, city, town, and school district was permitted to levy a tax of not over five mills on the dollar, to be appropriated by the local community.[7]

(8) The General Assembly was given power to establish agricultural, normal, military, and technical schools as seemed best for public good.[8]

(9) The General Assembly might establish compulsory education for children between the ages of twelve and eighteen.[9]

(10) Poor children were to be supplied with textbooks.[10]

(11) White and colored children were to be educated in separate schools.[11]

(12) All schools receiving state aid must be under state control.[12]

This constitution proved a great stimulus to the state, as evidenced by constructive legislation leading to the estab-

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[6] Constitution of Virginia, op. cit., Section 136.

[7] Ibid., Section 137.

[8] Ibid., Section 138.

[9] Ibid., Section 140.

[10] Ibid., Section 141.

[11] Ibid., Section 141.

[12] Ibid., Section 141.

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lishment of high schools and by enrichment of their curriculums through the addition of agriculture and home economics courses. The rural schools were greatly improved. Better sanitary and hygienic conditions in the schools were to be provided.

In 1906 an act to establish and maintain a system of public high schools, and to appropriate money for their support, was passed. This was the first legislation creating a system of state supported public high schools. The first section reads:

> That it shall be lawful for any district board or district boards to establish and maintain a public high school at such place as may be both most convenient for the pupils who attend and most conducive to the purpose of such school. Provided, that the high school may be conducted either in a suitable building provided for that purpose or in the same building with one of the graded schools of the district, in which said high school is established, but no State funds shall be appropriated under this act for high school purposes until provision has been made to maintain, for a term of at least five months in each year, the primary and grammar schools of the district or districts establishing said high school in such county or counties.[13]

Although the present study is not primarily concerned with secondary education, the fact remains that legislation recognizing and establishing high schools on a state-wide basis was the erection of an educational milestone in Virginia. Furthermore, the general interest in secondary education was bound to have its effect on elementary education, as subsequent events soon proved.

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[13] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1906, Chapter 221, Section 1, pp. 350-1.

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Influence of Economic Conditions on Education

Following the Civil War, a struggle in which the South spent itself desperately, there was a very large degree of poverty in this section. The South, with its great territory and its valuable resources, with its more or less stable population, has had to gather strength by slow and painful processes. The growth in the value of wealth in this section during the period 1880 to 1920 has been steady. According to Gee and Corson,[14] Virginia increased the value of her wealth nearly seven times during this period.

As economic conditions tended to improve, the attention of the public again turned toward education. Proof of this trend is found in the May Campaign of 1905, to which we now turn.

Developments in 1905

The May Campaign of 1905.--At the meeting of the Co-operative Education Association in Norfolk in November, 1904, a resolution was adopted requesting Governor Montague and President Alderman of the University of Virginia to lead in the month of May following, a campaign planned to interest the people of the state in a more thorough system of public

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[14] Wilson Gee and John L. Corson, A Statistical Study of Virginia, p. 96. Charlottesville: The Institute for Research in the Social Sciences, University of Virginia Press, December, 1927.

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education. This became known as the May campaign for schools. The plan was to solicit speakers from among educators, ministers, state officials, and citizens--from every type of man or woman who would work for the cause. Eight points were definitely stated for discussion around which all addresses were made: (1) the consolidation of schools, (2) vocational education, (3) primary instruction, (4) improved schoolhouses, (5) the lengthening of the school term, (6) the increase of local taxation, (7) thorough supervision, and (8) the creation of a secondary school system. Outlines for addresses on these subjects were prepared and sent to the speakers, and articles were sent to the press. A hundred or more men and women traveled over the state, addressing large audiences, mostly in country districts. Numerous local speakers aided in these meetings. According to Heatwole:

> Never was a State so bombarded in the interest of any cause. Men spoke in the remotest communities. Preachers found a fresh application of the principles of religion. Editors gave their editorial and news columns for dissemination of knowledge and inspiration of the people. College presidents and professors in the State and private institutions found new fields for useful labor. Two hundred thousand pages of educational literature were issued, and fifty citizen school associations were organized. All this was done in thirty days.[15]

At the time of the May Campaign, the political forces of Virginia were engaged in a campaign for the election of a United States senator, a governor, and other officials.

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[15] C. J. Heatwole, A History of Education in Virginia, p. 315. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916.

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Joseph D. Eggleston, in a memorandum to Charles W. Dabney, wrote that "some of the politicians resented the idea of their campaign being interfered with and stated that the people of Virginia would take no interest in a campaign for public education when so much stirred up over the political campaign."[16] However, Eggleston continued, the politicians did not know the real heart hunger of the people for better schools. Shortly after the campaign started the people were flocking to the educational meetings and neglecting the political meetings.

When the interest of the people in public education became apparent the politicians adopted new tactics. "They now came on the run begging that they might be permitted to take part in the meetings. They did not realize what forces had been turned loose by the new constitution and how, with such aid, the State Board of Education had power to set going great new agencies for education."[17]

The First State Course of Study

Prior to 1907 Virginia had no uniform state wide course of study. The growing interest of the people in public education apparently called attention to the need for a standardized

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[16] Charles W. Dabney, Universal Education in the South, Volume 2, p. 350. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1936.

[17] Ibid., p. 325.

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course of study. Although many of the larger cities and more progressive counties had courses of study which were probably adequate to meet their needs, it was felt by the leading educators of the state that the time had arrived for a uniform state wide program of studies. Joseph D. Eggleston, state superintendent of public instruction, stated the need as follows:

> If high schools are to be supplied with pupils well prepared and properly graded for their studies, it becomes necessary to have a standard of work for the primary and grammar grades; in other words to have a uniform course of study for these grades. The pathway of the pupil is then marked out and he can by regular attendance and diligent attention to his studies go by regular gradation from the primary to the high school. Even if the pupil finds it impossible to enter the high school he makes a distinct gain if the teacher follows the graded course of study.[18]

An examination of the foregoing statement indicates that the high school had considerable influence in shaping the curriculum of the elementary school.

Continuing with his argument for a uniform course of study, Eggleston pointed out that, although an unusually well prepared teacher could make a course of study that would be helpful to the pupils, it should be remembered that in many schools the teachers did not have the necessary equipment and that, even if they had, the constant changing of teachers would necessitate frequent new courses of grading and study.[19]

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[18] Joseph D. Eggleston, "A Discussion of the Needs of a Course of Study for Primary and Grammar Grades," Course of Study for the Primary and Grammar Schools of the Public Schools of Virginia, First Edition, p. 3. Richmond: Department of Education, October, 1907.

[19] Ibid., p. 12.

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An indication that prior to 1907 the making of courses of study was left to the local officials was found in the fact that Eggleston commended those superintendents who for many years had provided courses of study for use in their schools.[20] In a few instances the superintendents failed to get the teachers to adopt these courses; "this may have been the fault of the courses but the chances are that it was the fault of the teachers who failed to give them an honest trial."[21]

A sidelight on the attitude and underlying philosophy of some teachers of this period is contained in a statement by Eggleston in which he told of one teacher who in a public meeting ridiculed the idea of having a graded course of study for country schools and especially for one-room schools. However, another teacher in the meeting disagreed and explained in an interesting manner how it was possible to correlate subjects.[22]

Available evidence indicates that the state course of study was longer and more detailed than those already in use in certain local districts. (See Appendix, p. 349).

Harris Hart,[23] a member of the state board of examiners,

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[20] Joseph D. Eggleston, op. cit., p. 12.

[21] Ibid., p. 13.

[22] Ibid., p. 13.

[23] Harris Hart, "Comment on Proposed State Course of Study," Course of Study for the Primary and Grammar Schools of the Public Schools of Virginia, First Edition, p. 5. Richmond: Department of Education, October, 1907.

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outlined the advantages of a uniform, state-wide course of study as follows: (1) a graded course of study would provide for more uniformity between primary and grammar courses throughout the state; (2) it would provide a better administrative organization of the school; (3) it would mean the setting up of more clearly defined objectives by both pupils and teachers, and also serve as a motivation to the pupils; (4) it would provide a better means for evaluating progress; and (5) it would provide for the well-rounded development of the pupil.[24]

Hart considered the last of the foregoing arguments for a graded course of study as the most important. He explained that the supreme aim was the formation of character rather than the fulfillment of the individual desires of each pupil.[25] He added further that the idea of a graded course of study eliminated the pupil's opportunity of electing certain subjects, since it was assumed that each pupil would pursue all the branches of a given grade and, as far as possible, maintain an equal progress in all.[26] Finally, he attacked the existing methods of instruction and made a suggestion as to the methods

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[24] Harris Hart, "Comment on Proposed State Course of Study," Course of Study for the Primary and Grammar Schools of the Public Schools of Virginia, First Edition, p. 5. Richmond: Department of Education, October, 1907.

[25] Ibid., p. 5.

[26] Ibid., p. 5.

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that should be employed. His statement follows:

> It is commonly admitted that the average pupil does not retain nine-tenths of what he studies in school. . . In common parlance time is not allowed for the lesson to soak in. This is a serious impediment to progress, and the remedy must be sought in more time for the course and in a rather different method of recitation. . . In too many cases we have blindly followed the textbook method: have assigned lessons, called up classes to recite,. . . have asked patent questions; heard the children recite by rote and dismissed them without much effort to arouse their interest in the next thing to come.[27]

An examination of the foregoing statement indicates Hart's belief that traditional education did not give sufficient attention to method and psychology of instruction. Analysis of the State Course of Study of 1907 reveals that a brief space in the introduction was given to comment concerning methods, organization, psychology of instruction, and related matters. However, as compared with present day courses of study, this space was very limited.

In his recommendations, Hart suggested that teachers employ the development lesson, "in which the teacher carefully unfolds a given lesson by a series of well-selected questions based on the prior knowledge and experience of the pupil".[28] Such a plan, he believed, fixed in mind what had already been studied and at the same time prepared for the next lesson.[29] This plan presupposed that the teacher had a broad acquaintance with the course. The ideas here

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[27] Harris Hart, op. cit., p. 6.

[28] Ibid., p. 6.

[29] Ibid., p. 6.

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set forth indicate a philosophy of education in some respects similar to the Dewey philosophy, which suggest that the child's education should proceed on an apperceptive basis, from the known to the unknown.

The Course of Study in the Rural Schools.--As late as 1900 the rural schools of Virginia were in a very backward condition. According to Joseph W. Southall, state superintendent of public instruction, the main reason for this condition was the tendency to have too many school districts. He explained that in some of the counties of the state the public schools were not meeting the reasonable expectations of the people, mainly because of the wild and insane tendency to multiply small district schools, "to put a school house on every hilltop and in every valley".[30] He stated further that the tendency to multiply rural schools had gone on until nearly one-half of the schools for white and nearly one-fourth of those for colored children were illegal by reason of the fact that they failed to make the required average of twenty pupils for each school during the term.

Southall also cited the lack of supervision in the rural schools as one of the causes for their weakness. He stated that, while many cities had partly solved the problem of supervision, in most rural areas the problem was almost wholly

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[30] Joseph W. Southall, Virginia School Report, 1900-01, p. 26. Richmond: Department of Education.

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unsolved.[31]

A. D. Mayo characterized the rural schools as being unsatisfactory to everyone except the teachers, their kinfolk, and acquaintances. As a result, he said, when a girl reaches the verge of young ladyhood she is filled with a desire for a better education and goes to one of the private or secondary schools.[32] However, in his opinion, the majority of these pupils were not ready to enter upon a genuine course of secondary education. "To go back to the proper work of childhood and learn honestly and well the few things indispensable to scholarship, culture, and true refinement seems a moral impossibility."[33]

It seems evident that the rural schools of this period were entirely unsatisfactory. Several reasons for this condition were: (1) too many school districts, (2) little or no supervision, and (3) indifference of the public.

Extra-Curriculum Activities in the Rural Schools.--Available evidence indicates that the opportunities of the rural children to engage in extra-curriculum activities were very limited. To a great extent, the athletic activities of the country schools were unorganized and spontaneous. Early in the twentieth century, school fairs flourished in certain parts of the state. Apparently these fairs reached such

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[31] Joseph W. Southall, Virginia School Report, 1900-01, p. 41. Richmond: Department of Education.

[32] A. D. Mayo, "Education in Southwest Virginia," Report of the United States Commissioner of Education, 1890-91, Vol. 2, p. 893. Washington, D. C. : Government Printing Office.

[33] Ibid., p. 893.

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proportion as to have considerable influence on the school program.

Joseph D. Eggleston, state superintendent of public instruction, in telling about these school fairs, explained that they were started by the Virginia Federation of Women's Clubs during the winter of 1907-08.[34] At the first county school fair held in Rustburg, Campbell County, twenty-four prizes were offered, aggregating seventy dollars. However, by 1911 the number of prizes had grown to 301 and their value had increased to $827.00. In competition for these prizes 1529 pieces of work were exhibited, divided among the following departments: literary, agricultural, floral, domestic science, domestic art, manual training, and poultry. In addition, there were entries for the spelling matches and athletic events.[35]

Realizing the possibilities of the school fair, the State Department of Education went to work to organize the project in other counties of the state. Commenting on the results, Eggleston remarked:

> The result was that many very successful school fairs were held in the fall of 1910. By 1911 the number had grown to twenty odd including: Accomac, Albemarle, Amelia, Amherst, Augusta, Bedford, Campbell, Charles City, Clarke, Cumberland, Dinwiddie, Goochland, Halifax, Loudon, Mathews, Mecklenburg, Middlesex, Nansemond, New Kent, Orange, Prince George, Rockingham, and Sussex. Some of these fairs were held in connection

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[34] Joseph D. Eggleston, County School Fairs in Virginia, p. 1. Richmond: Department of Education Bulletin, March, 1912.

[35] Ibid., p. 1.

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with the regular county fairs, others independently. The Department is planning and hoping that at least fifty of the hundred counties will hold these fairs in 1912.[36]

It is apparent that about 1910 the county school fair held an important place in the lives of the rural school children of Virginia and was considered by the State Department of Education as a valuable experience for these children. After a few years, interest waned and the fairs died out. No doubt the loss of interest was brought about by changes in society affecting the lives of the people.

Analysis of the 1907 Course of Study

Virginia's first state-wide course of study was introduced in October, 1907. As compared with modern courses of study it was brief, containing thirty-five pages. Sixteen of the thirty-five pages were taken up by the State Department of Education to explain the reason for introducing the course of study, in suggesting possible schedules, and in giving instruction as to underlying methods and practices to be used in teaching. A paragraph in the introduction was given to an explanation of the place of vocal music in the schools.

From the standpoint of organization, the course provided for seven years of instruction in the elementary grades. The first four years were designated as follows: first primary grade, second primary grade, third primary grade, fourth primary grade. The next three years were designated as the first

[36] Joseph D. Eggleston, County School Fairs in Virginia, p. 1. Richmond: Department of Education Bulletin, March, 1912.

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grammar grade, second grammar grade, and third grammar grade.

A glance at the appendix of the present report, page 349, where the course of study is given in full, reveals that the work of the first year consisted of reading, spelling, writing, language, number work, nature study, drawing, and morals and manners. The second year's work consisted of the same subjects. Geography was added to the work of the third year. History was added to the work required for the fourth year. Physiology, the one additional subject, was added in the sixth year. The procedure followed in analyzing this and subsequent courses of study is based on a comprehensive system of analysis used in a study published by the United States Office of Education.[37] The analysis includes such items as: time allotments, controls of behavior, content, types of reading material, instructional aids, use of environmental material, suggested methods and procedures, general organization, and certain other related matters.

Time Allotments.--Instructional aids included in the course of study were limited. Little was said about time allotments, except to assume that the work outlined for each year would be finished at the end of that year. A proposed schedule for one-teacher rural schools was included in the course of study. This schedule is given in the appendix of

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[37] Bernice Elizabeth Leary, A Survey of Courses of Study and Other Curriculum Materials Published since 1934. United States Office of Education Bulletin, No. 31, 1937. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937. Pp. v+185.

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this thesis, page 368 .

It will be noted that certain classes in the schedule are printed in large type and others in small type. The large type indicates recitation periods, and the small type refers to study periods.

An interpretation of the schedule by the State Department of Education revealed that it was devised for the one-teacher school.[38] It was further explained that the subjects were divided into three groups, the first two of which corresponded to the first two years of the course of study, and the last group to the third and fourth years of the course. "It is evident that to arrange separate classes in each grade for every subject would multiply the number of classes beyond the teacher's ability to handle them. Hence it is advisable for the work to be divided into a maximum of three groups and the classes of the last two years to be combined."[39] It is also provided that, if the school had two or more teachers, group 1 should embrace the first and second year, group 2 the third and fourth year, and group 3 the fifth , sixth, and seventh years. If three teachers were employed, one group should be assigned to each teacher, but if only two teachers were used the work of group 2 should be equally divided.[40]

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[38] Joseph D. Eggleston, op. cit., p. 8.

[39] Ibid., p. 8.

[40] Ibid., p. 8.

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This schedule, which represented the first systematic attempt by the state to organize the work of the rural schools by grades, provided a comprehensive plan to be used by teachers. It was an attempt by the State Department of Education to assist teachers in arranging time allotments to be devoted to various subjects.

Controls of Behavior.--References to behavior control, especially from the psychological standpoint, were very limited. The matter of behavior was attacked formally and directly. Behavior was looked upon as the way one conducted himself in school and was not viewed scientifically as a matter of stimulus and response. For each grade a paragraph was devoted to "morals and manners". The importance of such virtues as politeness, gentleness, kindness, courage, self-respect, temperance, industry, self-control, and patriotism was emphasized.

The foregoing virtues were to be brought about mainly by teaching, instructing, and telling. For instance, teachers were admonished to "teach moderation in appetite for things not harmful; abstinence in things that are harmful; show serious effects of cigarette smoking, of alcoholic liquors. Explain how industrious habits should be formed in early years; the bright prospects before an industrious people; the happy influence of regular occupation, and the evils of laziness

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and vagrancy."[41]

It should be noted that the idea of concomitant learnings had not yet appeared in the scheme of instruction. Citizenship and character were emphasized but were to be achieved by direct, formal methods. Little or nothing was said about motivation. The idea of adjusting the school to the child was still a matter for the future.

Content.--The content was mainly of a formal nature. Work to be covered by the teachers was designated by topic, book, or sections in the book. For example, the language work of the third year included oral and written reproduction of stories already learned. The stories embraced early Greek myths, the story of Tell, of Siegfried, Alfred, Ulysses, Robin Hood, Bible stories, and stories of personal experiences. Attention was given to the noun, verb, pronoun, descriptive adjective, and adverb.[42] (See Appendix p.355 .)

An analysis of the foregoing content for language in the third grade reveals its technical nature when compared with present day language work in this grade.

Another example is the history content of the fifth school

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[41] State Course of Study for Primary and Grammar Grades of Virginia, p. 5. State Department of Education Bulletin, October, 1907, First Edition. Richmond: Department of Education, 1907.

[42] State Course of Study for Primary and Grammar Grades of Virginia, op. cit., p. 23.

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year, where the work consisted of studying the discovery and colonization of the United States; learning about conditions in Europe in the fifteenth century; early explorers and their settlements; colonization of Virginia and the other Southern colonies; colonization of New England and the Middle Atlantic Colonies; colonial life, manners, and customs.[43] (See Appendix, p. 361.)

It is evident that the content included in this course of study was of a logical nature rather than integrated, co-ordinated, or adapted to the level of the pupil.

Types of Reading Material.--Apparently it was necessary for teachers to lean heavily on the basal textbooks, owing to the scarcity of supplementary and library material. However, they were instructed to make use of available material such as "Bible stories, fairy tales, and fables, as well as nursery rhymes for the first grades, such as the Lion and the Mouse, The Three Bears, etc".[44] The State Superintendent explained that supplementary book lists had not yet been prepared:

> A number of teachers have asked for a list "of books suitable for supplementary reading and stories for reproduction, with names of publishers and prices"; have asked that we make it very definite what fairy tales, deeds of heroism, etc., to use, where they may be gotten and how to teach them. This is a valuable suggestion, yet it is a tremendous task. We hope to have something definite along this line at an early date, from the hands of experts who have worked out the

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[43] State Course of Study for Primary and Grammar Grades of Virginia, op. cit., p. 32.

[44] Ibid., p. 15.

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problem in the schoolroom.[45]

Instructional Aids.--Few instructional aids were listed. The day of the radio, workbook, and phonograph record had not yet arrived. Teachers were advised to use available aids such as maps, globes, charts, copy-books, flash cards, and library books.

Use of Environmental Resources.--In the work in nature study the teachers were instructed to use the plants, trees, animals, minerals, and all objects found in their environment that might contribute to the work at hand. In the first-grade nature study, teachers were advised to see that, if possible, children had the opportunity of studying actual living specimens in their natural environment.[46] (See Appendix, p.350).

In geography, also, teachers were urged to make use of all environmental opportunities. (See Appendix, pages 355-59).

Little attempt was made to use environmental resources in other subjects, except in the study of history to suggest that special attention be paid to the government of the local districts.[47]

Suggested Methods and Procedures.--The 1907 Course of Study did not deal with units of work; no type lessons were offered. The field of corrective and remedial treatment was as yet in its infancy and no suggestions were made for remedial

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45 State Course of Study for Primary and Grammar Grades of Virginia, op. cit., p. 15.

46 Ibid., p. 18.

47 Ibid., p. 23.

48 Ibid., p. 29.

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treatment of pupil difficulties. Little provision was made for adapting the work to the needs of the pupils, either as individuals or groups.

No mention was made of tests of any kind. The day of objective testing had not yet arrived.

The 1909 Revision

Nature of Changes.--In 1909 a slightly modified course of study was offered to the schools of the state. Fundamentally, this course of study was similar to the original course printed in 1907. In organization and underlying psychology there were no changes. The introduction was shortened from the fourteen pages of the former course to two pages for the latter. Apparently it was believed that the school people were now familiar with the purposes of a state course of study, hence this explanation was eliminated. At the end of each grade, blank lines were left for the division superintendent to enter the names of the textbooks and to give the page limits if he so desired.

The introduction included the following divisions: (1) one paragraph devoted to scheduling classes; (2) two paragraphs of explanation concerning combining classes; (3) two paragraphs given over to the plan of alternation of subjects; and (4) one paragraph of explanation of the model schedules in the back of the book.

Analysis.--Outstanding features of the 1909 course of

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study are: (1) As to controls of behavior, several paragraphs at the end of the section devoted to each grade were devoted to morals and manners, much as in the 1907 course. In other respects there were no changes. (2) The content and organization were strictly formal; there were no other important changes worthy of note, with the exception of time allotments, as indicated in the schedule found on page 369 of the Appendix of the present report. This schedule was intended for a school of seven grades. Subjects written in capital letters indicated the classes that were to recite at a given time. The remainder of the classes had a study period while a recitation was in progress. Obviously, much of the time of the individual pupil had to be spent in self-directed, unsupervised study. This was especially true where only one teacher was employed. Where more than one teacher was employed the amount of individual attention per pupil was increased in proportion to the number of teachers.

An examination of the schedule reveals that the school day included the hours from 9:00 to 4:00, with twenty minutes allowed for recess and fifty minutes for the noon lunch period. This left five hours and fifty minutes for the actual work of the day. Where only one teacher was employed this time had to be divided into thirty-three separate class periods. Under such conditions, even the most competent teacher could do little more than simply hear recitations.

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The 1915-16 Revision

Character of Changes.--The 1915-16 revision of the State Course of Study provided the schools with a more complete and detailed course of study. The new edition contained sixty-nine pages. The underlying philosophy and psychology were quite similar to those found in the earlier courses of study. However, the work was more detailed. More information was provided on methods of instruction. Lists of basal and supplementary textbooks, together with pages to be covered, were included. The main course, as presented, covered seven years of nine months each, with a supplemental course of eight grades for seven-month schools.

The State Department of Education explained that the aim was to furnish brief and comprehensive outlines of every subject which found a place in the modern school curriculum. An attempt was made to avoid such an elaborate treatment of methods and subject matter as might impose peculiar and untried methods upon the profession, or cause the outlines to degenerate into mere tables of contents. It was hoped that the course of study would be especially helpful to one-teacher schools. The program was considered only tentative and suggestive. Fifty or more superintendents and teachers of the state collaborated in its preparation.[49]

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[49] Course of Study for the Elementary Schools of Virginia, p. 2. Richmond: Department of Education, October, 1915.

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Analysis of 1915-16 Course of Study

Motivation.--Suggestions relative to motivation were offered. For example, in fifth-grade spelling teachers were advised to have the child interested in his spelling ability, and in that of his class. Perfect papers were to be exhibited and sent to higher grades, principals, superintendents, and parents for their inspection and approval. Records were to be kept of the number of perfect papers for a month or session. Teachers were advised to encourage spelling matches, and each child was to keep a list of the words he misspelled most frequently and to see how many he could transfer to the right side of the ledger.[50]

Controls of Behavior.--The course of study made no mention of appreciations, and very limited reference to matters of social well-being and enriched living. Skills were to be developed mainly by drill, which was emphasized especially in the field of primary reading.

In fifth grade arithmetic, the statement was made that problems connected with the experience of the pupils should be introduced. In the teaching of primary language the statement that "all the language material of the two lower grades must be an expression of the experience of the child"[51] is

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[50] Course of Study for the Elementary Schools of Virginia, op. cit., p. 48.

[51] Ibid., p. 44.

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in line with the best modern psychology.

In nature study, instructions were given to study the home life of the child.[52]

Organization.--The course provided mainly for work to be covered grade by grade, beginning with the first and continuing in regular order through the seventh. A special eighth year course was added for schools having the short seven-month term.

In the introductory paragraphs of each grade was found a list of all books recommended for the grade. This list included basal and supplementary textbooks, as well as reading material.

Next in order was found the "grade program in brief."[53] For example, the third grade program included the following:[54]

Reading: Third Reader or readers; supplementary reading was recommended.

Spelling: words from all lessons and from the New World Speller.

Language: study of pictures and poems, correct use of words, stories from real life, vivid portrayals and dramatizations.

Numbers: numeration and notation to 10,000 or 100,000, addition, subtraction, multiplication, and short division.

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[52] Course of Study for the Elementary Schools of Virginia op. cit., p. 44.

[53] Ibid., p. 27.

[54] Ibid., p. 27.

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Writing: muscular movement; careful supervision was required.

General Exercises: nature study, hygiene, geography, morals and manners.

Drawing: as in first and second grades, designs, brush drawings, color.

Constructive Work: modeling, basketry, raffia work.

Music: rote singing, drills, pitch, rhythm, theory, ear training.

Each subject taught in a given grade was taken up separately.

Time Allotments.--A time schedule or daily program that allotted an exact number of minutes was included. This time schedule was almost identical with the schedule for 1909 course of study, which is discussed elsewhere in this chapter.

Types of Reading Material Listed.--For work in reading, textbooks were listed as basal, first supplementary, optional ~~first~~ supplementary, and general supplementary.

In the advanced grades supplementary texts were listed for history, geography, and arithmetic. In the lower and intermediate grades supplementary texts were not listed, except in reading.

Professional books for teachers were limited, except for a few suggested books on methods.

A limited number of library references were given for children; these references consisted mainly of books and pamphlets. Magazines and newspapers were not listed for reference purposes.

A few teachers' professional books were included.

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Instructional Aids.--Maps, globes, charts, copybooks, library books, and drill books were the principal instructional aids suggested for use. It is apparent that the use of instructional aids for class-room teaching was still limited.

Community Resources.--In the study of hygiene, reference was made to local health conditions such as water supply, drainage, and proper kinds of foods.

In the study of geography, attention was called to local conditions such as location of the school, road conditions, climate, and water forms such as springs, rivers, and lakes found locally; soil conditions, vegetables, fruits, and other agricultural and industrial products were also mentioned.

In the study of history frequent reference was made to points of historic interest within the state, including such places as Yorktown, Jamestown, and Williamsburg. Frequent mention was made of native sons who became prominent in the affairs of the nation.

In the study of agriculture, teachers were urged to make use of community facilities by employing the farms and gardens of the pupils as laboratories. The organization of clubs, such as poultry, corn, canning, and the like was urged.

The work in arithmetic was rather abstract and formal. Little reference was made to the pupil's past experience or surroundings.

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The language study of the first grade was confined mainly to home life. Children were to visit lumber mills, stone quarries, brick yards, and available home industries.

Methods and Procedures.--In certain of the subjects objectives were clearly indicated. In the case of reading, aims were listed separately at the beginning of each grade. In the study of reading, teachers were required to use the method prescribed by the author of the adopted basal textbook. In primary reading brief illustrative lessons were included. Suggestions were made for conducting exercises in drill. The use of phonics was urged in the primary grades. Instructions were given for the use of charts, and the learning of vowel combinations in primary reading. The process of word building was also taken up.

The number work of the first grade was to be pursued as follows: (1) counting and reading numbers to 100, writing numbers to 20, (2) time measure, (3) complementary and measure contents of numbers, (4) comparative magnitude, and (5) separation and combination of numbers to 10.

Some attempt was made to correlate certain related subjects. In the study of second-grade geography was found the assertion that "the history, geography, and nature study of this grade are so closely related that it is almost impossible

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to separate them."[55] The observation was also made that in reading certain stories can be correlated with the study of geography.

In teaching writing, teachers were advised that they should emphasize the manner of writing rather than the product. They were to insist on good position, proper pen holding, correct movement, and sufficient speed, regardless of the visible result on paper. In regard to movement, it was understood that:

> The muscular movement method should be used, and children should never be permitted to drift into the finger movement. All writing outside of the writing period should be supervised to prevent the formation of bad habits.[56]

Music was included in this course of study as a separate subject beginning with the second grade. In the second grade these suggestions were made:[57] (1) that each teacher study music herself, (2) that she use a pitch pipe and carefully avoid guessing at pitch, (3) that good tone quality be secured by insisting on it in speech, as well as in song, (4) that all the children sing every day, and (5) that at least twenty new songs be learned a year.

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[55] Course of Study for the Elementary Schools of Virginia, op. cit., p. 20.

[56] Ibid., p. 22.

[57] Ibid., p. 23

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In fourth grade music the program called for instruction in: (1) rote songs, (2) pitch, (3) rhythm, (4) theory, and (5) ear training.

No provision was made for corrective and remedial treatment through the diagnosis of pupil difficulties.

The concept of guidance in any form did not seem to exist in this program.

Adaptability of Program.--The course of study made limited provision for adapting to individual and community needs. As has been stated, an attempt was made to limit instruction in arithmetic to the past experience and future needs of the pupils.

In the study of agriculture an effort was made to use the community farms and gardens as workshops, in order that the soil and methods of cultivation might be studied to the end that suggestions for improved methods could be made by the school.

Testing.--Testing in its modern form had not yet taken hold in the school program of the state. Certain formal, subjective, teacher-made tests were in use. In fifth grade arithmetic, teachers were urged to "give frequent speed tests, encourage competition, and require that all results be checked".[58]

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[58] Course of Study for the Elementary Schools of Virginia, op. cit., p. 43.

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The idea of testing for diagnostic purposes or to gain information concerning the extent of the child's knowledge, for use by the teacher for purposes of classification and introduction of subject matter, was not recommended.

The manner and purpose of testing were left to the judgment of the teachers.

Summary

This chapter has dealt with the following developments: (1) educational provisions of the constitution of 1902, (2) the May Campaign of 1905, and (3) the first State-wide Course of Study of 1907, and the revisions of 1909 and 1915-16.

The 1902 constitution provided for the reorganization of the State Department of Education and proved a great stimulus to the educational development of the state through constructive legislation leading to the establishment of high schools and the enrichment of their curriculums. Provisions were made for the establishment of better sanitary and hygienic conditions in the schools.

The May Campaign of 1905 awakened the interest of the people in their schools. It was instrumental in securing the creation of a state supported secondary school system. Other important objectives were: (1) the consolidation of schools, (2) vocational education, (3) primary instruction, (4) improved schoolhouses, (5) the lengthening of the school term,

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(6) the increase of local taxation, and (7) thorough supervision.

Some of the foregoing objectives were realized within a comparatively brief period. Others, by their very nature, required a considerable period of time and are still in process of development. It is generally conceded that the May Campaign of 1905 is one of the milestones in the educational development of the state.

The first state-wide course of study was introduced by the State Department in 1907. It was an attempt to improve instruction throughout the state by uniform adoption of progressive methods. It was also calculated to make content and method more uniform in the various sections of the state. It proved of great assistance to teachers and pupils who were compelled to move to new communities, since they were no longer obliged to familiarize themselves with a completely new scheme of education.

The 1907 Course of Study was brief, formal, and based on the idea of separate subjects with little or no provision for integration or correlation. However, it was a step forward, since it represented recognition by the State Department of its responsibility for leadership in this field.

The 1909 revision did not provide for any fundamental changes in the program of studies.

The 1915-16 revision was an attempt to bring the course

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up to date. The course of study was lengthened to include 69 pages. Although fundamentally similar to the previous courses, the work was more detailed, teachers were given more definite information, and lists of basal and supplementary textbooks were included.

Slight revisions in the state course of study were made in 1917, and again in 1919. However, the changes were of a minor nature and in no way basic or of such a nature as to alter the scheme of instruction. The revision of 1923 is deemed by the writer of sufficient importance to merit detailed attention, and is dealt with in the next chapter.

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CHAPTER V

DEVELOPMENTS FROM THE FIRST WORLD WAR TO THE REVISED CURRICULUM of 1934

Introduction

This chapter deals with important developments from the close of the first World War to 1934. Outstanding developments of this period affecting the schools were: (1) The Inglis Survey,[1] (2) the curriculum revision of 1923,[2] and (3) the O'Shea Survey.[3]

An act that showed a progressive trend in education was passed on March 16, 1918. It provided for a commission consisting of two members of the house of delegates to be named by the speaker, and two members of the senate to be named by the president of that body. In addition to these, the governor was to appoint the superintendent of public instruction and three other persons one of whom was to be a woman; it was required that all three be engaged in work connected with the public free schools.[4]

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[1] Report of the Survey Staff to the Education Commission of Virginia. Richmond: Everett Waddey Company, 1919. Pp. 400.

[2] State Course of Study for Rural and Elementary Schools in Virginia. State Department of Education Bulletin, Volume 5, No. 4. Richmond: Davis Bottom, Superintendent of Public Printing, 1923. Pp.291.

[3] Report to the Education Commission of Virginia of a Survey of the Public Educational System of the State. Richmond: Davis Bottom, Superintendent of Public Printing, 1928. Pp.310.

[4] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1918, Chapter, 253, Section 7, pp. 444-5.

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The commission was to make a thorough study of existing laws, conditions, and needs of the schools, and a comparison of such progressive systems of education as would enable it to make practical and suitable recommendations to the next general assembly. The commission was to submit to the assembly suggested revision of laws and amendments to article IX of the constitution.[5]

The School Survey of 1919

At a meeting on December 17, 1918, the commission decided to engage the services of Alexander Inglis, of Harvard University as director of the survey, it being decided that the best results could be obtained by having an eminent specialist in education from outside the state to direct a field staff made up of Virginians acquainted with local sentiment and local conditions.

Inglis secured the co-operation of other specialists to act in an advisory capacity and to test certain conclusions by the experiences of other states. The field staff was composed for the most part, of Virginia educators of wide experience and training. To this staff the State Board of Education assigned two supervisors for full time, and one for half-time work.

The committee examined the important phases of public

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[5] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1918, Chapter 263, Section 2, p. 445.

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school work in the state including: (1) the course of study, (2) textbooks, (3) time apportionments, (4) instructional supplies, (5) equipment, (6) teacher training, (7) health and hygiene in the schools, and (8) industrial education.

The findings of the survey committee with reference to each of the foregoing phases of school work will be briefly presented here. In view of the extensive and thorough nature of the survey, the writer believes that these findings have important implications for the present study.

Findings of the Survey Committee

The Course of Study.--The survey committee found that the Revised Code of Virginia required that certain subjects be taught in the state: orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, physiology and hygiene, civil government, drawing, history of the United States and history of Virginia, "the prevention of accidents", and moral education. In addition, it was noted that the State Course of Study for Elementary Schools added certain other subjects, including music, manual training, domestic science, and gardening.[6]

The committee reported that[7] "according to the commonly

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[6] State Course of Study for Rural and Elementary Schools of Virginia, pp. 250-56. State Department of Education Bulletin, Volume I, No. 2. Richmond, Virginia: Department of Education, 1918.

[7] Report of the Survey Staff to the Education Commission, p. 97. Richmond, Virginia: Everett Waddey Company, 1919.

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accepted practices at present, the course of study set up by the State Board of Education is good." However, in order to determine the actual practices in the schools of the state, and to what extent the schools were carrying out the state course of study, the committee employed four methods of investigation: (1) actual visits to more than eight hundred schools; (2) interpretation of information supplied by the supervisors of the State Department of Education; and (3) analysis of the actual weekly schedules of recitations in operation. (See Appendix p. 371).

By use of the foregoing methods the survey staff obtained accurate information on: (1) time allotted per school day for the total recitation of pupils, (2) the per cent of schools whose programs made no special provision for some of the subjects specified by the state course of study, (3) time devoted to arithmetic in grades one through seven, (4) supply of teaching essentials, such as maps, globes, and charts, and (5) the comparative test scores of rural and city children.

The amount of time allowed for recitations by rural schools is indicated in Table II.

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TABLE II[8]

THE MEDIAN ALLOTMENT IN MINUTES PER SCHOOL DAY FOR THE TOTAL RECITATION OF PUPILS IN 800 NON-CITY WHITE SCHOOLS OF VIRGINIA, 1918

	One Room	Two Room	Three Room	Four Room	Five Room
Grade I	55	95	103	111	170
Grade 5	90	113	140	170	210
Grade 7	95	124	161	176	217

An examination of Table II reveals that children in one-room schools received little attention through direct instruction by the teacher. Whatever education children received in such schools must have been largely self-directed. This was particularly true of children in the first grade who, on the average, received less than one hour per day of the direct attention of the teacher. In one-half of these schools first-grade children received less than fifty-five minutes of the teacher's time.

It will be noted further that, as the size of the school increased and as each teacher had fewer grades under her charge, the amount of time devoted to children in each grade increased. However, even in two-and three-room schools, children in the first grade were neglected.

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[8] Report of the Survey Staff to the Education Commission of Virginia, op. cit., p. 99.

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According to members of the survey staff, pupils in the one-room schools had an impoverished course of study; in many cases, they were shut out from contact with all but the basic subjects. This was partly due to the inherent difficulties of providing adequate education in small schools where all instruction had to be furnished by one teacher. It was also due, in part, to the lack of properly trained teachers and to the lack of proper supervision in those schools. Pages 371-72 of the Appendix indicate the subjects taught in one-room schools, as well as the time allowed for each subject. It will be noted that under such a schedule instruction was necessarily formal, and direct.

The complete state course of study was effective in very few rural and semi-rural schools. The subjects most neglected were music, drawing, nature study, agriculture, and domestic arts. It was found that in one-room rural schools eighty per cent made no provision for music, sixty per cent none for drawing, eighty-four per cent none for nature study, and ninety-four per cent had no instruction in agriculture.[9]

Time Apportioned to Various Grades.-- In non-rural schools it was found that children in the upper grades received an undue

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[9]Report of the Survey Staff to the Education Commission of Virginia, op. cit., p. 100.

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proportion of the teacher's time. "In one-room schools children in the first grade received less than 58 per cent of the amount of the teacher's time received by pupils in the seventh grade. In two-room schools the first-grade pupils received about seventy-five per cent, in three-and four-room schools about sixty-three per cent, and in larger schools about seventy-eight per cent as much time as was given to seventh-grade pupils."[10]

The commission also found that there was little uniformity among schools with respect to the amount of time that teachers devoted to children in any one grade; the situation is portrayed as follows:

> The amount of the teacher's attention devoted to the first-grade pupils in one-room schools ranged all the way from twenty minutes per day to one hundred and thirty-five minutes per day. Similarly large amounts of variability were found in every grade and in every type of school. [11]

It was admitted that differences must be expected in schools of different types, but such differences as were actually found in the schools were not deemed justifiable.

Time Devoted to Various Subjects.-- After considering the studies actually provided in rural schools, the investigation next turned to the actual time spent on the various subjects.

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[10] Report of the Survey Staff to the Education Commission of Virginia, op. cit., p. 100.

[11] Ibid., p. 100.

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In nearly two thirds of the one-room schools less than fifteen minutes a day were devoted to recitation work in arithmetic in the first grade, and not more than eighteen minutes a day in the fifth or seventh grades. On the other hand, fourteen per cent of those schools provided from twenty to twenty-five minutes for arithmetic per day in the first grade, ten per cent used thirty minutes or more per day in the fifth grade, and fourteen per cent provided thirty minutes or more each day for arithmetic in the seventh grade.

With reference to time allotments in the other studies the commission found:

> A similar examination of other elementary studies in schools of different types shows: (1) that the State Course of Study, itself admirable in many respects, appears not to have had its proper influence on the work actually done in a large proportion of the non-city schools of the state; (2) actual practice in non-city white schools indicates that on the whole teachers and supervisors have little conception of desirable allotments of time to the various studies.12

Availability of Instructional Supplies.--In many of the schools of the state, especially the rural schools, the survey committee found a woeful lack of many necessary supplies. The committee reported that in city schools and in rural schools of the larger and better type the minimum of supplies and equipment was reasonably well provided. However, in the majority of the

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12 Report of the Survey Staff to the Education Commission of Virginia, op. cit., p. 101.

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rural schools there was serious lack of supplies for the fundamental studies of music, geography, history, and drawing. In the majority of non-city schools, proper instruction in subjects set by the State Course for elementary schools was frequently impossible and always limited by the lack of supplies and equipment.[13]

The survey committee made a special point of the limited facilities available in many of the rural schools for instruction in handwriting. After careful investigation it was revealed that in hundreds of the schools visited neither pens, ink, nor paper were available. In many cases the only ink supply found was a five cent bottle on the teacher's desk. Members of the committee who gave handwriting tests to about ten thousand rural school pupils were obliged to carry with them to the schools full supplies of pens, pencils, ink, and paper; and also supplies of pasteboard writing pads to be used in schools where the desks were so poor that they presented no surface on which the writing could be done.[14]

Textbooks.--There is no doubt that a sufficient supply of suitable textbooks is essential to the satisfactory conduct of a school program. The survey committee called attention to the fact that, by Section 611 of the Revised Code,[15] the State Board

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[13] Report of the Survey Staff to the Education Commission of Virginia, op. cit., p. 105.

[14] Ibid., p. 105.

[15] Ibid., p. 104.

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of Education was charged with responsibility for selecting textbooks and educational supplies for use in the public schools of the State.

The committee pointed out that the Board of Education had selected and approved certain textbooks which were published in a revised list of elementary and high school textbooks. The list of approved books was divided into basal books, used regularly as the central basis of work in various studies, and supplementary books which were intended to extend instruction. The committee gave as its opinion that the list of basal books appeared to be well selected and that it included books of the type necessary for effective education. The list of supplementary books was thought to be too limited to provide effective instruction.[16]

After making a careful analysis of tabulated returns from over a hundred rural white schools, the committee reported that hundreds of pupils in these schools did not have a full equipment of necessary textbooks.[17]

Comparative Achievement of Rural and City Children.-- In order to compare the progress of rural and urban children, the committee administered standardized tests to representative children in a hundred schools. According to the tests, when one-room rural schools were compared with city schools, the results invariably favored the city schools. However, when four-room schools and city schools were compared, the difference was not so

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[16] Report of the Survey Staff to the Education Commission of Virginia, op. cit., p. 104.

[17] Ibid., p. 104.

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great and in several cases pupils of the four-room schools scored higher than pupils of the city schools. When one considers that four-fifths of all school children in Virginia received their education in non-city schools, it is obvious that the comparatively poor showing of these schools was a matter of serious concern. The seriousness of the situation became more apparent when it was found that the rural children were, on the average, about a year older than the city children.

The committee reported that the unfavorable showing of the rural schools was due to: (1) irregular entrance of pupils into school and their irregular attendance thereafter, (2) the short school term which prevailed in many districts, (3) the lack of a sufficient number of well trained teachers, (4) the large number of one-room schools, (5) the absence of uniform standards of achievement for the fundamental subjects of the elementary grades, (6) the inadequacy of methods of classifying children in school, (7) the dearth of special classes for unusual children, and (8) the inadequacy of supervision. Underlying all else was the inadequate financial support received by the schools.[18]

Training of Teachers.--In keeping with their duties of evaluating the elementary school program, the members of the survey committee had the opportunity to become personally acquainted with many of the teachers of the state. Their reaction was as

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[18]Report of the Survey Staff to the Education Commission of Virginia, op. cit., p. 132.

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follows: (1) in native intelligence, personal characteristics, and earnestness, Virginia teachers were fully on a par with the teachers in other parts of the country, but were woefully lacking in the education and training essential for good teaching; (2) the median amount of education and training received by white teachers in non-city schools was slightly more than the equivalent of three years of high school education; (3) in city elementary schools the median amount of education received by the teachers was the equivalent of one year of college or normal school training.[19]

The findings of the survey committee indicate that the majority of the elementary teachers were intelligent and conscientious but lacking in necessary professional training.

Practical Arts.--For a considerable period, traditional influences tended to limit public education in Virginia to those stuides in which the intellectual and cultural elements dominated almost to the exclusion of practical arts and vocational education. In the second decade of the twentieth century initial steps were taken to give practical arts a place in the elementary school.

It should be noted that Virginia has been and still is predominantly an agricultural state. In 1910 about forty-five per cent of all persons engaged in gainful occupations were in agriculture. In 1917 more than three-fifths of the population of the

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[19] Report of the Survey Staff to the Education Commission of Virginia, op. cit., p. 138.

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state lived in communities of less than one hundred population.

The survey committee found that the state course of study provided for school gardening in the fifth grade and for elementary agriculture in the sixth and seventh grades, but in nine-tenths of the schools no attention was paid to either.[20]

The committee reported further that the state course of study made excellent recommendations for instruction in sewing and cooking in the upper elementary grades, but not one white school in ten ever pretended to provide any instruction in domestic arts. However, the majority of colored children had made commendable progress in domestic arts in spite of serious lack of equipment.[21]

School Hygiene.-- The committee pointed out that by Section 702 of the Revised Code of Virginia the teaching of physiology and hygiene was required in every free public school of the state, and that each teacher was required to devote not less than thirty minutes per month to instruction dealing with the prevention of accidents.[22]

It was revealed that, although excellent provision was made for health instruction in each grade, actual instruction in that field in the majority of non-city schools was limited to the most perfunctory and unskilled teaching. In one-teacher and two-teacher

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[20] Report of the Survey Staff to the Education Commission of Virginia, op. cit., p. 181.

[21] Ibid., p. 181.

[22] Revised Code of Virginia, 1914, Section 702.

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schools particularly, the crowded program and the quality of the teachers made health instruction relatively ineffective.[23]

The survey committee criticized the state course of study for not making proper provision for physical education and stated that in the majority of non-city districts of the state physical training through exercise was almost totally neglected.[24]

Recommendations of the Survey Staff

The survey committee made certain recommendations calculated to remedy the existing defects in the public schools. The following defects were cited: (1) there was an inadequate supply of well trained teachers; (2) the supervision, both state and local, was inadequate to guide teachers and to stimulate local understanding of school needs; (3) there was a lack of understanding by communities of the serious limitations on education, as existing in the state; and (4) certain defects existed in the administrative machinery of the state.[25]

The following recommendations were made: (1) arrangements for securing a more adequate supply of well trained teachers should be made and certificating standards should be raised; (2) provision for more adequate supervision must be made by increasing

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[23] Report of the Survey Staff to the Education Commission of Virginia, op. cit., p. 192.

[24] Ibid., p. 192.

[25] Ibid., p. 109.

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the supervisory force of the State Department and by the apportionment of several county supervisors; (3) the fallacious assumption that the division superintendent can exercise proper supervisory functions over the schools of the entire county must be abandoned; (4) communities must be brought to realize the serious limitations of the education provided.[26]

Recommendations pertaining to the administrative machinery of the State Department of Education were: (1) the Department should issue a carefully worked out schedule, showing for the benefit of teachers and supervisors the relative emphasis and time to be given to each grade; (2) schedules for each school in the various counties should receive the approval of the division superintendent, or his assistants, before the work of the school year began; (3) there should be a mandatory state-wide policy of free textbooks and supplies; (4) one-teacher schools should be restricted to five grades of instruction; and (5) provision should be made for a more adequate system of supervision.[27]

The first and last of the foregoing recommendations have now been realized throughout the state, and in some counties the second and fourth recommendations have been put into effect. However, the recommendations pertaining to textbooks have not as yet been realized; the furnishing of free textbooks to the children is still optional in the various counties of the state.

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[26] Report of the Survey Staff to the Education Commission of Virginia, op. cit., p. 109.

[27] Ibid., p. 109.

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Courses of Study in Local Communities

The writer has deemed it advisable to present an analysis of courses of study in several representative local districts in the state. Accordingly, programs of study for the cities of Richmond,[28] Norfolk,[29] and Bristol[30] are analyzed. The plan for analyzing these courses of study is based on the system employed by the United States Office of Education.[31]

Provision for Motivation.--Courses of study during this period made little direct provision for motivation. However, the importance of motivation is implied by statements in various parts of the programs. The Richmond program for reading indicated the importance of cultivating a love and desire for reading through delightful content. The Norfolk program for reading explained that it is necessary to give children a greater variety of books which are interesting and worthwhile from a literary standpoint.

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[28] School Board of the City of Richmond, Course of Study in Reading for Elementary Grades. Richmond: Clyde W. Saunders and Sons, Inc., Printers, 1929. Pp. 36.

[29] School Board of the City of Norfolk, Course of Study for Elementary Schools of Norfolk, Virginia. Norfolk: City Printing Company, 1923. Pp. 431.

[30] School Board of the City of Bristol, Course of Study, Teachers' Manual and Rules and Regulations for the Schools of Bristol, Virginia. Bristol: City Printing Company, 1923.

[31] Bernice Elizabeth Leary, Survey of Courses of Study and Other Curriculum Materials Published since 1934. United States Office of Education Bulletin, No. 31. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937. Pp. v+185.

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The Bristol Course of Study made no provision for motivation either directly or by implication.

Behavior Controls.--The Norfolk Program insisted that the language arts course provide for the study of citizenship, safety, nature study, and health habits. The sixth-grade civics program dealt with matters of thrift, right living, and government and law enforcement. In arithmetic it was explained that, "the child should be led to see a vital need of numbers to the various applications of every-day experiences".[32]

The Richmond program in language pointed out that growth in language ability involves a corresponding development in experience. It also made clear that enlargement and refinement of vocabulary parallel clear and exact thinking.[33]

Form of Presentation.-- Courses of study were usually organized along the line of formal subject matter. The work for each grade was outlined separately. In the Norfolk[34] program, aims and attainments were listed separately for each subject and year.

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[32] Course of Study for Elementary Schools of Norfolk, Virginia, op. cit., p. 196.

[33] School Board of the City of Richmond, Course of Study in Language for Kingergarten and Elementary Grades, p. 76. Richmond: Clyde M. Saunders and Sons, Printers, 1929.

[34] Course of Study for the Elementary Schools of Norfolk, Virginia, op. cit., p. 431.

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In Richmond during the period (1915-30) courses of study were printed separately for reading, arithmetic, industrial education and drawing, language, and social studies.

Time Allotments.--The Bristol[35] program provided a time schedule, limiting instruction in each subject of the advanced grades to a certain number of minutes, usually twenty or thirty.

In the Norfolk and Richmond programs time allotments on a weekly basis were frequently provided for each subject and grade. For instance, the Richmond[36] plan provided for fifty minutes a week in fourth grade industrial education. The Norfolk[37] schedule allowed 200 minutes a week for fourth grade arithmetic.

Reading Material.--The Norfolk Course[38] of Study for 1923 suggested 29 professional books for teachers in the field of reading. Numerous teacher-pupil references were also provided in history, and language and literature. In arithmetic, several reference books on methods were listed.

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[35] Course of Study, Teacher's Manual, and Rules and Regulations for the Schools of Bristol, Virginia, op. cit., p. 50.

[36] School Board of the City of Richmond, Course of Study in Industrial Education and Drawing, p. 110. Richmond: Clyde W. Saunders and Sons, Inc., Printers, 1916.

[37] Course of Study for the Elementary Schools of Norfolk, Virginia, op. cit., p. 213.

[38] Ibid., pp. 51-52-57.

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The Richmond[39] language program, published in 1927, provided for the pupils of the various grade levels, language stories which were suited to the months of the year. Stories for special days were also provided. The course of study in reading provided a rich background of supplementary reading material through the elementary grades.[40]

The Bristol Course of Study for 1915[41] made provision for two basal books in the social studies of the upper grades. Professional books for teachers were not listed. Supplementary language books were suggested for children.

Instructional Aids.--The Norfolk[42] program provided a detailed list of materials to be used in drawing and industrial arts. Lists of material and equipment were included for the social studies.

The 1925 Richmond[43] Course of Study called for a variety of instructional aids in history, civics, and geography. For instance, in the high-fourth grade, moving pictures, sand tables, stereopticon views, and maps were considered necessary in these subjects.

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[39]Course of Study in Language for Kindergarten and Elementary Grades, op. cit., p. 76.

[40]Course of Study in Reading for the Elementary Grades, op. cit., p. 36.

[41]Course of Study, Teachers Manual, and Rules and Regulations for the Schools of Bristol, Virginia, op. cit., p. 12.

[42]Course of Study for the Elementary Schools of Norfolk, Va., op. cit., p. 302.

[43]School Board of the City of Richmond, Course of Study in History, Civics and Geography for Elementary Schools, p. 74. Richmond: Clyde W. Saunders and Sons, Inc., Printers, 1925.

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Suggested Use of Community Resources.--The Richmond[44] program for geography, published in 1925, devoted two pages to a study of how the people of Richmond work and live.

The Norfolk[45] program for civics in the upper grades devoted a three-page outline to the utlization of community resources.

Suggested Methods and Procedures.--In the Norfolk[46] program, techniques and procedures were listed separately for each subject and grade. Numerous activities and suggested outlines for developing activities were suggested in the field of elementary language and literature. In primary arithmetic a detailed list of projects and games was included.

In the Richmond[47] course, published in 1921, "type projects" were listed in arithmetic for the fifth through the seventh grades.

Degree of Adaption to Local Needs.-- The Norfolk[48] program provided for adapting the work in nature study to the passing

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[44]Course of Study in History, Civics and Geography for Elementary Schools, op. cit., p. 94.

[45]Course of Study for the Elementary Schools of Norfolk, Virginia, op. cit., p. 271.

[46]Ibid., p. 431.

[47]School Board of the City of Richmond, Arithmetic Course of Study for Kindergarten through 7 B Grades, Richmond: Clyde W. Saunders, Printer, 1921. Pp. 44.

[48]Course of Study for the Elementary Schools of Norfolk, Virginia, op. cit., p. 331.

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seasons. In the field of civics, extensive use was made of local agencies such as clubs, chambers of commerce, sanitary conditions, water supply, fire service, and community planning.

The Richmond[49] course for fifth-grade civics gave considerable attention to beautifying the home, school and community, safety in the home, keeping things clean, and fire prevention.

Suggested Procedures in Testing.--The Richmond[50] program for reading devoted five pages to an annotated bibliography dealing with standardized tests for the elementary grades.

The Norfolk and Bristol Courses of study did not refer to the subject of formal tests.

Recapitulation.--Comparative analyses of the State Course of Study of 1923, given elsewhere in this chapter, and of the three local courses listed here, indicate that the local courses reflected the general principles and outlines of the state program. Judgment of local curriculum committees is evident in such matters as techniques, supplementary reading material for pupils and teachers, utilization of community resources, time allotments, and instructional aids. It appears evident, then, that local courses of study followed the state program in general, but varied from it to accord with local needs and opinions.

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[49] School Board of the City of Richmond, Courses of Study in History, Civics and Geography, op. cit., p. 44.

[50] Arithmetic Course of Study for Kindergarten Through 7B Grades, op. cit., p. 24.

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The 1923 State Course of Study

This study has already dealt with the State Courses of Study for the years 1907, 1909, and 1915-16. The State Department of Education printed courses bearing the dates of 1917-18 and 1919. However, in all essentials the state courses bearing the last two dates were similar to the 1915-16 edition, which is analyzed in detail in Chapter IV of this dissertation.

With the 1923 issue, certain fundamental changes worthy of attention were made. The previous programs of study were relatively short, containing not more than sixty or seventy pages. The 1923 revision was much longer, containing 291 pages.

In organization, the 1923 issue was composed of three parts. Part I contained information on the following important items: school laws, teachers' professional attitudes, purposes of the course of study, standard equipment of rural elementary schools, care of school plants, school organization, special day programs, beautifying the school grounds, school discipline, standard tests and measurements, marking pupils, personal standards for teachers, school libraries, teachers' libraries, and teachers' dress.

Part 2 dealt with the subject matter of the course, divided as follows: (1) social study group; outlined for each of the seven grades; (2) health group, also outlined for all grades; (3) English literature group, consisting of reading, language, and spelling; (4) arithmetic; and (5) arts, including penmanship,

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industrial and practical arts, and music. Work was outlined for home economics to include hot lunches, recipes, clothing, food, and home management.

Part 3 dealt with the matter of schedules for the various types of schools, such as one-teacher schools and schools having two or more teachers.

In this course of study especial emphasis was placed on citizenship. For this reason the subjects referred to as the social study group were given the most important place in the Manual. In the introduction to this group the following statement was made: "In this group the essential elements of civics, history, and geography are presented in a progressive form so that children may learn to understand the causes of the social conditions in which they live."[51]

It is quite probable that problems arising from the aftermath of the World War were responsible for the attention given to citizenship.

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[51] State Course of Study for Rural and Elementary Schools in Virginia, p. 13. State Department of Education Bulletin, Vol. 5, No. 4. Richmond: April, 1923.

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Analysis of the 1923 Course of Study

The plan for analyzing the courses of study listed in this manuscript is based on the system employed by the United States Office of Education.[52]

Certain basic features of the 1923 Course of Study dealt with in this chapter are: (1) provision for motivation, (2) behavior controls, (3) form of presentation, (4) textbooks and professional literature, (5) instructional aids, (6) suggested use of community resources, (7) suggested methods and procedures, (8) provisions for adapting work to individual needs, (9) suggested methods and procedures to be used by teachers in testing.

Provision for Motivation.-- Although in a few instances the problem of securing the child's interest was dealt with in this course of study, the traditional concept that the child must adapt himself to the school was still popular. The content was entirely subject matter; however, it was presented under related fields such as social studies and language arts. This is an indication of the general trend in organization of programs of study.

The extent of interest displayed in matters of motivation is apparent in the following paragraphs:

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[52] Bernice Elizabeth Leary, Survey of Courses of Study and other Curriculum Materials Published since 1934. United States Office of Education Bulletin, No. 31. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937. Pp. v+185.

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> Every experience of the child offers subject matter for language. Each recitation period in a day's program is an added opportunity for free and full discussion which should demand the use of clear and accurate English.[53]

With reference to dramatization, the program of studies, at least by inference, alluded to matters of motivation:

> Children do not need to be taught to dramatize; they need only the opportunity. A study of the early games of children will show that much of their time is spent in dramatic play. In utilizing this innate desire, the school has an opportunity to develop better speech, to lay the foundation for consecutive thinking, and to strengthen the pleasure in good literature.[54]

In the foregoing quotation reference was made to the importance of utilizing the innate desires of children. This type of philosophy was seldom to be found in the earlier courses of study.

In the other subjects few attempts were made to stimulate the work by taking advantage of the natural inclinations or interests of the child. The work was mainly lessons to be studied and learned.

Behavior Controls.--A definite attempt was made to affect the life and interests of the child by providing for enriched living and social well being. The social studies were emphasized and particular attention was given to them. An indication of this tendency is found in the aim of the social studies in the primary grades:

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[53] State Course of Study for Rural and Elementary Schools in Virginia, op. cit., p. 13.

[54] Ibid., p. 155.

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(a) to build up in the child a social consciousness through his environment and his relations to his environment.
(b) To build up by means of this and all subject matter desirable social and civic attitudes and habits.[55]

In second-grade social studies a definite attempt was made to develop habits and attitudes of kindness in the pupils. This attempt is indicated by the following aim as included in a specimen lesson plan. "To discuss with the group ways in which they can be kind to playmates and to build up attitudes of kindness and politeness."[56] In fifth-grade social studies an outline in citizenship included the following sub-headings: (1) advantages of home ownership, (2) knowledge of, service to, and love for the nation, (3) government by the people, (4) responsibility of each citizen, (5) social service, (6) thrift and industry, (7) knowledge, and (8) growth of schools.[57]

In the study of seventh-grade civics, problems having a direct bearing on citizenship in a democracy were included. Typical topics dealt with were: (1) the problems of democracy as a means of fulfilling human needs and promoting human welfare, (2) the meaning of citizenship in a democratic society as compared with being subject to the whims of a king or dictator, (3) the need of education for citizenship in a democracy, and (4) the duties and obligations of a citizen in a democracy.[58]

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[55] State Course of Study for Rural and Elementary Schools in Virginia, op. cit., p. 38.
[56] Ibid., p. 46.
[57] Ibid., p. 80.
[58] Ibid., p. 93.

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Form of Presentation.--The work was organized along the line of formal subject matter. Lists of textbook references for teachers and pupils were given. A statement of aims usually appeared at the head of each section devoted to a given field or group of subjects.

The work for each grade was outlined separately; suggestions were made to teachers along various lines. For instance, there were type lessons, suggestive projects, interests of children, suggested development of a topic through projects, and outline lessons in citizenship.

Time Allotments.--Time allotments were in close accord with the old time-honored, traditional plan. In the back of the Manual was included a daily schedule for one; two; and three-teacher schools. A definite amount of time each day was alloted to each of the common branches. (See Appendix, p. 371).

As to the ground to be covered per unit of time, the work for each year was outlined for each respective grade. It was assumed that the work for a given grade would be completed in or during the school year.

Reading Material.--Three pages were devoted to school libraries. Suggestions were made for taking care of the school library and for arranging and cataloguing books.

Suggestions were made for teachers' professional reading, and a list of books and authors was given. These books included educational psychology, school management, rural education, general

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methods, methods of teaching special subjects, and educational tests and measurements. Names and addresses of publishers were included.

A list of basal and supplementary texts to be used by children was included in the Manual. The number of pages to be covered was frequently given.

A few magazines and current publications to be used for reference reading by the pupils were listed. The list included the Literary Digest, American Boy, The Youth's Companion, and a county or daily paper. A list of teachers' educational magazines was given.

Instructional Aids.-- A list of minimum essentials in equipment for a rural elementary school was to be found in the introduction of the course of study. These minimum essentials included such items as blackboard, teacher's desk and chair, medium-sized dinner bell, dictionary, at least two sets of supplementary readers for each grade from one to six, victrola with records, and other miscellaneous items.

Teachers were referred to bulletins published by the United States Department of Agriculture dealing with trees and plants. These bulletins were especially recommended for use on Arbor day.

A list containing the address of companies publishing helpful texts on tests and measurements was provided. Teachers were also provided with a list indicating where tests could be secured.

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Workbooks were not included as instructional aids in the course of study; neither was any mention made of the radio as an instructional device. It is probable that at this time both radios and workbooks were being tried out as instructional devices in some partsof the state.

Suggested Use of Community Resources.-- The idea of using community resources to assist pupils in their work was predominant in the course of study. Teachers were advised to call attention to the plants and forest trees of their communities. For instance:

> Much of the observation necessary can be gathered upon the way to school. In most of the rural schools it is not possible to take the children on many excursions; therefore, it is necessary to develop the power to observe independently. The discussion of these observations may be part of the opening exercises for the day.59

In the social studies for the third grade, teachers were especially advised to use the background furnished by nature to stimulate an interest in and an understanding of geography.

> In community history-geography study, the endeavor should be to acquaint the children with the every day facts about their home community which they should know. In this connection the facts concerning food, shelter, clothing, occupation of the people, transportation and products should be considered. The class should be introduced to such natural geographic features as occur in the community, such as hills, mountains, valleys, streams, waterfalls, rivers, etc.60

Outlines containing projects were given, and teachers were advised to select suitable projects from these outlines. Those

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[59] State Course of Study for Rural and Elementary Schools in Virginia, op. cit., p. 51.

[60] Ibid., p. 51.

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in the tidewater region were advised to select a project dealing with fishing, or shipping. In like manner teachers of other physical regions were advised to select projects dealing with the industry of their particular region.

Projects dealing with the history of the local community were suggested . Especial attention was called to such historical communities as Jamestown, Williamsburg, Yorktown, and Fredericksburg.

Suggested Methods and Procedures.-- Considerable effort was made to assist teachers by including outlines, projects, lesson plan briefs, suggestions for developing lessons, suggestions for development of topics, plans for drill lessons, proper use of books and supplies, and suggestions for utilizing available books and instructional aids.

Special methods were not developed in detail but references to books dealing with special methods were cited for the convenience of teachers.

Little attention was given to the diagnosis of pupil difficulties or the diagnosis and treatment of difficulties. The general idea appeared to be that pupils would adjust themselves to the school. Except for references to books dealing with this problem, little mention was made of the matter.

Definite and ambitious attempts were made to provide for correlation and integration of subject matter. The very organization of subject matter into related fields such as language arts

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and social studies provided a natural setting for correlation and integration of subject matter. The following statement from the course of study emphasizes this fact:

> Not only is there a correlation of subject matter in geography, history, and arithmetic, but emphasis is also given in the methods of teaching to cultivation of initiative, judgement, co-operation, and power to organize knowledge around current events. Employ the budget scheme in teaching the problem of economy in expenditure for school equipment, clothes and food, gifts, toys, garden plots, etc.
>
> Emphasize the producing side of economy in school gardens, in industrial clubs, and in similar activities.[61]

Degree of Adaption to Local Needs.-- Considerable attention was given to community and individual needs. This was especially apparent in the social studies. Here the work of the first grade centered around the home. That of the second and third grades dealt with the community. Reference was made to local conditions and an attempt was made to have pupils and teachers consider ways and means for improvement, where improvements seemed necessary.

In the middle grades the work dealt with problems of government and citizenship. Pupils were encouraged to apply the facts and problems of the textbook to their own community and thus vitalize the work.

The development of citizenship was the main goal of the social studies group, which was given a very prominent place in the school program.

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[61] State course of Study for Rural and Elementary Schools in Virginia, op. cit., p. 80.

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The following points were a part of the fifth grade outline in social studies: "(1) economy, (2) advantage of home ownership, (3) information about our government, (4) government by the people, (5) responsibility of each citizen, (6) social service, (7) health, (8) thrift, (9) beautifying the home and community."[62]

Suggest Procedures in Testing.--The place of testing in the school room was recognized by the committee on the elementary course of study. The following uses of standard tests and measurements were suggested:

> Determine individual and class ability, and individual and class achievement; in determining individual and class progress in various school subjects and skill processes; in classifying pupils; in promoting pupils from grade to grade; in comparing results achieved in certain grades of one school with those of same grades of other schools; in correcting weak spots in individual and class progress in one's own school; and in determining the effectiveness of one's own teaching.[63]

An indication that the State Department was awake to the possibilities of testing is found in the fact that the committee on elementary education advised teachers to take a course in the purpose, use, and administering of standard tests.

A brief annotated bibliography of available tests for the various grades was included for the convenience of teachers.

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[62] State Course of Study for Rural and Elementary Schools in Virginia, op. cit., p. 80.

[63] Ibid., p. 25.

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The School Survey of 1928

Another survey commission was provided by the General Assembly at its extra session in 1927.[64] The commission was to consist of eleven qualified members, two from the members of the senate to be appointed by the President of the Senate three from the members of the House of Delegates to be appointed by the speaker of the House, and six to be appointed by the governor of Virginia from residents of Virginia not professionally connected with the state educational system. The unexpended balances that remained from the appropriations made by the General Assembly in 1926 were appropriated for the expenses of the commission.[65]

The Survey Commission.--In accordance with the provisions of the General Assembly, a commission, headed by M. V. O'Shea of the University of Wisconsin, was appointed to make a thorough study of existing conditions, needs, and regulations of the public schools.

The commission investigated and reported on important phases of public school work in the state, including: (1) the course of study, (2) fads and frills, (3) buildings and grounds, (4) supplies and equipment, (5) instructional defects, (6) health and hygiene in the schools, (7) guidance, (8) compulsory attendance and (9) vocal music.

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[64] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1927, Chapter 69, Section 2, p. 163.

[65] Ibid., p. 104.

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Time Alloted to the Various School Subjects.--The survey committee found that one-half of the time was devoted to the formal subjects, while the content subjects received less than one-fifth of the time. Spelling received almost as much time as history and civics, and penmanship more time than nature study or science. It was found that less time was alloted to nature study and industrial arts than had been allowed for these subjects twenty years before. History, geography, and civics combined received little more time than was alloted to arithmetic.[66] (See Appendix, p.375).

Although the course of study emphasized the importance of the social studies, the survey committee pointed out that a relatively limited amount of time was allowed for these subjects. It is apparent that the work of the schools was still mainly formal and dictated by tradition, and although the course of study emphasized citizenship, the schools were still clinging to the old ideas.

Criticism of the Course of Study

Definite criticisms of a general and specific nature were offered in relation to the course of study. The committee found that too much stress was put "on the mastery of the conventional arts, of the outstanding facts of geography, history, and civics."[67]

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[66] Report to the Education Commission of Virginia of a Survey of the Public Educational System of the State, p. 129. Richmond: Davis Bottom, Superintendent Public Printing, 1928.

[67] Ibid., p. 130.

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It was admitted that these were worthy purposes, but it was implied that they were so emphasized as to crowd out other purposes of even more importance. The words of the survey committee follow:

> If emphasis is persistently placed upon the mere learning of facts and the forming of the specific habits making up the language arts and arithmetic there is little place left for the cultivation of the imagination; the development of initiative, inventiveness, and other creative capacities.[54]

An analysis of the foregoing paragraph indicates clearly the opinion of the survey committee that too much time was devoted to the mere learning of facts and that insufficient attention was given to the development of the pupil's personality.

Reading.--The survey staff considered it doubtful whether the use of reading textbooks, as such, provided the most useful material for the middle and upper grades. They believed that the use of such texts tended to over-emphasize the mechanics of reading at the expense of content and the cultivation of interests and tastes. In the field of reading it was suggested that each child be provided with a book different from all of the others in his grade, and that the pupils exchange books. Such a plan would result in a wider interest, a more extended basis for the cultivation of taste, and a greater efficiency from reading a larger quantity of good material. It was pointed out that geography, history, science,

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and industrial arts received but meager attention. The survey staff recommended that "as a part of the reading content excellent books and magazine articles from these several fields might well be selected."[68]

Arithmetic.--In the field of arithmetic the survey staff found the work too formal and factual. A more practical system of instruction in arithmetic was recommended. Furthermore, it was stated that an adequate course of industrial arts would furnish the basis and the motivation for much of the appropriate arithmetic. "In a few schools these relationships do receive some attention, but on the whole, the work is chiefly learning the bare facts and processes apart from considerations of value and use."[69]

Language Arts.--In language, as in arithmetic, it was found that the work was too formal and isolated from the common needs of speaking and writing. "If constant attention to making whatever is said or written in geography, history and other subjects clear and effective there will be relatively little need for many lessons in separate, formal language."[70]

It is significant that the survey committee recommended correlating English with certain other subjects.

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[68] Report to the Education Commission of Virginia of a Survey of the Public Educational System of the State, op. cit., p. 130.

[69] Ibid., p. 131.

[70] Ibid., p. 131.

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In spelling the only suggestion of the committee was that more time be spent in studying words outside the regular spelling lesson.

It was reported that the method of teaching penmanship was undoubtedly contrary to the best principles of psychology as understood at that time:

> The course in penmanship has included in it a great deal of physical activity which psychologists generally regard as having nothing to do with writing. The many hours spent in the seven years of the elementary schools in making ovals, "pushing and pulling" and so on, seem to be wasted. Much of the work connected with teaching children to write seems to be in violation of nearly every principle of psychology known relative to motor training.71

Music.--The course in music was considered to be "well, though briefly, outlined".[72] Possibly more attention was given to technique than was intended by the state course of study. The survey committee conceded that this was probably due to difficulty in securing adequate materials for the appreciation types of study which should have more attention.[73]

Industrial Arts.--In the field of industrial arts the committee regretted that the state course of study offered work of so limited scope. The observation was made that perhaps the reason for the formality and bookishness found in the whole range of the school work of the state was due "to neglect of

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[71] Report to the Education Commission of Virginia of a Survey of the Public Educational System of the State, 1928, op. cit., p. 132.

[72] Ibid., p. 133.

[73] Ibid., p. 133.

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industrial arts in the inclusive sense in which that term is coming to be used."[74] Commenting further on this situation the survey committee averred that:

> In view of the large number of children who drop out of school, who fail and who are over-age, it would seem the part of both wisdom and fairness to consider with seriousness the importance of a field that would go far to adapt the work of the schools to the capabilities and interests of the majority of the pupils.[75]

Practical Science.--The survey staff was convinced that insufficient time was being given to science in the schools. Members of the staff recommended that time and appropriate material be provided for work in the science of every-day life sufficient to make children intelligent regarding the natural phenomena and forces all about them.[76]

The survey committee was especially insistent that more emphasis be placed on practical elementary science pertaining to the art of home making. The committee stated its belief that Virginia was in as great need of enlightenment regarding the knowledge to be secured from home economics courses properly taught as any state of the Union. It was recommended that the sciences and the arts that pertain to homemaking be taught in all the rural elementary and secondary schools of the state. It was revealed by an investigation of the committee that

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[74] Report to the Education Commission of Virginia of a Survey of the Public Educational System of the State, 1928, op. cit., p. 132.

[75] Ibid., p. 133.

[76] Ibid., p. 133.

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home economics was not taught as a special subject in the elementary grades, except in a few schools, most of which were in the cities. A questionnaire revealed that only fourteen school systems were offering home economics below the high school. In other schools if taught at all, the subject was taught incidentally. Most of the rural schools were organized on the 7-4 plan and did not offer home economics in grades 1 to 7. Home economics was usually offered in systems that had junior high schools.[77]

Guidance in the Schools.--The committee found a strong sentiment among educators in the state for a program of work making definite provision for vocational and educational guidance. Such a program, it was believed, should provide for supervised study.

The following recommendations relative to guidance were made:

> Since the administrative officers are practically unanimous in their desire to incorporate guidance work in the program for the schools, and it is shown by the questionnaire that only a small percentage of the schools in Virginia have guidance programs, it is recommended that the State Board of Education with the co-operation of a committee of division superintendents and school principals make a more extended investigation of this subject...with a view to preparing a suggestive program of educational and vocational guidance for different types of schools.[78]

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[77] Report to the Education Commission of Virginia of a Survey of the Public Educational System of the State, 1928, op. cit., p. 57.

[78] Ibid., p. 391.

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Supplies and Equipment.--The committee noted that the teaching equipment was frequently inadequate to meet the needs. Their observation follows:

> The teaching equipment is often very meager, there being in some cases not even the barest essentials. For example, in twelve schools of one to four teachers in one county (which was certainly not the worst of the counties in this particular that the observer visited), eight had no clocks; seven no thermometer; two, no United States flag; four, no playground equipment; twelve, no geometrical figures; four, no number pegs; two, no number cards; two, no arithmetic drill books; two, no maps; seven, no teachers' library aids; one, no flash cards; two, no dictionary; such deficiencies should of course be remedied as quickly as possible.[79]

Fads and Frills.--The belief was found to exist among rural people that the schools were giving too much attention to such subjects as music, drawing, literature, and physical education, subjects traditionally known as "fads and frills", and that the traditional subjects were being neglected for such activities as play, health clubs, inter-school contests, and character clubs.

Commenting on this view the committee states:

> Persons who hold this view say that pupils do not read or spell so well, nor work problems in arithmetic so accurately, or know so many facts in history and geography as they did in earlier days.80

In answer to the foregoing criticism the committee pointed out that one of the outstanding weaknesses in instruction was

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[79] Report of the Education Commission of Virginia of a Survey of the Public Educational System of the State, 1928, op. cit., p. 80.

[80] Ibid., p. 82.

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a lack of understanding of the principles of habit formation. They believed that this, rather than the teaching of the newer subjects and activities, was responsible for any deficiencies in the traditional subjects that might exist.[81] The committee also pointed out that, "if oral reading was not taught as well today as a generation ago it was partly due to the emphasis now given to silent reading".[82]

Health Education.--With reference to health education it was revealed that: (1) The provision of the state constitution, state laws, and State Board of Education regulations seemed to be quite adequate for the organization and execution of an effective program for the promoting of health education of school children. (2) There had been splendid co-operation between the State Boards of Education and of Health in developing a system of health education in Virginia. (3) While great progress had been made in the discovery and correction of defects and the training of teachers to perform their part in the program, much remained to be done. (4) An annual physical examination of all teachers should be required to protect their own interests as well as those of the pupils. (5) A standard system of summary record forms should be adopted in order that

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[81] Report of the Education Commission of Virginia of a Survey of the Public Educational System of the State, 1928, op. cit., p. 83.

[82] Ibid., p. 84.

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dependable comparisons showing progress in the correction of each class of defects might be made.[83]

The committee offered valuable suggestions for correlating hygiene with other subjects as follows: (1) In English emphasize health habits, health activities, and school and community health projects. (2) In civics include reports on current health items in papers and magazines. (3) In arithmetic, make use of estimates on comparative cost of health and sickness, the figuring of height and weight averages, the cost of food and similar problems. (4) In geography compare the home life and sanitary conditions of different nations, and call attention to the effect of modern sanitation in Panama and in some of the European countries. (5) In home economics emphasize nutrition as connected with disease or physical defects, the proper selection of food to preserve health, choice of clothing to preserve health, and the value of the hot lunch and group eating.[84]

Weaknesses in Teaching.--With respect to methods of instruction the survey committee observed: (1) too little well directed effort in motivating work, (2) indications that teachers did

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[83]Report of the Education Commission of Virginia of a Survey of the Public Educational System of the State, 1928, op. cit., p. 404.

[84]Ibid., p. 404.

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not understand the psychology of habit formation, (3) a tendency to ignore the difficulties of individual children, (4) failure of teachers to give attention to the seat work of classes not reciting, (5) in upper grades especially, evidence that teachers did not have sufficient control of subject matter.[85]

Finally, it was revealed that pupils were too often assigned lessons to be learned without any realization on their part of the meaning, or any attempt to apply what was learned to the life of the pupil.

Attendance.--The investigation of the committee in regard to school attendance revealed some significant facts:[86] (1) A considerable number of children in Virginia, both white and colored, were growing up without any educational advantages. (2) There was a comparatively high proportion of illiteracy in the state. (3) In some cases children were not enrolled in school because there was no room for them or because they were remote from a schoolhouse. (4) The compulsory school law was not rigorously enforced. (5) Apparent indifference existed concerning attendance at school in some sections of the state.

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[85] Report to the Education Commission of Virginia of a Survey of the Public Educational System of the State, 1928, op. cit., p. 79.

[86] Ibid., p. 79.

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Recommendations of the Survey Committee

In its report to the state education commission, the survey committee made a long and detailed examination of the public schools of the state. The present writer believes that the really important recommendations of the committee are contained in the following paragraph:

> The great weakness underlying the whole curriculum is its neglect of things, problems, and interests of life, and its over-emphasis upon the formal and the bookish. The active, creative powers of children are given little opportunity for development. A thorough-going revision of the curriculum with greater emphasis upon the real, the practical, and the active in life, and upon the kinds of interests and activities natural to children and adapted to their capabilities is one of the basic means for improving the quality of education in both city and country schools.[87]

It will be noted that the program of studies was criticized because it was formal and bookish, and neglected the problems and interests of life. Such neglect had been outstanding from the very beginning of free, public education in 1870. It was in an attempt to eliminate these defects that, several years after the foregoing recommendations were made public, a complete revision of the curriculum was carried out.

Because of the importance of the new, revised curriculum and the basic and far reaching changes involved therein, the seventh chapter will deal with the revised curriculum of 1934.

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87 Report to the Education Commission of Virginia of a Survey of the Public Educational System of the State, 1928, op. cit., p. 134.

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Summary

This chapter has dealt with the period from the first World War to the introduction of the revised curriculum in 1934. The main events were: (1) the school survey of 1919, (2) the course of study of 1923, and (3) the school survey of 1928.

The school survey of 1919 was authorized by the General Assembly for the pupose of making a thorough study of the laws, conditions, and needs of the schools. The survey commission investigated and reported on important phases of the state school system.

It was found that the course of study did not provide for the development of initiative on the part of the pupils. Rural schools offered an impoverished course of study.

The supply of textbooks was usually inadequate to meet the needs of the pupils. It was recommended that the state supply free textbooks to all public schools.

There appeared to be little uniformity among schools in the time spent on various subjects. Proportionately too much time was given to upper grade pupils at the expense of the younger pupils.

It was apparent that there was a decided shortage of auxiliary instructional supplies necessary for effective work.

Much classroom equipment such as desks and chairs was outmoded and totally unsatisfactory, especially in rural schools.

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Although the majority of the teachers were intelligent and ambitious, their training was not sufficient to meet the need.

Health instruction was inadequate and the State Course of Study did not make sufficient provision for physical education.

There was little instruction in industrial education; the course of study did not provide for the practical needs of the pupils.

There appeared to be no uniformity in school buildings, and many buildings were entirely unsatisfactory.

Among the other things, the survey committee of 1919 recommanded that: (1) the time spent on the various subjects be more uniformly apportioned, (2) provision be made for more adequate supervision, (3) better trained teachers be provided, and (4) an attempt be made to get the communities to realize the inadequacy of the education provided.

The 1923 program of studies dealt with certain important phases of school work as follows: (1) behavior controls, (2) time allotments, (3) supplementary reading material, (4) lists of instructional aids, (5) community resources as aids to instruction, (6) methods and procedures of instruction, (7) information on testing, (8) adaptions to local needs, and (9) motivation of work.

In 1927 another survey commission was authorized by the General Assembly. This commission made its investigation and

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report the following year. The purpose of this survey was very similar to the previous one of 1919.

Certain findings of the commission that should be noted were: (1) too much time was devoted to teaching the formal subjects involving factual material exclusively; (2) citizenship was not sufficiently emphasized; (3) the existing type of instruction did not give sufficient attention to initiative, creativeness, and the vital interests of the pupils; (4) instruction in the industrial arts was inadequate, and it was especially recommended that girls be given more help in the art of home-making; (5) school facilities, in many schools of the state, were entirely inadequate to render efficient instruction; (6) there appeared to be a failure on the part of school patrons to grasp the vital issues of education;(7) the State Course of Study did not seem to place sufficient emphasis on guidance; (8) the health program appeared to be bearing fruit, although much remained to be done; (9) the school buildings, in many cases, were inadequate to provide for proper instruction.

Significant recommendations of the commission were: (1) The curriculum should be revised to provide for the active development of the personalities and creative powers of the pupils. (2) Formal, artificial instruction, unrelated to the experiences of the pupils, should be replaced by instruction dealing with natural child experiences.

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A glance at the schedule for one-teacher schools, as listed on page 371 of the Appendix, reveals that, even as late as 1923, the program of studies was organized on a formal, subject-matter basis. This was the actual situation in Virginia until 1934 when the core curriculum with its fundamental changes in psychology and philosophy was introduced.

This chapter has analyzed the 1923 program of studies. Slight revisions were made in 1926, 1930, and 1933, but the curriculum remained the traditional, formal, subject-matter type which called for direct teaching. Little change appeared in the underlying philosophy or in the psychology of instruction, although psychology, as a science, was making notable strides. It remained for the new, revised curriculum of 1934 to incorporate the progressive theories that have brought about a revolution in American education.

It is reasonable to conclude that the findings of the survey committees of 1919 and 1928 were instrumental in bringing about the important Virginia curriculum revision of 1934.

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CHAPTER VI

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC FACTORS AFFECTING THE CURRICULUM

Introduction

It is evident that curriculum making is influenced by the social-economic basis of society. Curriculums do not, like Topsy, just grow. Curriculum modifications are a result of fundamental social changes. Norton and Norton[1] point out that in the decades between 1915 and 1935 not less than 35,000 courses of study were issued.

The re-writing of courses of study represents the response of the school to new demands that are an outgrowth of rapid changes in our mode of life. A dynamic civilization offers a school system two choices. It may lag behind and become a liability upon the life it is supposed to nourish or it may adjust its objectives and procedures to the demands of a dynamic society it is created to serve. Virginia has adopted the latter course. Through curriculum revision the state has attempted to re-define the purposes of education, to improve the means for achieving these purposes, and to keep abreast of the time.

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[1] John K. Norton and Margaret Alltucker Norton, Foundations of Curriculum Building, p. 3. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936.

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Before one can comprehend the type of schools that a state should have, he must first know something of geographic, economic, social, and cultural conditions in the state. Accordingly, this chapter is devoted to a discussion of such matters.

Geographic Factors.--Virginia, located midway down the Atlantic coast, has great variation in natural resources, as well as in the topography of the different sections. The eastern portion of the state, bounded by the Atlantic Ocean, is largely coastal plain cut up by numerous rivers. In the extreme Southeast is the great Dismal Swamp. The Piedmont section, or Middle Virginia, extending from Maryland to North Carolina, is a gently rolling plateau that includes much poor soil. West of this are the mountains of the Southwest and the Shenandoah Valley in the Northwest, the latter bounded on its western side by mountains. Approximately half of the state, in fact, consists of mountains interspersed with numerous valleys. The relative isolation of these mountain areas before the comparatively recent era of road building explains some of the social lag in the region.[2]

Tidewater Virginia is an alluvial region rising from the sands that skirt the ocean. The soils of this division are, in

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[2] William Edward Garnett and Aja Clee Seymour, Virginia County Conditions and Trends of Social Significance, p. 149. Bulletin No. 291. Blacksburg: Virginia Agricultural Experiment Station, August, 1933.

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general, light, warm, and easily tilled. This section, favored with a semi-tropical climate, is an excellent gardening region. Tobacco, peanuts, general farm crops, and fruit are produced.

Middle Virginia, the country from Tidewater to the low range of mountains parallel with the Blue Ridge, is the great tobacco region of the state. This is an undulating country consisting of hills, table-lands, and valleys, with a great variety of soils.

Piedmont Virginia lies at the foot of the Blue Ridge Mountains. This range of mountains extends from the Potomac River, at Harper's Ferry, to the Dan River. For beauty of landscape, variety of scenery, native fertility of soil, and water courses contributing to practical benefit, this section is surpassed by few, if any, other sections in the United States. The land is suited for general farming and fruit raising, especially apples.

The Valley of Virginia is a portion of the great central Appalacian Valley that extends for hundreds of miles from Canada to Alabama. It is a belt of rolling country enclosed between lofty mountain ranges, diversified by hills and valleys, with many winding streams of water. This is a region of limestone rocks, shales, slates, and clays. A large portion of the valley was settled by Pennsylvania Germans in the early history of the state. These people

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brought with them their frugal habits and their conservative systems and modes of farm management, which have served to keep this section one of the most desirable in the state. General farming, fruit growing, and dairying are carried on in this region.

The Appalachian region of western Virginia is a lumbering, mining, and grazing country. The average elevation is about 2,600 feet above sea level. Until recently this section was more or less isolated by lack of good roads and, as a result, education has been relatively backward there.

Economic Conditions.--The Virginia population is largely native-born. By 1930 Negroes constituted only 26.8 per cent of the total population of the state,[3] and only 1.2 per cent of the white population were foreign born.[4] However, according to one authority, there are about a half million white people in Virginia who may be classed as marginal from the standpoint of living standards, income, and ability.[5]

"Marginal" may be defined as referring to those who are so near the margin economically and culturally that they are on a bare subsistence plane of living. In general, it includes those with a gross annual income of less than $600 in normal

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[3] Howard W. Odum, Southern Regions of the United States, p. 482. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1936.

[4] W. E. Garnett and A. C. Seymour, op. cit., p. 14.

[5] W. E. Garnett, "What Will Virginia Do About It?" Virginia Journal of Education, XXVIII (April, 1935), 282.

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times, with less than a fifth grade education, with poor housing, and other unsatisfactory living conditions, and paying little or no taxes.[6]

Alexander points out that approximately one-half, or 1,100,000 of the people of Virginia, may be classified as living on a bare subsistence level. He also explains that in 1935 nearly two-thirds, or about 540,000, of Virginia's school population were members of marginal homes.[7] He makes the assertion that inadequate economic status and homes literally barren of cultural advantages, coupled with a type of education unsuited to the needs of these children, probably account for much of the retardation in Virginia's schools.[8]

Owing to economic causes and the failure of the schools to meet the needs of the public, 85 per cent of the children entering the first grade in Virginia drop out of school before they graduate from high school. Of the 731,043 children of school age in 1935, 147,484 were not enrolled in school and 237,777 did not attend school.[9]

The significance of Virginia's large near-peasant population to the well-being of the state is not generally recognized. It is also doubtful whether there is general appreciation of the close connection between the fact that Virginia

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[6] W. E. Garnett, "What Will Virginia Do About It?" Virginia Journal of Education, XXVIII (April, 1935), 282.

[7] Fred M. Alexander, "Education and Virginia's Culture", Southern Workman, LXVIII (March, 1939), 67-96.

[8] Ibid., p. 69.

[9] Ibid., p. 69.

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has so many marginal people and the fact that its rank is thirty-sixth in per capita wealth, thirty-ninth in per capita income, and forty-fourth in educational standing. These figures are interesting when compared with the fact that, in 1933, Virginia ranked comparatively low in home conveniences, thirty-fifth for water in the home, thirty-third for electricity in the home, and fortieth for those having telephones. Garnett and Seymour contend that it is more or less the custom for white people in the South to excuse such conditions and to evade the social responsibilities which they entail by saying that they are due to the presence of the large Negro population; however, there is also a large white population in most counties and some of the counties with fewest Negroes have the largest percentage of families with sub-marginal incomes.[10] It is also evident that these marginal families are in a bad way from the standpoint of housing, health, and nourishing foods.

The cultural and educational influences of other people and of the world outside are almost entirely absent from marginal homes. Radios, movies, books, newspapers, magazines, and means of communication from the outside world are almost unknown to marginal families. For the most part, families with marginal standards have little part in organized community life and lack

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[10] William Edward Garnett and Aja Clee Seymour, Virginia County Conditions and Trends of Social Significance, op. cit., p. 150.

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the stimulus of such contacts. They have little part in governmental affairs. About twenty-five per cent of Virginia's adult population votes. Many communities lack the standard types of community organizations. Where such organizations are present, usually less than one-fourth of the marginal families are affiliated with them. Considering the state as a whole, apparently not one white marginal family in twenty belongs to non-religious organizations such as the parent-teacher association, grange, farm bureau, ruritan clubs, women's clubs, or fraternal orders. Church young peoples' societies reach a relatively small percentage of these marginal young people, though such young people most need help from these organizations. In personal visiting, the contacts of marginal families are usually confined to less than a half-dozen families of kin or close neighbors. Low incomes necessitate very limited expenditures for pleasure.

Marginal families are producing considerably more than half of the oncoming generation. The 100,000 white marginal families have at least 100,000 more children than an equal number of families of higher standards. Apparently the birth rate of marginal families has not declined as much as the death rate. Research by Garnett reveals that "149 women over forty years of age from one marginal family clan of over 1000 families produced an average of 7.83 live children per family".[11]

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[11] W. E. Garnett, Virginia's Marginal Population--A State Challenge, p. 68. Bulletin of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Volume 30, No. 8. Blacksburg: May, 1937.

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This is three times the average size of families in the higher income brackets.

Apparently a relatively small per cent of those springing from marginal families rise to the higher economic and social status levels. It is also exceptional for representatives of the so-called better families to sink to the marginal status. Marriage across social strata lines is rare; hence new blood is rarely injected into the marginal stocks. A recent check of 1089 children from marginal families showed 63 per cent as having dropped out of school at the fifth grade or under. Only eight of these children finished high school, yet their county made a vigorous effort to enforce the compulsory attendance law. "Mental tests and teacher ratings of several thousand children from marginal families indicate that around 25 per cent are below normal mentally but the great majority compare favorably with children from families of average standing."[12]

The quality of the land operated by marginal farmers has been steadily declining. Furthermore, the generation to generation increase in such families has produced too great subdivision of farms in many areas, with consequent over-population and declining standards of living. This is especially true in areas where timber resources and other outlets for

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[12] W. E. Garnett, Virginia's Marginal Population--A State Challenge, op. cit., p. 10.

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supplementary non-farm work have declined and other forms of employment have not become sufficiently available. Garnett reports that white tenants increased 29.8 per cent in Virginia between 1910 and 1935 and white owners only .3 of one per cent.[13] The reduced demand for farm labor with increasing use of farm machinery, changing export demands, and other changes in the farm situation together with the unsettled industrial labor situation, has reduced urban demands for rural youth. Virginia has relatively few of the share croppers found in other southern states but a large number of a comparable group of wage laborers.

Probably the angle of the marginal population problem of most significance is the biological aspect. The 100,000 white rural marginal families of Virginia have at least 50,000 to 100,000 more children than an equal number of families of higher standards. Such data as are available indicate that a much smaller percentage climb the social-economic scale from the marginal status than is commonly thought to be the case.

Population Trends in Virginia.--It is apparent that down through the years Virginia has suffered a greater loss than most states from its sons and daughters going elsewhere to live. After the Civil War cataclysm the urge to rebuild shattered fortunes in more favorable surroundings took many

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[13] W. E. Garnett, Statement on the Tenancy and Marginal Population in Virginia, cited p. 4, Mimeographed Report No. 4 of the Virginia Agricultural Experiment Station. Blacksburg: April, 1937.

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Virginians to the newly developing plain states, and on to Washington and Oregon. Thus from pre-revolutionary times till the frontier curtain rang down in the eighteen nineties, Virginians by the tens of thousands hearkened to the siren call of the developing newer states. During the decade 1920 to 1930 more than 20,000 people migrated each year from Virginia.

Garnett interprets the consequences of this constant migration as follows:

> In general those with the most initiative tend to migrate most freely. The excessive migration of this element from Virginia for the past century and a half has undoubtedly been a contributing factor of no small significance in Virginia's large marginal population problem of today. The continual loss of so many of the more vigorous innovating individuals is to a considerable degree responsible for Virginia's ultra-conservatism of the past half century, and thus for many of the state's backward conditions and social maladjustments. The loss of potential leadership because of migration has been especially significant to rural districts.[14]

While it is true that Virginia has lost heavily through migration, there is another side of the picture not to be overlooked. If there had not been considerable migration in each generation, Virginia would be afflicted with even greater over-population than that from which some sections now suffer. When there is over-population, conditions tending to human erosion exist.

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[14] W. E. Garnett, Some Virginia Population Trends of General Significance, p. 13. Mineographed Report no. 9 of the Virginia Agricultural Experiment Station, Blacksburg; August, 1939.

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In five counties the improved farm land, that is, crop land and improved pasture, is five acres or less per capita of farm population, while in 72 counties it is between six and ten acres. Approximately half of the Virginia farms were under fifty acres in size in 1930 and over one-fourth under twenty acres. The average size of farms is greater in thirty other states than it is in Virginia. Garnett reports that "in many areas the generation to generation subdivision of farms has been carried too far, especially in sections not adapted to intensive agriculture."[15] He believes that, where farms become too small, living conditions tending to human erosion are likely to prevail unless supplementary non-farm work is available which, with the decreasing lumber industry, is frequently scarce where needed. He adds that, with only about one-fifth of the state's land under cultivation and only another fifth in pasture, it would appear that there was room for a large rural population increase without a lowering of rural living standards. However, according to the State Planning Board, approximately 30 per cent of the land area of the state is classed as marginal or submarginal, and evidence indicates that a good percentage of the 102,717 increase in the farm population in the 1930 to 1935 period were living under human erosion-producing conditions.

It is worthy of note that this increase in the farm

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[15] Ibid., p. 6.

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population took place in the face of the fact that a constantly declining number of farmers is needed. According to Garnett:

> The more corn per acre, more eggs per hen, more milk per cow which we now produce compared to our fathers and grandfathers means fewer workers for the same output. Furthermore we now have to put to other uses the millions of acres which in pre-automobile days were devoted to producing horse feeds. With the aid of constantly improving machines and the application of the constantly increasing body of scientific knowledge, on the average one farmer now produces two and a half times as much as his grandfather did 75 years ago and even a fourth more than he himself did twenty years ago.[16]

It is apparent that changing food habits, declining national population growth, and changed export demands for certain crops such as tobacco, all have a part in the present day picture. The impact of such forces helps to account for the fact that there were approximately 30,000 fewer farm workers in Virginia in 1930 than in 1920, yet with an increasing output. Another angle to the decrease in size of farms is that, "the more dense the population tends to be there is a corresponding greater probability of owner operation and support of community institutions."[17]

Leading Industries in Virginia.--A marked diversity of physical features and a wealth of natural resources, coupled with strategic manufacturing centers, contributes to a diversified industry in Virginia. While the greatest production has been in the manufacture of tobacco products, other industries such as furniture making and the textiles have been

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[16] W. E. Garnett, op. cit., p. 8.

[17] W. E. Garnett and A. C. Seymour, Virginia County Conditions and Trends of Social Significance, op. cit., p. 38.

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and are making big strides forward. Gee and Corson report that the total value of manufactured goods produced in Virginia in 1925 was $589,510,865.[18] Virginia produces more manufactured goods than the average for the Southern states but the national average is nearly twice as large as the Virginia product.[19]

Another important industry in Virginia is the construction of cars and the general repairs of steam railroad repair shops. In this industry Virginia leads all the Southern states, except Texas.

A third important industry in the Old Dominion is the manufacture of cotton goods. In this industry Virginia stands in thirteenth position in national ranking and is fifth among the Southern states.

In the production of paper and wood pulp, Virginia leads all the Southern states and stands thirteenth among all the states of the nation. Other leading industries in Virginia in 1925, as measured by the value of the product, were: iron and machinery, abattoirs, peanut and coffee roasting, silk mill products, and flour and grist mill products. Virginia takes rank among the principal coal producing states in the Union.

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[18] Wilson Gee and John J. Corson, A Statistical Study of Virginia, p. 78. Monograph No. 1. Charlottesville: University of Virginia Press, 1927.

[19] Ibid., p. 78.

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In the production of this basic mineral Virginia stands ninth among all the states and third among the Southern states.

Agriculture is and probably always will be the basic industry in Virginia.[20] More than two-thirds of the total land area of the state is in forests and uncultivated land.[21] The average population per square mile for the state as a whole, exclusive of the cities, was 40.6 in 1930, but the population ranges from less than 10.7 people per square mile to 60 per square mile. The average size of a Virginia county is 402.6 square miles, but the range is wide, from 31 square miles to 1,115.[22] Both the urban and the non-farm rural populations are increasing.

Social and Educational Implications of Economic Conditions

In Virginia a new group of approximately 10,000 rural and 5,000 urban young men are presenting themselves to society each year for some kind of employment.[23] In the field of agricultural work there has been a declining demand, while in other lines of employment the demand, even in flush times of the period of the 1920's, grew at a rate of only about 5,000 a year. How successfully to absorb each recurring year's human

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[20] W. E. Garnett and A. C. Seymour, Virginia County Conditions and Trends of Social Significance, op. cit., p. 36.

[21] Ibid., p. 9.

[22] Wilson Gee and John J. Corson, A Statistical Study of Virginia, op. cit., p. 113.

[23] William Edward Garnett and Aja Clee Seymour, Virginia County Trends and Conditions of Social Significance. op. cit., p. 149.

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crop under the conditions that now prevail, without prematurely displacing those already engaged in gainful employment, is one of the most challenging and puzzling problems that society faces.

An outlet for Virginia surplus population in the past has been migration to other states. The indications, are, however, that such large numbers of Virginia migrants cannot so easily find an opening in other states in the future as they have in the past. The competition for positions among the increasing number of natives of these other states will certainly be keener after natural resources have been further exploited. Events of recent years which have brought several complicating new sets of factors into Virginia's population picture are: (1) the increasing efficiency of agriculture, (2) the increasing efficiency and other changes in industry, and (3) the depression dislocations.

As a consequence of the existing situation in Virginia certain developments may be expected as follows: (1) longer stay of young people of all types under the parental roof without a great amount of profitable employment; (2) decrease in youth morale, which in many cases will lessen efficiency for life; (3) forcing of older people out of employment by younger competitors; (4) utilization of much marginal land that will afford only a bare existence; and (5) lowered standards of living for many, together with increasing approaches to peasantry.

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Apparently undesirable consequences from the foregoing situation are inevitable. Are there any possible measures of adjustment that will help mitigate their effect? It seems evident that there should be more serious study by the rank and file of the people on the subject of these significant social conditions to the end that there may be more intelligent support of needed adjustment. The present study is especially concerned with the part of the public school in such a program.

Should there be more adequate vocational guidance in both public schools and colleges, so that various fields of work may not be still worse over-crowded? If so, how can present efforts along this line be strengthened and made more effective?

Could the pressure for jobs be somewhat reduced by young people generally staying longer in school, and if such a procedure is desirable how can it be brought about in each community?

In recognition of the above social problems, school people of Virginia are attempting to assist in their solution. Not only is the revised curriculum concerned with the major functions of every-day life, but some of these problems are being attacked in a specific way.

Teachers are becoming aware of the rapid change that is taking place in American life and institutions. The implications for continuous adjustment due to the fact of change are

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being taken into account in the teaching program. The rapid rise of industrial life has changed the conditions of family, neighborhood, and community. It is evident that life in the cities is becoming increasingly complicated and impersonal, and crime and indifference to public affairs present new problems for public education.

The implications of these rapid changes for an effective educational program can no longer be ignored. The evidence shows clearly that traditional curriculums cannot meet the new conditions, since they were designed for a mode of living that no longer exists. School officials in Virginia now recognize that the content of the curriculum must be taken more directly from contemporary life, if the child is to adjust himself satisfactorily to present conditions.

It is recognized that, although textbooks play an important part, much content that is of vital value to the pupil in understanding the major phases of life going on about him is not contained in textbooks. New efforts of society to attack problems of conservation of life, property, natural resources, and the control of production through co-operative efforts of government and industry, of agriculture and commerce suggest new content for the curriculum if the pupil is to function effectively in society by reason of school experience.

A well established practice in the school curriculum is one that provides for organization around the information and skills contained in textbooks, with these constituting the

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major aims of the school. Concentration on these aims has resulted in the use of subject matter as an end in the student's education rather than as a means in achieving his education. With a social order growing in complexity and undergoing constant changes, the school's responsibility has long since extended much beyond the task of imparting to the pupils information and skills. It is now recognized that the school must assume the task of developing understandings and attitudes in the pupils. The revised Virginia curriculum now assumes this responsibility.[24] In addition, the curriculum stresses the major functions of social life. (See Appendix, p. 379).

Social-Educational Problems in Virginia.--According to the United States census figures for 1920 and 1930, Virginia reduced its percentage of illiterates in the age group ten years of age and over from 11.2 to 8.7 during that decade. An illiterate was defined in the 1930 census as "any person 10 years of age or over who is unable to read and write".[25] Table III gives actual figures regarding illiteracy in Virginia in 1930.

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[24] Tentative Course of Study for Elementary Schools, p. 3. State Board of Education Bulletin, Volume 19, No. 5. Richmond: Division of Purchase and Printing, March, 1937.

[25] United States Census Bureau, 1930. Washington: Government Printing Office.

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TABLE III

ILLITERACY IN VIRGINIA IN 1930 CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO RACE AND AGE

Age	White	Negro	Total
10 years and under....67,440		95,148	162,588
10 years to 20 years.. 9,883		12,225	22,108
21 years and over.....57,557		82,893	140,450
Totals	134,880	190,266	325,146

An examination of Table III shows that in 1930 Virginia had a total of 325,146 illiterate persons. Approximately 80 per cent of the total number of illiterates 10 years of age or under were classified as rural. "In 1931-32 the State Department of Education appropriated a small sum of money to pay those teachers who would conduct classes for illiterates under prescribed regulations. During the year approximately 3,555 men and women were taught to read and write. Most of these were Negroes."[26]

Another matter of mounting concern to Virginians is the increase of crime, especially among youths. In the year 1918 only 452 persons were commited to penal institutions in the state, while, in 1939, 1999 persons were imprisoned. "Of the 1999 prisoners, 60 per cent were not over 30 years of

[26] Expanding Education to Meet the Needs of Rural Community Life in Virginia, p. 16. State Board of Education Bulletin, Volume 22, No. 5. Richmond: Division of Purchase and Printing, 1940.

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age, and 42.2 per cent were between 18 and 24 years of age. The average age for the entire group was 24 years and 2 months."[27] Of the 816 white prisoners, 118, or 14.4 per cent, could neither read nor write. Of the 1,126 Negroes, 272, or 24 per cent, could neither read nor write. Only 13.2 per cent of the whites and 9.4 per cent of the Negroes had completed the seventh grade of school.[28]

The causes of the striking increase in commitments to the Virginia penal system are not entirely clear. The economic situation was probably a strong factor in the increase from 1928 to 1938. Greater vigilance in law enforcement in recent years may have been a factor. However, it is evident from the figures of the foregoing paragraph that crime is accompanied by, or possibly grows out of, low mentality and poor economic and educational conditions.

In April, 1938, 82,848 persons were registered with the Virginia Employment Service. A study revealed that 98 per cent of this number had never had vocational training and 3,312 could neither read nor write.[29]

In 1934 the State Department of Education undertook a state wide survey of out-of-school youth.[30] The report of this survey gives an estimate, based on the 1930 United States

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[27] Expanding Education to Meet the Needs of Rural Community Life in Virginia, op. cit., p. 17.

[28] Ibid., p. 17.

[29] Ibid., p. 18.

[30] Ibid., p. 21.

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Census and the 1935 Virginia School Census, that of 534,000 persons of ages 14 to 24 inclusive, about 300,000 were then out of school. The survey actually enumerated 102,300 individuals, which represents only about one-third of the total. Of the pupils enumerated, it was revealed that 40 per cent had not completed the seventh grade, and only 18 per cent had completed eleven or more grades. A considerable number of these pupils reported an intention to secure further schooling and indicated that they were especially interested in the vocational subjects, such as home economics, agriculture, trades and industry, and business. It was estimated that only about ten per cent of the out-of-school youth had any form of vocational training.[31]

The Virginia study[32] shows that most young people have three major concerns: (1) about getting a job that will give them a sense of security and permit them to marry at a normal age; (2) about getting an education that will better prepare them for earning a living and train them to understand and to participate effectively in our democratic government; and (3) about opportunities for wholesome recreation.

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[31] Expanding Education to Meet the Needs of Rural Community Life in Virginia, op. cit.,p.22.

[32] Out of School Youth in Virginia, State Board of Education Bulletin, Volume 20, No. 1. Richmond: Division of Purchase and Printing, 1937. Pp. 41.

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In Virginia it seems advisable for the modern consolidated high school to offer as many of the following opportunities as the resources and needs of the community suggest: (1) the usual program of academic studies, (2) home-making education, (3) agricultural education, (4) trade and industrial education, (5) business education, (6) health, (7) recreation, (8) music, and (9) art.

A school that can offer even a part of the services suggested above raises the level of culture and of living in the community of which it is a part. The majority of the Virginia schools have been handicapped by a lack of resources; consequently, their services to the community have been limited.

In Virginia there are approximately 560,000 workers engaged in vocations. It has been estimated that 100,000 of these workers are semi-skilled and could benefit considerably from trade and industrial education.[33] Virginia's program in 1938-39 reached only 12,241 of these people. The local communities employed 409 evening, part-time, or day-trade teachers, whose salaries were reimbursed in part from state and federal funds.

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[33] Public Schools in Virginia, p. 31. State Board of Education Bulletin, Volume 22, Number 4. Richmond: Division of Purchase and Printing, 1940.

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Summary

Virginia has a great variation in natural resources as well as in the topography of the various sections of the state. Agriculture is a basic industry. However, manufacturing, lumbering, and mining are important.

Approximately one-half of the population of the state may be classified as living on a bare subsistence level. Due to economic causes and the failure of the schools to meet the needs of the public, it has been estimated that 85 per cent of the children entering the first grade in Virginia drop out of school before they graduate from high school. The effect of Virginia's large near-peasant population on the well-being of the state is not generally recognized. Marginal families in Virginia are producing considerably more than half of the oncoming generation. The quality of the land operated by marginal farmers has been steadily declining, and the rapid increase in such families has produced too great subdivision of farms in many areas. About 30 per cent of the land area of the state is classified as marginal or submarginal.

There is not sufficient industry in Virginia to take care of the number of young people looking for employment each year. Migration to other states no longer seems to be an answer to this problem.

School officials in Virginia are aware of conditions and have modified the curriculum to meet existing needs. More

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attention is being given to the practical aspects of education and to the importance of actually placing education on the child's level. Accordingly, the next chapter deals with the revised curriculum and the changes embodied therein, a program calculated to meet the needs of a dynamic society.

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CHAPTER VII

THE REVISED CURRICULUM OF 1934

Introduction

As we have said in the foregoing chapter, educational leaders in Virginia became concerned over the type of work done in many of the schools of the state. Apparently the schools were not meeting the challenge of the times, and it appeared that children were not getting the type of instruction necessary to help them take their places in the complex society of a changing world. It was evident that in Virginia there was need for curriculum revision that would shift the emphasis from subject matter to the child. In 1931 a curriculum revision program was initiated in Virginia to meet this need.

An analysis of the rapidly changing times, together with the attendant problems, is contained in a bulletin published by the United States Office of Education. The implication is that, not only in Virginia but in all parts of the nation, children must be trained to meet these vital problems. Many educators believed that the traditional school curriculum was not adequate to train pupils for present day needs. The major issues, as outlined in 1937,

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were: (1) the conflict between two principles of social organization, between dictatorship and democracy; (2) the conflict between equality of opportunity and a condition of widespread unemployment; (3) the world-wide threat of devastating war; (4) the need for a closer understanding and friendship between the people of the twenty Latin American countries and the citizens of the United States; (5) the responsibility of the Federal Government and of the radio industry for the educational use of radio as the most powerful twentieth century development for mass communication; (6) the problem of the youthful criminal and juvenile delinquent as falling partly but definitely upon the agencies of education for solution; (7) in the face of appalling casualties, due to automobile accidents, an obligation to improve and extend safety education; (8) the material poverty of great masses of our people, exceeded only by the spiritual starvation they suffer for lack of good music, fine art, beauty, color, and inspiration; and (9) floods, dust storms, and drought dramatically forcing upon us the obligation for vastly more education for the conservation of natural resources. It is one of the obligations of education to see to it that in the future the genius of our people shall be employed in preventing rather than in meeting disaster, to meet the demand for policies

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under which American citizens in general may be given reasonably equal educational opportunities.[1]

The foregoing list of crucial issues in education contains the reasons for much of the recent curriculum revision activity in various places and, without doubt, applies to conditions that helped to bring about the present revised curriculum in Virginia. It should be noted that the new curriculum is calculated to enable the pupil to deal with many of these issues.

Objectives of the Revision Program.--The curriculum revision program moved toward a three-fold objective, centered around the child. These objectives were: (1) to produce the best courses possible for the children of the state, (2) to secure professional stimulation and growth on the part of the teachers through participation in the curriculum revision program, and (3) to develop an increased interest and knowledge on the part of the citizens in problems of present day education, to the end that fuller co-operation through wider understanding will result in a happier consummation of the aims of education.[2]

Additional objectives of the revision program, as

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[1] Crucial Issues in Education. United States Office of Education Phamphlet No. 74. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937. Pp. 19.

[2] Sidney B. Hall, Study Course for Virginia State Curriculum Program, p. 4. State Department of Education Bulletin, Vol. XIV, No. 4. Richmond: Division of Printing, 1932.

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stated in a bulletin of the State Department of Education were: (1) to improve classroom instruction in Virginia by encouraging teachers, through study of their own curriculum problems, to provide children with richer and more purposeful experiences in the classroom, (2) to aid teachers in developing local courses of study especially adapted to their needs, and (3) to develop State courses of study.[3]

An important objective of the revised curriculum, according to Cornelius J. Heatwole, was "the improvement of instruction in the classroom."[4] He listed certain defects of the traditional curriculum as follows: (1) instruction has too long been associated with subjects only and limited to what appears in a single textbook; (2) instruction has been too far removed from what goes on outside the school; (3) there has been too much regimentation of school children and not enough opportunity and encouragement for them; and (4) under the new courses, school work will proceed with functional aims reaching out into real life instead of aims and ends found only within the problem at hand.[5]

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[3] Organization for Virginia State Curriculum Program, p. 6. State Department of Education Bulletin, Vol. 14, No. 5. Richmond, Virginia: Department of Education, March, 1932.

[4] Cornelius J. Heatwole, "The Revised Curriculum," Virginia Journal of Education, XXVIII (January, 1935), 135.

[5] Ibid., p. 135.

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According to the new course of study, the aims and objectives of teaching are found in life's present needs and teachers will constantly be checking these ends against all the schoolroom work. This procedure is quite different from the old method of directing study and evaluating progress in school work in terms of subjects finished or the number of pages completed in a text. "The new course of study when put into state-wide operation in the schools of Virginia will result in turning out a product that will be equal to or even better, from the standpoint of knowledge of the fundamental subjects, than it was in the past."[6]

It should be noted that one objective of the new course of study is to make the work of the classroom a natural part of the child's life instead of an isolated and artificial proceeding for which the child has no use or sees no reason. (See Appendix, pp. 379-81).

The Curriculum Revision Program of 1931-34.--Following the survey staff's report of 1928 there was apparently no unusual educational activity in Virginia until July, 1931. At this time the Department of Public Instruction was reorganized.[7] A new superintendent assumed leadership of the state's schools. The activities of the department

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6 Cornelius J. Heatwole, op. cit., p. 136.

7 Study Course for Virginia State Curriculum Program, p.3. State Board of Education Bulletin, Vol. 4, No. 4. Richmond: Division of Purchase and Printing, 1932.

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were set up into several divisions according to their functions. One of these divisions, known as the Division of Instruction, was given responsibility to initiate and direct a state-wide curriculum revision program. This action was decided upon because it was believed that curriculum revision offered the most effective means of assisting teachers in providing better school experiences for children.[8]

Need for Curriculum Revision.--In the foreword to the "Study Course",[9] the state superintendent explained the necessity for revising the curriculum of the state. After calling attention to the significance of educational discoveries in the preceding twenty years, he stated:

> The school system which puts the child and his needs first cannot longer delay a revision of its program of work with a shift of emphasis from the subject to the child, a fact which the findings of modern educational science have caused to stand out in bold relief.[10]

Officials of the State Department were of the belief that the first concern of every true teacher was the improvement of instruction. Likewise, the first concern of the administrator should be the organization of his staff in such a way as to be of greatest service to his teachers in improving instruction. Other factors leading to the curriculum revision program were: (1) knowledge of

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[8] Virginia School Report, 1931-32, p. 14. Richmond: State Department of Education, 1932.

[9] Study Course for Virginia State Curriculum Program, op. cit., pp. 3-4.

[10] Ibid., p. 3.

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the fact that the child's environment was becoming more intricate, (2) a need for moral and social training, (3) demand for a curriculum providing boys and girls with richer school experiences, and (4) an increasing tendency to emphasize self activity.

It was indicated that the major purpose of the state curriculum program was to improve classroom instruction in the state, and that there was believed to be a pressing need for such improvement.

Implications in the Course of Study.--Some of the more far reaching implications of the course of study are: (1) much creative planning on the part of the teacher, (2) less administrative prescription through outlines of content to be taught, (3) broader foundation in subject matter on the part of the teacher, (4) greater breadth and depth of teacher interest in the problems of contemporary life, (5) a wide use of materials, both printed and environmental, (6) greatly enriched school libraries, (7) reduction of artificial lines between subject-matter fields, and (8) provision for a fundamental social orientation for the instructional program.

In both procedures and materials, provisions have been made for flexibility. Teachers are encouraged to use this flexibility to provide for gradual improvement in their teaching. However, sudden complete modifications

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of teaching programs were not encouraged. The viewpoint was expressed to the effect that change should be made only as rapidly as the teachers felt confident that she understood fully the proposed reorganization. The program was to be evolutionary rather than revolutionary in nature.

Installation of the Revised Curriculum

At the beginning of the fourth year after the initiation of the curriculum program, the tentative course of study was completed and the task of general installation faced the educators of the state. The installation phase of the program was carried on largely through the regular school organization of the state. Tentative plans were made and discussed at a conference of supervisors, principals, and superintendents before the opening of school. This conference was called by the state superintendent of public instruction and was held at the University of Virginia at Charlottesville. The instructors of this institution, and others in the state, together with experts from other areas, assisted the state directors in interpreting the revised material and in making plans for its introduction into the classrooms of Virginia.

The practice of holding regional conferences was carried over from the previous two years. In these conferences supervisors, principals, and superintendents met

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with the state director of instruction, the elementary supervisor of the state, the assistant elementary supervisor, the state director of libraries, and other helpers for the purpose of studying and discussing problems involved in installation.

State officials also rendered assistance by sending out illustrative materials, lists of references for teachers and pupils, and other types of suggestive mimeographed materials.

Analysis of the Revised Curriculum

The revised curriculum of 1934 is completely and radically different from previous state courses of study. In its underlying philosophy, psychology, aims, and objectives it ushers in a new day for the schools. It contains 560 pages divided into five main sections including: (1) introduction, (2) grade materials, (3) subject matter materials, (4) general teaching procedures, and (5) supplementary materials.

Previous to this time all courses of study provided by the state had been subject matter courses, that is, the work centered around each given subject in the traditional manner. (See Appendix, pages 349-76). The revised program of 1934 has sometimes been called the core

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curriculum, owing to the fact that it is organized around a central core, including what are called the major functions of social life. (See Appendix, p.379). There are eleven of these major functions: (1) protection and conservation of life, property, and natural resources, (2) production of goods and services and distribution of the returns of production, (3) consumption of goods and services, (4) communication and transportation of goods and people, (5) recreation, (6) expression of aesthetic impulses, (7) expression of religious impulses, (8) education, (9) extension of freedom, (10) integration of the individual, and (11) exploration.

The foregoing major functions of social life run like a thread through all seven grades of the elementary school. Each grade has for its work of the year a center of interest. The major functions of social life are developed in a manner suitable to the grade level at which they are taught. The centers of interest for each of the seven grades, in regular order from the first through the seventh are: (1) home and school life, (2) community life, (3) adaptation of life to environmental forces of nature, (4) adaptation of life to advancing physical frontiers, (5) effects of invention and discoveries upon our living, (6) effects of machine production upon our living, and (7) social provision for co-operative living. (See Appendix, pp.379-81).

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The plan for analyzing this course of study is based on the system employed by the United States Office of Education.[11]

Controls of Behavior.--A definite attempt to develop the personality of the pupil is evident in the curriculum. Under the heading, "aims of education," twenty-six emotionalized attitudes are listed; for example, the attitude of inquiry, the attitude of creative self expression, and the attitude of self cultivation. Sub-headings, interpreting the meaning of each main objective, are listed.

Twenty-four understandings are included, which it is intended for the pupil to acquire. They involve such matters as: (1) the understanding of the interdependence of all forms of life, and (2) the understanding of the necessity of man's adaptation to changing conditions. The object is to develop the pupil's reasoning ability, instead of simply to impart facts.

Seventeen special abilities to be acquired by the pupils are listed. These special abilities include: (1) the ability to read, (2) the ability to speak, (3) the ability to write, and others of a similar nature.

Form of Organization.--As already indicated, the revised

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[11] Bernice Elizabeth Leary, Survey of Courses of Study and Other Curriculum Materials Published Since 1934. United States Office of Education Bulletin, No. 31. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937. Pp. v+185.

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curriculum is composed of five parts. The purpose of the introductory section is to acquaint the reader with the fundamental issues involved. Section 2, entitled Grade Materials, is so organized as to give the reader an overview of the general theme of each grade, with the personality traits and understandings to be developed.

Section 3, entitled Subject Matter Materials, lists for each of the broad fields such as social studies, language arts, etc., the point of view, an abilities chart, and suggestions to teachers.

Section 4, includes teaching procedures of a more general nature than those listed in Section 3. Suggestions for making books, publishing periodicals, exhibiting, developing a school museum, and doing things of a similar nature are given.

Section 5, entitled Supplementary Materials, includes additional helps to teachers for making grade combinations, helping handicapped children, evaluating work, etc. Suggestions for the elementary school library and an inventory of publishers are also included.

The abilities chart, a graphic representation of the extent of certain abilities to be developed for each subject through the seven grades, gives the reader a bird's eye view of the emphasis to be placed on numerous desirable abilities

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and skills at all phases of the pupil's development. Nine of these charts are included. The entire course of study, although detailed, is comprehensively organized.

Time Allotments.--Definite time allotments are not given. Centers of interest are converted into aspects of the center of interest. For these aspects, activities are suggested which may lead to units of work. The units of work are to be completed in accordance with the development of the class, not in a given time, but accordingly as the class demonstrates mastery of the work at hand.

Types of Reading Material Listed.--A great wealth of reading material is listed for each grade, some primarily for pupil use, and some for the teachers. Books suggested for pupils include both supplementary reading and others to be read chiefly for pleasure and amusement. References for teachers also include supplementary reading books as well as professional literature.

Additional background material, such as victrola records, magazines, and folk songs, is included. Detailed lists of commercial companies furnishing free or inexpensive materials are included for the convenience of teachers.

Instructional Aids.--Included in Section 5, under the heading of supplementary materials, is a list of instructional aids such as: (1) library books for first purchase for

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Virginia elementary schools, (2) children's catalogue, (3) graded list of books for children, (4) periodicals, (5) general reference books for elementary grades, and (6) directory of publishers.

In this section instructions are also given for the making by teachers and pupils through class activities of such things as books, periodicals, museums, bulletin boards, maps, posters, graphs, plaster Paris plaques, friezes, motion and talking pictures, miniature shows, and marionette performances.

Lists of such teaching aids as victrola records, and visual and sound films, are included in Section 2, with grade materials for each given grade.

Use of Community Resources.--Full provision is made for the utilization of community resources through activities such as making community surveys. Various types and kinds of surveys are suggested, many of them requiring considerable research and reading on the part of the pupils.

Excursions and field trips which will enable the pupils to make a study of community resources are suggested. These excursions and field trips include making first-hand contact with industrial plants, social and civic institutions, farms, gardens, zoos, stores, post offices, railroad terminals, filling stations, factories, shops, museums, offices, banks,

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hospitals, dairies, hotels, airports, courthouses, parks, churches, theaters, broadcasting stations, wharves, schools, and places of historic interest.

Suggestions are made to teachers for planning for these trips, as well as for conducting effective discussions following the trips.

Opportunities for utilization of community resources are included in suggested procedures for beautifying the school and home environment. These activities are so planned that they will be of an educational as well as a practical nature.

Methods and Procedures.--As already indicated, the revised curriculum is built around centers of interest for each grade. The centers of interest are divided into aspects. Under each aspect are listed experiences of children related to the work at hand. Numerous activities are suggested which may be carried out as the teacher and pupils may decide. The work can be carried out either as a project, or as a unit of work. An explanation follows:

> The scope of work and desirable sequence are provided by the centers of interest for the respective grades. The center of interest is the general guide for delimiting the work of the grade and the aspects of the center of interest are points selected for special emphasis. This limitation should be interpreted liberally and should not restrict any teacher unduly. If the situation arises that major functions other than those selected need to be developed, the teacher should feel free to do so.

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It should be noted especially that the aspects of the centers of interest do not represent units of work to be taught. The aspects selected as points for emphasis may be organized in a variety of combinations in units of work. The teacher should check his plans carefully to see that all aspects of the centers of interest have received some emphasis during the year's program of instruction.[12]

Rigid, formal type lessons are not included; but, numerous activities are suggested with explicit instructions for carrying out these activities. The instructions are more in the nature of suggestions than demands that the work be done in a certain way.

Definite provision is made for the correlation of subject matter to the end that the child may develop an integrated personality. The curriculum does not include separate subjects as such but rather provides for broad fields of instruction such as language arts and social studies. Provision for correlation and integration is one of the main characteristics of this curriculum. An illustration is appropriate here:

To the teacher the revised courses of study should mean the changing of emphasis from the subject to the child. Her measure of success will no longer be confined to the number of children who can pass examinations in certain subjects. She is eagerly watching the whole development of a human being, and she will be more pleased over a gain the pupil has made in some important character trait like self control or in some new appreciation, such as the appreciation of beauty in nature, than in the mastery of the binomial theorem.[13]

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[12] Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools, State Department of Education Bulletin, Volume XIX, No. 5, p. 145. Richmond: Division of Purchase and Printing, 1937.

[13] An Interpretation of the Curriculum Revision Program Proposed for Virginia Schools, p. 13. State Department of Education Bulletin, (Miscellaneous Publication). Richmond: Division of Purchase and Printing, March, 1935.

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Under the revised curriculum, the history teacher will be as ready to help a pupil in the correction of faulty speech as in the clearing up of some fact in history. "Evidence that a pupil has started to do some independent thinking will give a teacher, who grasps the point of view behind the curriculum, more satisfaction than some impressive feat of memorizing."[14]

In dealing with problems of remedial drill and pupil diagnosis, it should be noted that "drill is carried on as much as possible on a case work basis, after diagnosing the special needs of each pupil; and the drill is more effectively motivated because each pupil knows his own weaknesses and is made to see some purpose in and need for it."[15]

The discussion of general teaching procedures in Section IV of the tentative course of study should be helpful and stimulating to teachers. It provides information in regard to: (1) presenting assembly programs, (2) making book reviews, (3) arranging bulletin boards, (4) organizing clubs, (5) collecting specimens, (6) debating, (7) demonstrating, (8) dramatizing, (9) making excursions, (10) group discussion, and other procedures.[16]

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[14] An Interpretation of the Curriculum Revision Program Proposed for Virginia Schools, op. cit., p. 13.

[15] Ibid., p. 14.

[16] Ibid., p. 15.

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The collection of the kind of materials suggested in the revised curriculum by both teacher and pupils is an important part of the proposed plan and a part that requires careful planning. The centers of interest can be properly interpreted only by extensive reading and studying on the part of both teacher and pupils. Such a practice requires a higher order of planning than is necessary in the traditional practice of relying on a single text.

Adaptation to Particular Needs.--Special provisions are made for teaching various types of atypical children, including the mentally subnormal, the mentally superior, the speech handicapped, the visually handicapped, pupils with lowered vitality, the socially unadjusted, and the crippled. The revised curriculum, by its very nature and flexibility, presents certain definite opportunities for dealing with various types of children. For instance, in the case of subnormal children, it is recommended that from a third to a half of their time be given to manual activities. In the primary grades this work is to be done in the regular grade activity or unit; in the other grades, if he stays in school, it is suggested that extra time be put on the arts and crafts, pre-vocational and vocational courses.[17]

At the opposite end of the scale provision is made for dealing with the mentally superior child. Teachers are advised

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[17] Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools, op. cit., p. 467.

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that "the mentally superior child should have access to reference books, poetry, science materials, encyclopedias, dictionaries, atlases, and maps.[18] Furthermore, it is considered desirable for the mentally superior child to have opportunity for manipulation, construction, and designing so that his judgment will be checked by concrete situations."

In this program the socially unadjusted child is not neglected. It is maintained that unadjusted children often have low mental ability. "When this is ascertained and the child is given the type of school work that is suited to the mentally retarded, a great deal of the former strain on the child will be removed."[19] The suggestion is made that the unadjusted child be allowed to sit in the home room with children of his own age, but that he be sent to a lower grade for arithmetic and reading and be given the easier and more mechanical parts in the class project. The teacher should see that he occasionally has some successful contribution to make to the class work.[20]

Definite suggestions are made for other types of atypical children, indicating how they may be dealt with under the revised curriculum. The following quotation emphasizes this point.

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[18] Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools, op. cit., p. 468.

[19] Ibid., p. 481.

[20] Ibid., p. 481.

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It will be noted that in carrying out this idea of a course of study, a wide variety of materials has been suggested. This gives the course great flexibility. No particular materials, activities, or procedures are prescribed. Each teacher employs such materials from the course of study as fit his situation or such other materials as may occur to him as being more appropriate than those in the course of study.[21]

Suggested Procedures in Testing.--Formal tests are not definitely suggested as a part of each unit of work, but as each aspect of a center of interest is completed an evaluation period is recommended. Self evaluation by the pupils with help from the teacher is urged. In this evaluation, the matter of improvement in attitudes is considered of importance.

The attitude of those who made the curriculum is that evaluation is a continuous process, and that once the teacher sees evaluation as a continuous process he endeavors constantly to train his pupils in critical thinking. They also believe that evaluation is both an individual and a co-operative process. The individual pupil is urged to find his own proof and to make his own criticisms. At the same time he is encouraged to share his thinking with others in order that he may acquire the technique of co-operative thinking.[22]

Tests are believed to be of assistance in refining observation, especially in the field of abilities. Some have been devised to test knowledge and skills, but they have

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[21] Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools, op. cit., p. 27.

[22] Ibid., p. 499.

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disadvantages for the average classroom teacher. "The first disadvantage is that changes of attitudes determine pupils' behavior. The second lies in the fact that a teacher needs to measure the growth of pupils continuously rather than at intervals."[23] Accordingly, teachers are encouraged to devise tests of their own.

A bibliography of standard tests is included in the course of study for the benefit of teachers. In addition, samples of essay tests, multiple choice, and matching tests are included in section 5 of the tentative course of study. Information concerning usable tests and scales is listed for elementary subjects.

Basic Philosophy of the Revised Curriculum

As previously indicated in this study, the makers of the curriculum were not interested in a course of study which emphasized the acquisition of facts and subject matter alone, but were concerned with a type of instruction that would prepare the pupils for the duties and responsibilities of citizenship in a changing world.

The point of view basic to the curriculum is well stated in the following:

> The public schools are regarded as the chief agency of society for teaching children to carry on that part of our social heritage which now seems valuable and necessary, and

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[23] Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools, op. cit., p. 499.

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also as agencies through which children are to be made constructively critical of this heritage. They are to be prepared to appreciate the weak points as well as the strong points in existing conditions. The courses of study describe this function of the public schools as "the perpetuation and recreation of society." Evolutionary rather than revolutionary changes are contemplated in "man's constant endeavor to improve his living conditions."[24]

The idea of re-creating society is noteworthy, since in totalitarian states perpetuation of the existing regime or condition is the apparent chief purpose of education. It can readily be seen that where the idea of re-creating society motivates educators the type of instruction will be very different from that in countries where perpetuation of existing conditions is the sole or main motive.

The aims of education, as found in the present revised curriculum, include twenty-six emotionalized attitudes, twenty-four understandings, and seventeen special abilities. It is believed that an important aim of education is the development of citizenship, and that in order to be a good citizen one must have proper attitudes, understandings, and abilities.

The makers of the revised curriculum were concerned with training the pupils to orient themselves in a changing world. They recognized the impossibility of predicting the kind of society children will be living in even a few years hence, and saw that the public schools must prepare pupils to make

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[24] Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools, p. 1. State Department of Education Bulletin, Vol. XIX, No. 5, March, 1937. Richmond: Division of Purchase and Printing, 1937.

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wise adjustments to the changes which seem socially desirable, as well as to help in making such changes.[25]

Recognition of the individual and of a definite purpose to adjust the school to his needs is a characteristic of the curriculum. It recognizes the fact that individuals differ greatly in interests, abilities, attitudes, understandings, habits, and skills. The following paragraph clearly sets forth the philosophy of the tentative, revised curriculum on this point:

> The problem of the school is to encourage the personality, talents, and interests of each individual, except where there is conflict with the inescapable fact that individuals must learn to live as contributing members of social groups. This necessitates adjusting school procedures to recognize properly these individual differences and at the same time to provide in the curriculum for experiences demanding co-operation.[26]

The type of procedure suggested in the courses provides countless opportunities for both the growth of the pupil as an individual and for his development as a contributing member of the social group.

Activities Versus Subject Matter.--One of the great issues among educators at the present time is whether the basis of curriculum organization shall be activities or subject matter. The idea that "one learns to do by doing" takes a prominent place in the present curriculum. In some schools an attempt is made to teach home economics and agriculture by having the pupils carry on a variety of home

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[25] An Interpretation of the Curriculum Revision Program Proposed for Virginia Schools, op. cit., p. 4.

[26] Ibid., p. 5.

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The term curriculum is defined in the course of study as "the actual experiences that children have in school under the guidance of teachers." It is notable that this is much broader than the traditional concept of subject matter arranged in logical sequence, since it includes all of the activities in the school.[27]

Proponents of the activities curriculum state that a curriculum is a more or less closely integrated and related series of activities. Followers of the subject matter curriculum consider it as a grouping of courses representing the racial experience of the past, leading to a definitely stated point of achievement. Friends and advocates of both views have lined up in support of their favorite contention.

"The Virginia program takes rather a middle ground, recognizing subject matter as the storehouse of racial experience and the basic and necessary part of the curriculum, and activities as the means by which pupils are to realize the learning goals."[28]

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[27] An Interpretation of the Curriculum Revision Program Proposed for Virginia Schools, op. cit., p. 5.

[28] "Virginia Curriculum Ready for the Classroom Teacher," Virginia Journal of Education, XXIX (October, 1934), 3.

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Psychological Basis of the Revised Curriculum

The basic psychological principles underlying the revised curriculum are: (1) learning comes through experience; (2) interest and purpose aid learning; (3) we seek the things that satisfy and avoid the things that annoy; (4) the mind cannot be strengthened like a muscle, merely by exercise; and (5) the behavior of the whole cannot be determined by studying its parts. These principles are of sufficient importance to warrant further analysis.

The tentative, revised curriculum accepts the theory that mere memorizing of unrelated facts and mere physical activity do not usually result in a form of learning which is worth while. It accepts John Dewey's philosophy that real learning comes through experiences which result in actual changes in conduct or in mental attitudes. According to this theory, memorizing more or less meaningless material or merely going through the motions of some physical activity without interest or purpose is not the kind of experience through which the conduct, the point of view, or the attitudes of people are changed. "The theory involves the idea that a child must have meaningful purpose and must feel the need of the mental or physical activity in which he engages if it is to result in profitable learning."[29]

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[29] An Interpretation of the Curriculum Revision Program Proposed for Virginia Schools, op. cit., p. 6.

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The traditional school has been chiefly concerned with externals, that is, administrative organization, textbooks, and other problems incident to school routine. It was assumed that the pupil would adjust himself to these external conditions as he found them. The present curriculum is concerned with subjective problems: the pupil himself, his likes and dislikes, and past experiences and interests. Much of our school work in the past has not been motivated by purpose or interest on the part of the child. The position of the revised curriculum on this point is clearly stated in the following:

> Interest on the part of a pupil is probably going to be inseparably associated with the things he does in which there is some meaningful purpose, and interest is a potent factor in facilitating learning. When a child is told to "learn" something because it is a part of the day's lesson, something in which there is no real interest or purpose, except that of following the teacher's instructions, the results are very dubious.[30]

The revised curriculum endeavors to bring to children meaning, purpose, and interest in their school work. It seeks to make pupils feel a definite need for the things done in school through making the curriculum consist largely of activities that actually function in life. Through this curriculum children are expected to work harder than ever before, and to engage in hard and often unpleasant drill work and exercises, but it is expected that they will do the work because they clearly see it as the only way to achieve the important purposes they wish to achieve. "The effect of these

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[30] An Interpretation of the Revised Curriculum Program Proposed for Virginia Schools, op. cit., p.6.

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unpleasant tasks which might be psychologically bad without the purpose is overshadowed by the satisfying effect of accomplishing the purpose."[31]

For many years the faculty theory, which conceived of the mind as divided into compartments, was predominant. The idea that memorizing verses would improve the faculty of memory persisted until Thorndike and others proved it false. The position of the revised curriculum on this point is as follows:

> We should be concerned with the development of the whole child and not with only some restricted part of a child or a child's mind. . . .
>
> We now know that there is no particular virtue or magic in an ancient language for mind training which other subjects do not possess, and that our teaching of Latin and other subjects can no longer be justified wholly on a "mind training" basis. The psychologists have shown that undergoing some meaningful and satisfying experience is the thing which best promotes learning.[32]

The general theory underlying the curriculum is that the human being is an intricate organism in which the parts do not act alone and in which behavior is something more than a mere summation of the separate action of these parts. This theory is clearly set forth in the following statement:

> The approach should be from the whole situation to its respective elements or parts and back again to the whole situation. Memorization of isolated facts and mastery of unrelated skills do not assure desirable modifications of

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[31] An Interpretation of the Revised Curriculum Program Proposed for Virginia Schools, op. cit., p. 7.

[32] Ibid., p. 8.

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behavior. Attitudes are changed by reorganizing whole behavior patterns, not by piecemeal additions to them.[33]

Evaluation of the Revised Curriculum

Evaluation of the product of education is always a difficult matter, since the schools produce a product which, in its very nature, is intangible. It is a relatively easy matter to measure the product of the farm in terms of bushels of grain or some other unit of material value. In like manner the product of the factory can well be evaluated in terms of units or articles produced on the material basis of quantity and quality. But the product of the schools, boys and girls who have been exposed to a given course of training, can hardly be measured in terms of tangible materials. The main purpose of the schools has been to develop the intellect of the pupils together with certain other desirable objectives such as the moral, physical, and spiritual, the emphasis placed on the latter objectives being determined by the nature and type of the school. However, in the traditional school, development of the intellect was almost universally agreed to be the one major objective.

If evaluation in the traditional school is a difficult matter, it becomes obviously much more difficult in a situation where the revised curriculum is in operation. This is true because, under the revised curriculum, some of the important

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33 Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools, p. 1. Vol. XIX, No. 5, March, 1937. Richmond: Division of Purchase and Printing, 1937.

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objectives are the development of personality, right attitudes, and appreciations.

Few accurate tests for measuring personality traits are available, and therefore, their use is not widespread in the public elementary schools. Consequently, much of the evaluation of the revised curriculum to date must necessarily be more or less of a subjective nature. One of the most extensive surveys yet made was conducted by the State Department of Education at the close of the 1937 session. The purpose was to obtain the judgment of the supervisor on the effectiveness of various phases of the revised curriculum. Approximately 5,300 rural teachers from 72 of the 100 counties reported at the end of the session. The reports of each teacher were based on the combined subjective judgment of the teacher and the supervisor. Approximately 200,000 children were involved in the report. The findings of this report are listed in Table IV.[34]

An examination of Table IV discloses that greater improvement has developed in pupil enthusiasm and interest in school work than in any of the other items listed. Marked improvement is detected in degrees of co-operative effort expended. It is significant that attendance at school, while undergoing less change than anything else mentioned, has improved considerably.

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[34] D. W. Peters, "A State Program of Curriculum Development and the Rural Schools", Virginia Journal of Education, XXXII (October, 1938), 17.

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TABLE IV

JUDGMENT OF 5,300 VIRGINIA TEACHERS INDICATING HOW TRAITS OF 25,000 PUPILS WERE AFFECTED BY THE NEW CURRICULUM, June, 1937

Traits	Per Cent Changed Favorably	Per Cent Unfavorably	No Change
Pupils' enthusiasm and interest in school work...	87	1	12
Amount of effort expended.	77	2	21
Extent of pupil initiative and independence in study.	77	2	21
Interest in and understanding of contemporary problems.....	69	5	26
Degree of co-operative effort expended.....	80	3	17
Pupil consideration for others.....	78	4	18
Pupil responsibility for school activities.....	77	3	20
Participation in physical education activities.....	67	4	29
Attitude toward personal health habits.....	78	3	19
Attitude toward safety of self and others.....	76	4	20
Participation in music activities.....	74	6	20
Participation in and enjoyment of art activities....	77	4	19
Pupils' concern for their school progress.....	74	4	22
Mastery of skills.....	73	2	25
Attendance at school.....	55	3	42

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Actually the figures presented in Table IV indicate a decided improvement in all of the items listed. The fact that mastery of skills shows a decided improvement is significant because there has been some doubt concerning the effectiveness of the revised curriculum in providing for mastery of fundamentals. However, it should be remembered that these figures are the result of subjective judgment.

The State Department of Education has checked periodically to determine what is happening to the common tools of learning in a state-wide situation where such major curriculum changes have been made. Accordingly, standard achievement tests are administered once each year or so to a random sample of approximately ten thousand pupils, grades 4 through 8. Half of the pupils so tested are selected from schools that have made the most notable progress toward the achievement of the objectives of the curriculum program. In Table V these pupils are included in the experimental group. The remaining half of the pupils are selected from schools that have made little or no progress in the revision program. Table V lists these pupils in the control group. It is doubtful if the number of pupils examined is large enough to permit the drawing of accurate conclusions regarding the comparative merits of the new and the old curriculum in the tool subjects, but the results of the study indicate that children in the experimental program, where schools are attempting to follow the revised curriculum, are consistently ahead of the children in the

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TABLE V[35]

COMPARATIVE ACHIEVEMENT OF TEN THOUSAND VIRGINIA PUPILS UNDER THE NEW AND THE OLD CURRICULUMS, 1938

	Experimental Group	Control Group
Fourth Grade	96	92
Fifth Grade	98	97
Sixth Grade	101	99
Seventh Grade	120	106
Eighth Grade	120	111

control group, where little or no effort is made to follow the revised program. In the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades the figures are so close as to be of little significance, but in the seventh and eighth grades the experimental group shows a decided advantage. Figures listed are average scores for each grade.

Additional data from the State Department of Education, of a similar nature but not derived under controlled conditions, indicate that approximately 180,000 pupils under observation have been making normal progress or better in the tool subjects in all grades. These data are taken entirely from pupils in the rural schools.[36]

Certain definite gains that can be attributed to the use

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[35] A State Program of Curriculum Development and the Rural Schools, op. cit., p. 19.

[36] A State Program of Curriculum Development, ibid., p. 19.

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of the revised curriculum in the state are as follows:

> (1) County boards of education in Virginia are now spending on rural elementary school libraries approximately eight times as much as was being expened annually for the same purpose in 1931.
> (2) There has been a marked increase in elementary supervision. This in the face of the fact that no change of financial policy with respect to supplying local aid for supervision has been made. In 1930 we had 43 elementary supervisors serving in 31 counties; at the present time we have 102 elementary supervisors in 83 of the 100 counties. . . .
> (3) Another outcome of the program has been the tremendous professional stimulation for thousands of teachers through participation in the development of tentative courses of study which serve as source books for teachers and general guides to teaching.[37]

It is quite probable that the indirect results of a curriculum revision program so far reaching as the present one in Virginia may have a decided effect on the educational policies of the state. The foregoing quotation strengthens this belief.

Educational Activity in Virginia Since 1934

Since publication of the 1934 State Course of Study, educational activity has been centered on: (1) putting the course of study into operation in the classrooms of the state and (2) adapting it to the peculiar needs of each local system.

Every facility offered by the state has been used by conscientious teachers in their effort to understand the philosophy of the new course of study and to learn how to make it function in the classroom. Summer sessions, extension courses, in-service curriculum construction work, and individual study have been possible for those teachers really interested in

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[37] Ibid., p. 19.

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gaining a knowledge of the underlying philosophy of the curriculum. Much energy has been spent by the State Department of Education in individual and collective effort to make it increasingly possible for teachers to carry out the lofty philosophy and high purpose of the new curriculum. In spite of all this effort, it is the writer's observation and opinion that many of the teachers do not understand the underlying philosophy of the revised curriculum. The data of Table VI, gathered by the State Department of Education at the end of the 1940-41 session, tend to bear out this inference.

TABLE VI

REPORT BY 7,661 VIRGINIA TEACHERS INDICATING THE PERCENTAGES USING THE ELEMENTARY COURSE OF STUDY IN MAY, 1941

Per cent of 7,661 white elementary teachers who reported that they were using the course of study in a systematic way	52
Per cent of 7,661 white elementary teachers in counties with supervision who use the elementary course of study	59
Per cent of 7,661 white elementary teachers in counties without supervision who use the elementary course of study	35

An analysis of Table VI makes it clear that slightly more than half of the elementary teachers in Virginia were using the revised curriculum in May, 1941. It is also evident that lack of proper supervision was an important reason for not using the curriculum.

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TABLE VII

REPORT BY 7,661 VIRGINIA TEACHERS INDICATING PERCENTAGES NOT USING THE ELEMENTARY COURSE OF STUDY WITH REASONS FOR NON USE, MAY, 1941

Per cent of elementary teachers who reported course of study not practical for use	8
Per cent of elementary teachers who reported better outcomes without use of course of study	4
Per cent of elementary teachers who reported that they lack assistance in using course of study	4
Per cent of elementary teachers who reported that they came from another State and were unfamiliar with course of study	1
Per cent of elementary teachers who reported that course of study has not been distributed for use	1

An examination of Table VII indicates that, of those teachers who reported that they did not use the course of study, the largest group, 8 per cent, maintained that the course of study was not practical for use. A relatively small number, 4 per cent, reported that they obtained better results without its use, while 4 per cent stated that they lacked assistance in using the course.

The teachers were requested by the State Department to indicate modifications which they believe should be made in the present program of studies. An analysis of the suggestions revealed that teachers, in sufficient numbers to suggest possible trends, had a feeling of need for: (1) illustrative teaching procedures, (2) materials dealing with best ways to

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develop skills , and (3) materials dealing with child and community problems.

Figures released by the research division of the State Department of Education at Richmond tell a story of substantial educational progress in Virginia during the three years following 1934, the year in which the revised curriculum was introduced into the schools of the state.

An analysis of Table VIII reveals phenomenal progress in capital outlay and expenditures for school libraries during this period. Substantial progress was also made in various other important school activities, as is clearly shown in Table VIII. Friends of the revised curriculum have been quick to maintain that much of this progress has been due indirectly to enthusiasm caused by the new curriculum. It is probable that some of the gains were produced by causes other than the curriculum. It should be safe to assume, however, that much of the increased interest in school libraries has been created by the emphasis that the revised curriculum places on reading, both for pleasure and for knowledge.

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TABLE VIII[38]

COMPARATIVE EXPENDITURES FOR BASIC EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES IN VIRGINIA DURING THE PERIOD 1934-37

Item	Record for 1933-34	Record for 1936-37	Per Cent Increase	Per Cent Decrease
Capital outlay.....	$ 1,094,016.52	$3,286.237.90	200	
Total Value School property.....	66,698,167.00	63,689,633.00	10	
Libraries.....	47,827.92	135,855.50	184	
Vocational education	536,871.89	847,279.64	58	
Transportation.....	1,172,128.99	1,572,830.54	34	
Number pupils transported.....	93,822	131,038	40	
Cost per pupil transported.....	$12.94	$12.00		7
Total school expenditures.....	21,077,120.49	25,747,668.80	22	
Per capita cost instruction, operation and maintenance.....	29.88	34.34	15	
Health service.....	68,983.30	104,482.59	20	
Average salaries of all teachers.....	692.00	773.00	12	
Enrollment.....	585,657	587,486	.3	
Attendance.....	586,845	488,692	.5	

Curriculum Commission of 1938

In 1938 a special commission was appointed by the governor to study the curriculum of the public schools of the state.[39] The committee made its report in April, 1941. Certain findings of the commission of interest to this study are: (1) Since

[38] C. E. Myers, Department of Research, State Board of Education, Richmond, Virginia.

[39] "Report of the Commission on the Curriculum," Virginia Journal of Education, XXXIV (May, 1941), 302-3.

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approximately 70 per cent of high school graduates in Virginia will not go to college, it is evident that a great majority of high school pupils are not receiving the type of training adapted in a practical way to fit them best for entering life after school. (2) The public school curriculum is still too narrow to meet the present needs of youth. Thousands of young people have come to maturity disillusioned because of the inadequacy of their education. (3) For the year 1937, jail committals in Virginia averaged one to every 30 persons, which is four times the rate for the country at large.

The commission recommended that vocational education in the handicrafts and adult education be added to the curriculum throughout the state.[40] It was further recommended that in order to provide the teaching personnel to train Virginia's youth in vocational, trade, and handicraft courses, the state institutions of higher learning should offer suitable courses for this purpose.[41]

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[40] Ibid., p. 303.

[41] Report of the Commission on the Curriculum, op. cit., p. 303.

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Summary

This chapter has dealt with: (1) the installation of the revised curriculum of 1934, (2) the analysis of the revised curriculum, (3) basic philosophy of the revised curriculum, (4) the psychological basis of the curriculum, (5) the evaluation of the present curriculum, and (6) educational activity in Virginia since 1934.

The installation phase of the program was carried on largely through the regular school organization of the state. Regional conferences were held in which principals and superintendents met with the officials of the State Department of Education. State officials rendered additional assistance by sending out literature.

The analysis of the curriculum has been presented on the basis of a plan recommended by the United States Office of Education. This plan examines such phases of the curriculum as: (1) controls of behavior, (2) form of organization, (3) time allotments, (4) types of reading material, (5) instructional aids, (6) use of community resources, (7) methods and procedures, (8) adaptation to particular needs, and (9) suggested procedures in testing.

It was noted, that on many of the foregoing points, the revised curriculum provides definite assistance for teachers.

With reference to basic philosophy, it seems apparent that the present curriculum is concerned with developing proper attitudes, understandings, and abilities. It is believed that such training will prepare the pupil for more efficient citizenship. Special emphasis is placed on the importance of adjusting the school to the pupil. The need for the development of personal initiative by the

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pupil is stressed.

The present curriculum rejects the old faculty or compartmental psychology in favor of an organismic concept of learning. The general theory of learning is that the parts of the human organism do not act alone and that behavior is something more than a mere summation of the separate action of these parts.

Research conducted by the State Department of Education reveals that, on the basis of the subjective judgment of teachers, pupils taught by the methods of the revised curriculum have shown definite gains in such matters as interest, effort, initiative, understanding of contemporary problems, co-operation, consideration for others, accepting responsibility, participation in physical education activities, health habits, participation in music activities, enjoyment of art activities, concern for their own school progress, mastery of skills, and attendance at school.

It has been the policy of the State Department of Education that teachers should not introduce the revised curriculum into their classrooms until they feel able and competent to do so. Consequently, in the various school divisions of the state, teachers have been advised to take time for sufficient preparation and study before changing from the old to the revised curriculum.

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CHAPTER VIII

LEGAL BASIS OF THE CURRICULUM

Introduction

The present chapter deals with the legal basis of the curriculum in Virginia. It is evident that public school curriculums are definitely influenced by enactments of state legislative bodies and constitutional provisions. Consequently the writer has deemed it advisable to devote a chapter to the influence of these forces on curriculum development in Virginia.

The Civil War made the passing of school legislation a difficult problem. In the early days of state school legislation, class prejudice, fear of taxation, and the relationship of church and state created hard problems.

Immediately following the war, the emancipated Negro presented a social problem which had to be dealt with in passing laws relating to schools. In addition, the numerous white illiterates in the state aggravated the difficulty. Of an approximate total population in 1860 of 1,600,000, about one-third were Negroes.[1]

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[1] Census of the United States, 1860, Volume 1, pp. 511-15. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1861.

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The principal feature of the educational system, as provided by the constitution of 1868, was a uniform system of public, free schools to be established in every county of the state by 1876. The administration of education was turned over to a superintendent of public instruction, to be elected by the General Assembly.[2] Section one of the constitution reads:

> The General Assembly shall elect by joint ballot, within thirty days after its organization under this constitution, and every fourth year thereafter, a superintendent of public instruction. He shall have the general supervision of the public, free school interests of the State, and shall report to the general assembly for its consideration within thirty days after his election a plan for a uniform system of free public schools.[3]

This chapter deals with: (1) rules and regulations of the State Board of Education relating to school textbooks, (2) state legislation and the curriculum, (3) uniformity of textbooks, (4) legal decisions affecting the curriculum, and (5) miscellaneous matters affecting the curriculum.

Legal Considerations Affecting Textbooks

Uniformity of Textbooks.--The textbook situation in Virginia has been interesting, as well as controversial, since the inauguration of the school system. The constitution

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[2] Constitution of Virginia, 1870, Article 8, Section 2.

[3] Constitution of Virginia, 1870, Article 8, Section 1.

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of 1870 provides that "the State Board of Education shall arrange for the uniformity of textbooks, and the furnishing of schoolhouses with such apparatus and library as may be necessary, under such regulations as may be provided by law."[4] The school law stated that this constitutional provision should be carried out on some gradual scale by the state board.[5]

The foregoing provision in regard to the selection of textbooks did not apply fully to the cities and towns. The free school law of 1870 applied to cities and towns alike, but on March 31, 1871, a special act was passed which provided "that the textbooks in use in city schools shall be prescribed by the city school board of a city of either class, except that in primary schools they shall be chosen from lists prescribed for the state at large by the board of education."[6] An exception to this act stated that the boards of education of the cities of Richmond, Petersburg, and Norfolk might, for reasons satisfactory to themselves, allow other textbooks for their primary schools.[7]

State educational leaders of this period did not interpret the constitutional provision for uniformity of textbooks to

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4 Constitution of Virginia, 1870, Article 8, Section 6.

5 Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1870, Chapter 259.

6 Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1871, Chapter 308.

7 Ibid., Chapter 308.

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mean that a single list of books should be used throughout the state, but maintained that the phrase "uniformity of textbooks" meant uniformity in a single school. During the administrations of State Superintendent Ruffner and of his successor, the state board adopted the practice of recommending several books on each subject and of allowing local authorities to select from these for their individual schools. The state board opposed uniformity of textbooks, because (1) it would deprive local authorities and teachers of the right of selecting textbooks most suited to their needs, and (2) such a policy would tend toward textbook monopoly.[8]

In 1880, Superintendent Ruffner wrote that, "the attempt in the earlier years of our school system to deprive teachers and officers of all liberty in respect to what books should be used in the schools would have tended to intellectual death, had it succeeded."[9]

Bell voices the opinion that,"the feeling for uniformity of textbooks prescribed by State authority had probably grown in Virginia owing to a conviction that the State had been too much dominated by northern textbooks before the war."[10]

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[8] Virginia School Report, 1874, p. 157. Richmond: State Department of Education, 1875.

[9] William H. Ruffner, Virginia School Report, 1880,p. 122. Richmond: State Department of Education, 1875.

[10] Sadie Bell, The Church, the State and Education in Virginia, p. 354. Philadelphia: Science Press Publishing Company, 1930.

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At the meeting organizing the Virginia Educational Association in 1863, the following statement was written into the minutes:

> While much might be said in compliment of many northern school books, the South must ultimately have a system of textbooks of her own.... No intellectual and progressive people can afford to employ foreigners to provide the intellectual pabulum for their children, or to give shape to their young minds and morals through the plastic agency of rudimentary and higher school books.[11]

Superintendent Ruffner held the opinion that the state board should have the power simply to make regulations providing for uniformity of textbooks in the various schools, and to exclude all books making false or offensive statements.[12]

When the request of the county school board of Henrico County to be permitted to use books not on the prescribed list was denied by the state board of education, an appeal was made to the legislature for more liberty and a bill calculated to regulate uniformity of textbooks was presented in the legislature. The bill provided, among other things, that no book containing immoral, irreverent, false, unpatriotic, or otherwise seriously objectionable statements or sentiments should be chosen for use in the public schools. Although this bill seemed to represent the views of State Superintendent Ruffner, it failed of passage.

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[11] Minutes, Education Association of Virginia, 1863, p. 4.

[12] Circular No. 132, p. 8. Richmond: Department of Public Instruction, March 20, 1875.

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The failure of the foregoing bill need not be ascribed to any scruples on the part of the Assembly to legislate directly on the subject of textbooks, for in 1884 it directed that a publication by J. Esteen Cooke, entitled, Virginia: A History of Her People and Stories of the Old Dominion, be placed on the prescribed list by the state board.[13]

The multiple list of textbooks seems to have prevailed, in practice at least, until after 1900. In 1886, the state board of education, acting on the theory that state uniformity was required by the Constitution and the statutes, adopted a one-book list, but permitted the continuance of the books then in use. Hence during the period through which this policy prevailed, from 1860 to 1900, a multiple list of textbooks was in use.[14] Thus the more general policy of Virginia in regard to the selection of textbooks under the constitution of 1870 was that of "state selection" and "local adoption."[15]

The curriculum received no substantial modification until almost the close of the period, when in 1900 the Assembly enacted legislation broadening its content. No other than the specified subjects were to be introduced, except as allowed by special legislation.[16] (See Appendix, p.377).

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[13] Acts of General Assembly of Virginia, 1884, p. 456.

[14] Minutes of the State Board of Education, 1886, Vol 1, pp. 44-45. Richmond: State Department of Education, 1886.

[15] Ibid., p. 45.

[16] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1900, p. 134.

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The Constitution of 1902.--When the Constitution of 1902 was being framed, the question as to whether state-wide uniformity of textbooks should be required again became an issue. During the early days of the convention a conference of Virginia educators convened in the city of Richmond. The conference went on record as being strongly opposed to state uniformity of textbooks, and recommended that textbooks and educational appliances to be used in the public schools be adopted by county and city school boards, provided that these boards should select such books as they thought best adapted to their needs from a list approved by the state board of education.[17]

It is significant that the framers of the Constitution of 1902 omitted the word "uniformity" in the section dealing with textbooks. The wording of this section is:

> The State Board shall select textbooks and educational appliances for use in the schools of the State, exercising such discretion as it may see fit in the selection of books suitable for the schools in the cities and counties respectively.[18]

Later, in 1903, the power of the state board was questioned during the session of the General Assembly. Before proceeding with textbook legislation, the House of Delegates passed a resolution requesting the opinion of the attorney general on whether: (1) the new constitution required the adoption of a

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[17] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1900, pp. 35-36.

[18] Constitution of Virginia, 1902, Article 9, Section 132.

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uniform system of textbooks for use in the public schools of the State, and (2) whether it was advisable for the General Assembly, in case the new constitution did not require the adoption of a uniform system of textbooks, to require the state board of education to adopt such a system.[19]

In answering the first question, the attorney general spoke as follows:

> The mandate of the Constitution makes it the duty of the State Board of Education and clothes that Board with plenary powers, to make these selections and to do whatever is necessary to attain the best results, and, therefore, to determine the manner in which the selection shall be made.... The Board is not required to adopt a single list, the whole subject is left to its discretion. It must select the textbooks for use in the public schools, but it may, in my opinion, in the exercise of the discretion with which it is vested, select alternative or multiple lists for use in the schools under such regulations as the Board may prescribe.[20]

With respect to the second question the attorney general pointed out that the powers, duties, and responsibilities conferred on the state board by the Constitution were plenary and exclusive, and that the exercise of these powers, and the discharge of these duties, and the responsibility there-in involved, could not be shared or controlled by the General Assembly, or any other department of the state government. Since the powers of the state board in this matter could not be abrogated or abridged by statute, it was held that is was "not

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[19] Report of the Attorney General of Virginia, 1903, pp. 26-27.

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

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competent for the General Assembly to require the state board of education to adopt a uniform system of textbooks for use in the public schools of the State."[21]

As a result of the foregoing decision the General Assembly made no additional provision with respect to textbooks at that time. It was provided, however, that no textbooks adopted for use in the public schools should be changed or substituted until the same had been in use for a period of four years.[22]

The plan of operation of the state board under the new constitutional provision is indicated by the following statement:

> After careful investigation and deliberation the State Board of Education selected a standard list of four books on each leading subject to be submitted to local committees consisting of the division superintendent, three school trustees, and three teachers in each school division, who were to examine the books and report to the State Board those best suited to the schools in their respective divisions. These reports were carefully examined by the State Board at a subsequent meeting, when the recommendations of the local committees, with some revision, were accepted, and textbooks were formally adopted for each school division.[23]

It is apparent that a single list of textbooks was adopted for each school division, but not the same list for each division. The state board, as then constituted, did not see how a uniform list of textbooks could be advantageously

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[21] Report of the Attorney General of Virginia, op. cit., p. 27.

[22] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1903, Chapter 508, Section 1501.

[23] Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1904-05, p. 38. Richmond: State Department of Education, 1906.

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used in all the schools of Virginia, unless these schools could be reduced to a dead level of uniformity as regards teachers and pupils. The board believed that, in the course of time, uniformity in textbooks would be reached, but that such uniformity should be approached by degrees.

The practice of prescribing a multiple list of textbooks and allowing the counties to choose from this list was continued by the state board for at least ten years longer. In the selection of high school textbooks in 1910, two single lists were adopted, one for the counties and one for the cities.[24] It has been the policy of the state board to prescribe a single list of textbooks for elementary schools since 1914.

Recent changes in the Code of Virginia provide that "the State Board of Education shall determine the number of basal textbooks required for instruction in classes of various size in the several subjects in schools with varying library facilities.[25]

Changes in Textbooks.--For some time considerable dissatisfaction was registered with reference to changes in textbooks; the state board was accused of making such changes too frequently. In 1916[26] the senate authorized a resolution which demanded

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[24] Virginia State Senate Document, No. 8, 1916.

[25] Code of Virginia, 1934, Chapter 33, Section 617.

[26] Virginia State Senate Document, No. 8, 1916.

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that the state board give reasons for the recent changes made by it in textbooks. In 1926 an act was passed forbidding the state board to make any changes in textbooks until the same had been in use for a period of not less than eight years, unless the continuation of any textbook for this length of time would prove detrimental to the patrons on account of a marked decrease in textbook prices.[27]

This charge of too frequent changes in textbooks was refuted by D. S. Lancaster, secretary of the state board of education, in a letter to Gov. E. Lee Trinkle, under date of April 7, 1928. His contention was as follows:

> You will note that the State Board has been accused of changing textbooks whenever a publishing company demanded it. The facts are that it has consistently been the policy of the Board for the past twenty years to use every textbook for at least eight years or more, or when a change was made the new book has replaced a book that has been used for eight years or more. In other words, the law enacted last winter, which requires the State Board to use all textbooks for eight years, did not affect a single past action of the Board.[28]

The revised Constitution of 1928 provided that the state board of education was empowered to continue to select textbooks and educational appliances for use in the schools of the state, specifying that the General Assembly should prescribe the time in which the state board might change textbooks.[29]

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[27] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1926, Chapter 564.

[28] Files of the State Board of Education, Richmond: State Department of Education.

[29] Revised Constitution of Virginia, 1928, Article IX, Section 132.

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In this connection the General Assembly of 1928 ruled that "no textbook which has been or may be adopted for use in any of the public schools shall be changed or substituted until such books shall have been in use for a period of not less than eight years, subject to renewal for two years".[30] In the event the book became obsolete during this period, a change could be made.

The state board was authorized to change any textbooks where their use was detrimental to the interests of patrons owing to change in textbook prices.[31]

Evidence that the state board was not guilty of too frequent changes of textbooks is contained in the following quotation:

> Certain books dropped in the 1915 adoptions had been on the State list a long time: Lee's School History, 16 years; Magill's History of Virginia, since 1877, except one adoption; Wide Awake Primer and Stepping Stones Books 1 to 4, 16 years; Conn-Shepherd's Intermediate Physiology, 7 years; Shepp's Speller, 7 years; Graded Classics First Reader (old edition) and Graded Classics Fifth Reader, 11 years; Language Through Nature Literature and Art, 7 years; Hyde's English, Books 1 and 2, 16 years.[32]

Available facts indicate that the state board of education has exercised almost exclusive control over the selection and adoption of textbooks since 1870. However, for about forty

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30 Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1928, Chapter 471, Section 617.

31 Ibid., Chapter 471, Section 617.

32 Virginia State Senate Document No. 8, 1916.

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years after the establishment of the school system, local school officers and teachers were permitted to participate in the adoption by selecting those books best adapted to the needs of their community from the multiple list prescribed by the state board. After 1910 the state board adopted the practice of prescribing a uniform list for all schools. Because of evident dissatisfaction with frequent changes of textbooks, there has been a tendency on the part of the legislature to restrain this power of the board by placing a limit upon the time within which textbooks may be changed.

> The State Board of Education shall select textbooks and educational appliances for use in the public schools of the State, exercising such discretion as it may see fit in the selection of books suitable for the schools in the cities and counties respectively. No textbook adopted for basal use shall be changed until such book has been in use for a period of not less than seven years, subject to renewal from one to four years, unless such book becomes obsolete or unless a change would result in a material decrease in price, and whenever such book is so changed, the said board may permit the use of the old books for a period of at least three years from date of such change.[33]

The State Board's Power to Contract for Textbooks.--

During the early days of the school system, the state board of education was left free to enter into contracts with publishers for textbooks without limitations being set up by the General Assembly. As the size and importance of such contracts increased, the Assembly began to frame specific conditions under which such contracts must be made. An amendment to the

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[33] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1934, Chapter 21, p. 218.

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school law in 1906 reaffirmed the powers and duties of the state board to make contracts for textbooks for a term not exceeding four years, but stipulated that the price to be paid for such textbooks by the pupils of the public schools of Virginia should not exceed the lowest retail price at which such books were sold anywhere in the United States. It was necessary for the publishers to make a sworn statement of this fact and give a written guarantee to the board of education that any further reduction in the price of such books during the life of the contract made to anyone should be made to the board of education of Virginia. The failure of a publisher to live up to this guarantee meant the termination of the contract. The state board was further required to secure sufficient bond from the publishers for the faithful performance of the conditions of such contract, before entering into any contract for textbooks.[34]

In 1908 the Assembly re-affirmed the conditions of the foregoing law; however, it was provided that the state board might contract with publishers for a period not exceeding seven years, "provided that if after four years of use any textbook or school appliance should prove unsatisfactory, it may, by a vote of six members of the State Board of Education, be

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[34] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1906, Chapter 248.

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changed."[35]

It appears that the legislature of Virginia has taken considerable precaution to insure fair dealing to the citizens of the state, first, by guaranteeing the purchase of such books by the state board of education at as low a price as they are sold elsewhere, and second, by making sure that the publishers must fulfill their contracts. Since the publisher must give bond for the proper observance of the contract, and the contract is liable to be terminated when violated, the people of the state should be protected against any dishonest practices on the part of publishing firms.

Recent legislation relating to the dealings between the state board and the publishers, as explained in the annual report of the state superintendent, requires that all local boards must distribute textbooks to the children in the public school buildings on the first day of each regular school term, or within five days thereafter at the wholesale price. The state board of education made contracts with twenty-one publishers for ninety-five textbooks at wholesale prices delivered anywhere in Virginia for the first five-year period beginning July 1, 1938. These contracts provide for an eight per cent service discount from the Virginia maximum retail

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35 Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1906, Chapter 248.

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prices on all orders for these textbooks forwarded to the publishers from the office of the Director of School Libraries and Textbooks, provided payment is made within thirty days from dates of the invoices.[36]

Available evidence indicates that the state board of education and the General Assembly have succeeded in the effort to safeguard the rights of the public in the purchase of textbooks.

It is apparent that the General Assembly has kept close watch over the elementary curriculum, and also that the state board of education has exercised wide authority in determining its content. In the selection of textbooks the power of the state board has been even greater. "In actual practice it has been granted carte blanche authority in this important matter."[37]

Legislation Affecting the Curriculum

Since the introduction of the public school system in 1870, the elementary school curriculum has, to a great extent, been prescribed by the General Assembly. In this connection it should be noted that the state board of education has possessed the power to add additional subjects.

School Subjects.--In accordance with the school law of

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[36] Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1938, p. 112. Richmond: State Department of Education, 1939.

[37] Sidney B. Hall, state superintendent of public instruction. (Personal Interview, January 2, 1941).

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1870, orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, and geography were to be taught in every free school. (See Appendix, p. 377). No other branches were to be introduced, except as provided by the state board of education.[38]

The report of the superintendent of public instruction for 1880 indicates that all subjects required by law were being taught in the elementary schools and, in addition, U. S. History and Virginia history were offered frequently.[39] Physiology and hygiene became a part of the elementary curriculum about 1900. (See Appendix, p.377).

In 1900 the school code was amended to read as follows:

> In teaching physiology and hygiene approved textbooks shall be used, plainly setting forth the effect of alcohol and other narcotics on the human system, and such effects shall be as fully and thoroughly taught as other branches of said last named subjects. No other subjects than those specified in this section shall be introduced, except as allowed by special regulations to be devised by the Board of Education; but the superintendent of public instruction is hereby authorized to make arrangement for the gradual introduction of civil government and drawing.[40]

It will be noted that there was a constant tendency to introduce new subjects into the schools. In 1906, the Assembly authorized the introduction of moral training into the schools. This training was to be extended throughout the

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[38] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1870, Chapter 259.

[39] Virginia School Report, 1880, p. 121. Richmond: State Department of Education, 1881.

[40] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1900, Chapter 132.

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entire course. "Instruction was to be imparted by reading books and textbooks inculcating the virtues of a pure and noble life."[41] Textbooks for the course were to be selected by the state board of education.

Safety education was introduced in 1914. (See Appendix, p. 378). At this time the Assembly made it the duty of each teacher in the public schools of the state "to devote not less than thirty minutes in each month of the school session for instructing the pupil as to ways and means of proper observation of accident prevention. The state superintendent was authorized to prepare, publish, and distribute proper information arranged in chapters or lessons for the guidance of teachers in carrying on safety instruction.[42]

In 1922 the Assembly stipulated that safety education should be given in connection with the course in civics and citizenship. At the same time the state board of education was authorized to provide a regular course in fire protection for use in the public schools.[43] (See Appendix, p.378).

The Assembly made an effort to stimulate interest in the constitutional background of the state and nation in 1928 when the following legislation was passed:

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[41] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1906, Chapter 248.

[42] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1914, Chapter 132.

[43] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1922, Chapter 55.

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> In preparing the course of study in civics and history in both the elementary and high school grades, the state board of education shall give careful consideration for, and shall require, the teaching of the Declaration of American Independence, the Virginia Statute of Religious Freedom, the Virginia Bill of Rights, and Section fifty-eight of the Constitution of Virginia, which subjects shall be carefully read and studied, thoroughly explained and taught by all teachers to all pupils in accordance with the state course of study, which course of study shall require written examinations as to each of the last four mentioned great documents of Virginia's history, at the end of the term in which the course is given. An outline shall likewise be given of the Constitution of the United States and the general principles of that Constitution shall be carefully explained.[44]

It was also provided that "in connection with the course in civics and citizenship, training in accident prevention and traffic laws and in proper conduct on the streets and public highways should be given".[45] Physical and health education were to be emphasized throughout the course"by proper lessons, drills and physical exercises set up by the State Board of Education".[46] (See Appendix, p.378).

Provisions were made for moral education through moral lessons given by teachers and imparted by appropriate reading selections.[47]

In 1936, in addition to re-affirming the foregoing provi- without any changes in the least particular or detail, the

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[44] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1928, Chapter 471.

[45] Ibid., Chapter 471.

[46] Ibid., Chapter 471.

[47] Ibid., Chapter 471.

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Assembly provided for instruction in handcrafts and domestic arts, and empowered the boards of supervisors of the several counties and the councils or other governing bodies of the several cities of the state with authority "to appropriate such sums of money as they may deem proper for the establishment, equipment and maintenance of handcrafts and domestic arts departments in the public schools of their respective counties and cities".[48] (See Appendix, p. 378).

Religious Instruction in the Schools.--The school system had hardly been inaugurated when an attempt was made to get an official expression of interpretation from the General Assembly on the subject of reading the Bible in the public schools. It appears that Richard L. Carne, superintendent of Alexandria county and city schools, had tried to exclude the reading of the Bible.[49]

The matter was finally referred to William H. Ruffner, state superintendent of schools, whose duty it was by the bill creating the public school system "to determine the time, intent, and meaning of school laws and regulations, and to explain to the county superintendents and other school officers the several duties enjoined thereby upon them, and his decisions

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[48] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1936, Chapter 67.

[49] Journal of Virginia House of Delegates, February 17, 1871, p. 199.

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to be final until reversed by the state board of education."[50]

Superintendent Ruffner rendered his decision to Superintendent Carne in a letter which is quoted by Bell. The decision follows, in part:

> The subject of religious worship in the public schools is one which has occasioned great trouble in other States, and I thought it best for the school law to be silent on the subject. Whilst it is proper for the State reverently to acknowledge the authority of the Supreme Being, it has no right to use or allow to be used its authority or its means to aid particular sects or to inculcate any particular religious doctrine, or to enjoin any particular form or mode of worship.... Where it is agreeable to those concerned, and conducive to order and morals to have such exercises as are fit and becoming in manner and time and no one is required to attend upon them whose conscience would be offended thereby, this may be done. But if serious complaint, disorder or trouble of any kind would be likely to result from their introduction, they ought not to be allowed. This can be decided only by local authorities.[51]

It is clear that the question of reading the Bible or of offering religious instruction in the public schools of Virginia was to be left for determination and direction to the counties, rather than to state authorities. This policy has consistently been carried out in the schools of the state, as present custom indicates.

Methods.--An interesting development in the early days of the public school movement was a provision by the General Assembly making it lawful to admit, into any district school, instruction in any branches necessary to qualify pupils to

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[50] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1870, p. 408.

[51] Sadie Bell, The Church, the State and Education in Virginia, pp. 425-426. Philadelphia: Science Press Publishing Company, 1930.

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become teachers.[52] As this was before the days of the public high school or normal schools in Virginia, it is not difficult to see why the General Assembly authorized the teaching of methods in the public schools, strange as such a procedure would be at the present time. An exception to this legislation provided that the instruction in such higher branches in any school should be first sanctioned by the county school board and should be discontinued whenever the said board deemed it advisable.[53] It was further stated that instruction in these higher branches should not be allowed to interfere with regular and efficient instruction in the elementary English branches, and in schools having only one teacher at least five hours of instruction each day were to be given to the fundamental elementary branches.[54]

Legislation Concerning School Attendance

Compulsory Attendance.--The Constitution of Virginia provides that "the General Assembly may, in its discretion, provide for the compulsory education of children of school age".[55] Regardless of this fact, however, the state has been reluctant

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[52] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1874, Chapter 226.

[53] Ibid., Chapter 226.

[54] Ibid., Chapter 226.

[55] R. C. Stearnes, Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1917, p. 35. Richmond: State Department of Education, 1918.

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to enforce this regulation, as is borne out in a statement by R. C. Stearnes, state superintendent of public instruction. His contention was that "the Southern mind has associated the idea of parental responsibility for a child's education with the sacred principle of State's rights in the larger political relations".[56] He added that the present unfortunate local option attendance law had done vast harm in Virginia.

It appears then that as late as 1917, much to the chagrin of the state superintendent of schools, Virginia had no effective compulsory attendance law. Attendance at school appeared to be largely optional with the parents.

Noting the unsatisfactory conditions relating to school attendance, the General Assembly in 1922 enacted legislation requiring that "every parent, guardian, or other person in the State of Virginia, having control or charge of any child or children who have reached the eighth birthday but have not passed the fourteenth birthday, shall send such child or children to a public school, or to a private denominational, or parochial school, or to have such child or children taught by a tutor or teacher in a home".[57] It was further provided that these children should attend regularly during the period of each year the public schools were in session. An exception was

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[56] R. C. Stearnes, Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1917, p. 35. Richmond: State Department of Education, 1918.

[57] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1922, Chapter 381, p. 641.

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made in the case of children who had completed the elementary course of study and who were regularly and lawfully employed, and for children who lived more than two miles by the nearest traveled road from a public school unless public transportation was provided within one mile of walking distance from the home of such child.[58]

The present compulsory attendance law extends the age limit to include children between the ages of seven and fifteen, and decreases the distance children can be compelled to travel from two to one and one-half miles, unless public transportation is provided within one mile of the place where the child lives.[59] It is further provided that physical incapacity or disease shall be established by the certificate of a reputable, practicing physician made in accordance with the rules and regulations adopted by the state board of education.[60]

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[58] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1922, Chapter 381, p. 683.

[59] Code of Virginia, Chapter 33, Section 683.

[60] Ibid., Chapter 33, Section 683.

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Summary

In the early days of the free, public school movement the law required uniformity of textbooks. The state school heads interpreted this regulation as meaning uniformity in a given county or school division. For a considerable period the state board of education adopted the practice of suggesting a multiple list of textbooks and allowing the counties to choose from this list. At the present time the state board provides a basal list of textbooks together with a supplementary list to be used by the schools of the state.

Originally the curriculum was limited to the rudiments, and provided for the learning of facts only. However, the curriculum has been gradually liberalized, until today instruction for citizenship figures prominently in the work of the schools. Music, health, and art, which were once known as extra-curriculum activities, are now given a prominent place in the elementary school program.

While traditionally very loath to force parents to send their children to the public schools, the state has come to realize the importance of regular attendance, and the General Assembly has provided a law which, if enforced, will provide for the regular attendance of children of school age at a public or private school.

It is noteworthy that the curriculum has undergone a decided development from the mere rudiments in 1870 to the enriched program of the present day.

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CHAPTER IX

General Summary

Objectives of the Study Restated.--The present study has endeavored: (1) to trace the development of the public elementary school curriculum in Virginia from the beginning of free public education in the state to the present time; (2) to indicate the factors and tendencies that have influenced the curriculum as it developed; (3) to point out significant elements, characteristics, and peculiarities of the curriculum; (4) to offer reasons for the introduction of the present tentative elementary school curriculum in Virginia; (5) to indicate general trends in curriculum content and methods of instruction; and (6) to assemble a body of material on the Virginia curriculum which will be of value to future research workers and educational historians.

Methods of Treatment.--The objectives of the study, as listed in the foregoing paragraph, have been carried out by: (1) interpreting the status of elementary education in Virginia prior to 1870, the period which marked the beginning of free public education in the state; (2) tracing the development of the public school movement from 1870 to the beginning of the twentieth century; (3) analyzing the principal educational developments in the state from 1900 to 1917, the date of America's entry into the World War; (4) tracing curricular developments from 1917 to

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the introduction of the tentative core curriculum in 1934; (5) analyzing the philosophy and significance of the present tentative, revised curriculum; and (6) setting forth the effect of legislative enactment on curriculum development in Virginia.

The Development of the Public Elementary School Curriculum in Virginia

Status of Elementary Education Prior to 1870.--During the colonial period, education in Virginia was provided by: (1) private or "free school"foundations , (2) community or "old field" schools, (3) the private tutor in the home, (4) education abroad, and (5) apprenticeship education for the poor.

The majority of the private schools were known as academies; they usually represented private undertakings and were controlled by a board of trustees who were granted the usual corporate powers. They were allowed to develop according to local demands, and were independent of the state. The academy movement was strengthened by the popular demand for a more practical type of training, including instruction in the sciences.

Prior to the period of the academies, the "old field" or community schools provided for the educational needs of those families unable to employ private tutors. These schools were primitive in nature, housed in poor buildings, meagerly and generally unfortunately located. However, they were usually taught by ministers who, as a class, were well educated for their

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time.

Private tutors played an important part in the educational life of early Virginia. The plantation life and the absence of towns in Virginia made this method of instruction very popular. The wealthy planters frequently sent their children to England to be educated. The mother country offered certain educational advantages not available in the colonies, and it was believed that the pupil profited from certain liberalizing and broadening influences not found in America.

The first American proposal for a modern state school system was Jefferson's famous "Bill for the Diffusion of Knowledge", which, although it failed of passage, served as a stimulus for later legislation in the state.

The creation of the Literary Fund in 1810 marked an educational milestone in Virginia. This fund, which soon amounted to over one million dollars, was a great encouragement to the progressive educators of the state.

In the decades before the Civil War there was much interest in public education. There was considerable sentiment for a complete system of education under state control. People, however, were inclined to fear taxation and central control of public matters. Some thought it heresy to tax public property for the support of free schools; in addition, the private schools were popular. In spite of these attitudes, the free school idea made

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gradual gains until the Civil War, when it was temporarily discarded.

The Public Schools from 1870 to the Opening of the Twentieth Century.--The constitutional convention of 1866-68 provided that the General Assembly of Virginia should establish a system of public, tax supported schools in the state. William H. Ruffner, the first state superintendent of public instruction, drew up a plan for a uniform, state-wide system of public education which was accepted by the General Assembly July 11, 1870. This day marked the beginning of a new era in the history of the state.

The schools were hindered in their development by: (1) the poverty-stricken condition of the state due to the war, (2) direct opposition of many influential citizens who were opposed to public education, (3) the indifference of the public concerning the needs of the schools, (4) poorly trained teachers, and (5) unsatisfactory buildings and equipment. In spite of all these discouragements the public school gained in popularity with the people until it became one of the state's most cherished institutions.

The curriculum of this period was rather limited; it appears that up to the close of the nineteenth century reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic were the core subjects, with other branches bidding for a place but considered more or less as "frills".

The Period from 1900 to 1917.--The constitution of 1902 provided for the reorganization of the state department of

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education and proved a decided stimulus to the educational development of the state through constructive legislation leading to the establishment of high schools and the enrichment of their curriculums.

The May Campaign of 1905 is one of the milestones in the educational development of the state. It awakened the interest of the people in the schools and was instrumental in securing the creation of a state-supported secondary school system.

The first state-wide course of study was introduced in 1907. It represented an attempt to improve instruction throughout the state by uniform adoption of progressive methods. The course of study was brief and based on the idea of separate subjects, with little provision for integration or correlation of subject matter. Yet, it was a step forward, since it indicated recognition by the state department of education of its responsibilities in the curriculum field. Previous to this time such courses of study as existed were found mainly in the larger cities. In the rural districts the work was marked by lack of standardization and uniformity.

Social and Economic Basis of the Curriculum.--It has been revealed in this study that a large population group in Virginia may be classified as "marginal". These people live on a mere subsistence level, with few or no means for educational and recreational interests.

The existence of a large marginal group has increased the

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school problems of the state. It seems evident that the children of these marginal families are in need of a practical type of education which will help them to earn a living. Courses in health education and in the industrial arts are especially needed.

Increased use of machinery on the farms, together with the production of more food per acre, has tended to produce a surplus of young people in the rural districts and to complicate the social problems of the state.

It appears evident that many of the recent curriculum changes in the schools of Virginia have been dictated by the needs of a rapidly changing society.

Developments from the First World War to the Curriculum of 1934.--In 1919 the General Assembly of Virginia authorized a school survey for the pupose of making a thorough study of the laws, condition, and needs of the schools. An educational commission was appointed which in turn provided for a survey committee. After a thorough investigation the committee reported that the schools were deficient in buildings, equipment, textbooks, vocational education, provision for health instruction, and trained teachers. It was apparent that the course of study did not provide for the use of initiative on the part of the pupils, and that rural schools offered impoverished curriculums. Learning proceeded entirely by the traditional, formal, direct methods of instruction, and the personality of the pupils was submerged in the

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process.

The 1923 course of study was much more detailed than previous courses and, in addition, took note of modern trends in education. Although a definite improvement over the older programs of study, it did not provide for any basic changes in the underlying philosophy or psychology of instruction.

In 1927 the General Assembly authorized another school survey. It was again demonstrated that the school facilities of the state were inadequate to meet the educational needs of the people. Too much time was devoted to teaching the formal subjects, and insufficient emphasis was placed on citizenship. The initiative, creativeness, and vital interests of the pupils were neglected. There was evidence to indicate that school patrons did not seem able to grasp the vital issues of education. The survey staff recommended to the educational commission: (1) that the curriculum be revised to provide for the active development of the personalities and creative powers of the pupils, and (2) that formal, artificial instruction, unrelated to the experiences of the pupils, be replaced by instruction which dealt with natural child experiences. It is possible that these recommendations played a part in bringing about the notable curriculum revision of 1934.

The Tentative Core Curriculum of 1934.-- In an effort to correct certain obvious weaknesses in the elementary school curriculum, the state department of education in 1931 laid the groundwork for a thorough revision of the state course of study.

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The members of the survey staffs of 1919 and 1927 had pointed out that the work of the schools was artificial, subject matter centered, and static. They maintained that the pupils were not given sufficient opportunity for self expression or for the development of personal initiative.

The tentative core curriculum of 1934 represented an attempt by the state department of education to remedy the foregoing defects and to provide a dynamic curriculum that would give the child ample opportunity for self expression and for the development of personal initiative. It discarded the old faculty psychology in favor of an organismic psychology; it focused attention on the child, rather than on subject matter; and emphasized integration and correlation of subject matter as the heart of the core curriculum. In place of emphasizing separate subjects, it introduced the eleven major functions of social life to be taught in all seven grades through a center of interest appropriate for each grade. New emphasis was placed on personality development in terms of appreciations, understandings, and attitudes.

Legal Basis of the Curriculum.--Although the constitution of 1870 provided that the state board of education should provide for uniformity of textbooks, there was much controversy as to the meaning of the term "uniformity", and it was not until forty years later that the state board prescribed a single list of textbooks for all the elementary schools of the state. Until this single list was prescribed, local school officers and teachers

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were permitted to participate in the adoption of books by selecting those deemed best adapted to the needs of their community from the multiple list prescribed by the state board.

The General Assembly of Virginia places definite limits on the powers of the state board in connection with the length of time books must remain in use.

It seems apparent that the General Assembly has kept close watch over the elementary curriculum, and that the state board of education has been allowed to make suggestions concerning what should be taught. It will also be noted that the curriculum has undergone decided development since 1870. There has been a definite tendency to place more emphasis on citizenship, health, safety education, moral training, and all phases of personality development.

Trends.--The trends in the public school curriculum in Virginia, as evidenced by the philosophy of the most recent courses of study, seem to be as follows: (1) instruction is moving from the faculty concept of psychology to the organismic concept; (2) methodology of instruction is changing from answers to particular questions to a discussion of problems with an interchange of ideas; (3) teachers are giving less attention to the group and more attention to the individual; (4) supervision is moving from the aristocratic to the democratic concept; (5) teachers are moving from a single method to a variety of methods of instruction; (6) in evaluation, the tendency is toward

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subjective and qualitative methods and away from quantitative and objective measurements; (7) emphasis in instruction has shifted from facts to pupils, from impression to expression, from answering to questioning, from a static to a dynamic philosophy; (8) vocational education is taking on increased importance; and (9) teachers are shifting from formal instruction in a single subject to a center-of-interest type of instruction involving the use of units of work. To a great extent the reforms taking place in the elementary curriculum are changes in the method of presentation of subject matter rather than changes in the subjects themselves. The school subjects are still taught, but in the present curriculum they are used in developing units of work and phases of the center of interest. In order to meet the problems involved in the class projects, however, the pupils must be familiar with the subjects known as the common branches.

Conclusions and Recommendations

In the light of the data presented in the body of this study, the following suggestions are offered:

1. The present Virginia curriculum represents a radical change from the previous state courses of study. It is highly regarded by eminent educators in various parts of the nation. Nevertheless many teachers of the state are not using the revised curriculum because they do not understand it. The state department of education should endeavor to have all teachers thoroughly grounded in the philosophy of the curriculum before they attempt to use it in the classroom.

2. Considerable criticism has been directed at the schools since the revised curriculum was introduced. Part of this

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criticism has been caused because the public does not understand the philosophy and objectives of the curriculum. So far as possible an educational publicity campaign should be conducted to acquaint the public with the fundamental principles involved in the curriculum.

3. Some form of standardization or approval for elementary schools, similar to that used for high schools, would help to emphasize the importance of elementary education, provide a source of information concerning the curriculum and practices of the schools, and afford a means of providing research workers and investigators with information concerning elementary education in the state.

4. The present curriculum is an attempt to assist the children in meeting the rapidly changing social and economic conditions in the society of the present day; the curriculum should continue to emphasize citizenship, character, and the development of proper attitudes.

5. Present world conditions make it essential that citizens of a democracy be able to think open-mindedly and independently; the curriculum, therefore, must be planned that pupils will receive training in the problems of democracy.

6. The curriculum must be considered as dynamic, and not constant or static. As society changes, the curriculum must change with it if the schools are to fulfill their responsibilites.

7. The present Virginia curriculum emphasizes attitudes and character traits. Such products are intangible and cannot be adequately measured until the pupils now in school take their places in society.

8. Universities, colleges, and teacher training institutions should have a part in curriculum revision programs. Laymen interested in education should be included in such programs.

Suggestions for Further Research.--The present investigation has traced the evolution of the public elementary school curriculum in Virginia. It has touched many significant problems in the curriculum field as related to the schools of Virginia. A comparative study of the results obtained in the tool subjects of the elementary grades under the new and old curriculums should

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be of interest and value.

Literature dealing with the history of education in Virginia is very meager. Such studies as now exist deal mainly with the colleges and higher institutions of learning. An investigation of the development of the public high school curriculum in the state should be of value. Another interesting study would be to compare the relative difficulty of the Virginia public school textbooks of fifty years ago with those of today, in terms of subject matter and organization. The curriculum of the public elementary and high schools of Virginia offers a rich field for investigation, since little research has been done in this area.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A	COURSES OF STUDY
APPENDIX B	DAILY SCHEDULES AND PROGRAMS
APPENDIX C	EVOLUTION OF THE VIRGINIA ELEMENTARY STATE COURSE OF STUDY
APPENDIX D	SCOPE OF WORK IN THE CORE CURRICULUM FOR VIRGINIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

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Appendix A

Outline of Graded Course of Studies, Richmond, Va., Feb., 1871

(Appendix to Report of City Sup't. of Schools, 1871)

PRIMARY
SECOND GRADE - FIRST DIVISION

Alphabet Class: Alphabet from blackboard or chart; alphabet to be taught by word method. Counting and adding by one's and two's either on numeral frame or by counting other objects. Arabic figures from 1 to 100 to be read at sight. Printing letters on slate.

Object Lesson: Simple forms as square, oblong, ring, ball, cylinder; also the terms straight, crooked, square corner, round corner.

SECOND DIVISION

Primer Class: Spelling and reading from blackboard, charts, and primer; the meaning of words to be made plain by conversation with the children about them.

Arabic Figures: Writing numbers on slate as far as 100.

Roman Numbers: I, V and X with their combinations to XXXIX; printing words and copying figures from blackboard.

Object Lessons: Common objects to be shown and the most obvious parts and qualities to be observed by the children. Include the triangle, cube, and the term curved.

Note - The exercises in the foregoing grade should not be continued more than 20 minutes.

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FIRST GRADE
FIRST DIVISION

Reading in First Reader: The children should tell what they have been reading about in their lessons.

Punctuation: Names and uses of the period, question mark and wonder mark.

The Meaning of words to be shown, chiefly by their use in short sentences or phrases.

Spelling: Words from the reading lesson, also other words familiar to children.

Roman Numerals: I, V, X, L, and their combinations to LXXXIX.

Arabic Numbers; Numbers of three figures to (999) to be read at sight without numeration; also to be written on slates.

Numbers: Counting and adding by threes, fours and fives, to 100, also subtracting twos, threes, fours and fives from numbers below 10.

Object Lessons: Review previous forms and add circle, semi-circle crescent, oval, sphere, hemisphere, cone, spiral and wave lines; also position of lines, as slanting, horizontal and vertical.

Animals: Parts and uses of the human body and of familiar animals.

SECOND DIVISION

Reading in Second Reader: The children to tell in their own language what they have been reading about.

Punctuation: Add to previous instruction the comma and the hyphen and their uses.

The Meaning of words to be given, chiefly by their use in phrases or short sentences.

Spelling: Use words from reading lessons and other familiar words. Exercises in pronunciation in words of one, two or three syllables, and silent letters mentioned.

Slate Writing: The letters of the small alphabet to be taught in the order of their simplicity, n, m and c. Short words without capitals. Attention to be given to writing plain and neat arabic figures.

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Roman Numbers: Thru C, D and M, with review of entire Roman notations.

Arithemtic: Numeration thru nine places; also writing numbers thru 100,000,000. Addition on slates by short examples, five or six columns.

Mental Arithmetic: Simple, practical questions in addition and subtraction. Multiplication Table commenced and continued thru 6 times 12. Oral drills for rapid combinations of numbers.

Object Lessons: Review previous instructions and in Form add angles, parallel lines, perpendicular lines, circumference and diameter; also simple forms to be described by the teacher, and named by the pupils from description. Comparative size with the terms large and small, thick and thin, wide and narrow, deep and shallow, tall and short.

Animals: Covering of familiar animals; how they move, name of sounds they make; their food. Those used for food - what their flesh is called. What their young are called; wild and tame animals.

Geography: Primary Geography including the general outlines, with definitions relating to the forms of land and water from outline maps, the location of the principal countries of the world, by means of a globe or hemisphere maps and by association with their most familiar animals, productions and inhabitants.

Manners and Morals: Instructions to be given and illustrated by means of Incidents of school and home.

Note - Examples in above grade not to exceed 30 minutes.

INTERMEDIATE
FIRST DIVISION

Reading: In the last half of the Second Reader, or the first half of the Third Reader - The children to tell in their own language the substance of the lesson.

Punctuation: Add to previous instructions apostrophe and question marks and their uses, uses of the punctuation mark in the reading lesson.

Spelling Words: In reading lesson, giving their meaning, chiefly by their use in short sentences.

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Slate Writing: The capital letters in the order of their simplicity and short words with capitals; short sentences with period and question mark.

Writing in Copy Books: Half hour each day.

Arithmetic: Numeration concluded; addition and subtraction with practical examples. Multiplication, with multiplier of one figure, from 2 to 9 inclusive.

Mental Arithmetic: In addition, subtraction and multiplication, with practical questions. Oral drils for rapid combinations of numbers.

Multiplication Table: Complete thru 12 times 12. Common tables; United States Money. Time; Dry Measure and Weight (Avoirdupois) taught by illustration from the pupils' experience in their use.

Object Lessons: Review topics of the primary grade and in form and pentagon, hexagon, heptagon, octagon, arc, radius; also description of forms and objects by their shape to be given by the pupils.

Size: Measure from one inch to one yard, with exercise in judging these lengths.

Animals: Their habits, and the adaptation of their structure to their habits.

Qualities: Illustrated in qualities elastic, flexible, liquid, solid, combustible and absorobent.

Intermediate Geography: Elementary definitions and illustrations continued, with addition and latitude and longitude, outlines of North America; including the United States; and the West Indies with the descriptive geography of those countries.

English Grammar; Commented and taught orally to include the analysis and construction of very simple sentences and a distinction of the parts of speech found in the same; also exercises to correct common errors in speech.

History: The early discoveries and outlines of colonial history to 1753.

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SECOND DIVISION

Reading: In the last half of the Third Reader or the first half of the Fourth Reader, with a review of pronuciation and Roman numbers; and with exercises on the subject matter of the lessons and definition of the words in the lesson.

Spelling: From the spelling book; requiring pupils to use easy words in the construction of sentences; also exercises in writing words and short sentences from dictation.

Arithmetic: Addition and subtraction reviewed thru multiplication; short and long division.

Mental Arithmetic: Through division, with practical questions in each of the rules. Oral drills for rapid combination of numbers.

Multiplication Table: Reviewed and the division table taught in connection with the review.

Tables: Those of the first division reviewed with liquid measure, long, cloth and surface measure added; also miscellaneous tables.

Object Lessons: Review the topics of first division, and add description of objects by their shape, color and most obvious qualities.

Classification of Natural Objects: As mineral, animal and vegetable.

Place and Direction: The location and direction of the most prominent objects, and of the principal places in the city and its vicinity. The points of the compass and the use of maps.

Qualities: Illustrate the qualities soluble, flexible, fibrous, pungent, astringent, odorous, fragrant.

Intermediate Geography: Local and descriptive, through South America and Europe. The topics of the preceding grades to be reviewed in outline.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR
FIRST DIVISION

Fourth or Fifth Reader with exercises as in the Intermediate Grade.

SPELLING AND DEFINITION

Continue as in intermediate grade.

WRITTEN ARITHMETIC

As far as simple operations in common and decimal fractions.

MENTAL ARITHMETIC

As far as written, with exercises in the analysis and calculations.

GEOGRAPHY

Topics of intermediate reviewed in outline; thru Asia, Africa, and Oceanica.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Definitions of all the parts of speech and parse easy sentences.

HISTORY OF UNITED STATES.

No comment given.

COMPOSITION

Select subjects familiar to the pupils; short compositions on slate, under the inspection of the teacher. Oral instruction in the use and qualities of familiar objects.

WRITING

Half hour daily.

SECOND DIVISION

Reading: Fifth Reader continued.

Spelling: and Definitions.

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Written Arithmetic: Thru compound interest.

Mental Arithmetic: As far as Written.

Geography: A general review of the subject.

English Grammar: Analysis, parsing and construction of complex and compound sentences.

History of United States: Completed.

Composition:

Weekly Reviews:

GRAMMAR GRADES

ADVANCED COURSE

History of English with exercises in reading.

Mental and Written Arithmetic reviewed and continued thru the arithmetic.

Algebra (no comment).

English Grammar: Continue with analysis, parsing and correction of false syntax.

Natural Philosophy: (no comment).

Composition by Quackenbos.

Science: Oral instruction in familiar science to include the simple facts and phenomena of motion, air, light, heat, etc., with some of the most important facts of chemistry.

Latin: Allowed in exceptional cases.

Note: The advanced course in the Grammar Grade is designed for those pupils who were advanced to the high school grade at the close of the last session, and will be only considered a part of the course until the High School is established.

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Outline Course of Study for a Graded School of One Teacher
Proposed by
State Superintendent J. L. Buchanan, 1888*

FIRST GRADE

Reading: From blackboard, chart, and primer. Methods used - Words and sentence methods, accompanied by phonic analysis.

Spelling: A few of the simple words which the children are able to recognize at sight. The phonic analysis of every word should precede the spelling of that word by letters.

Numbers: Teach numbers from 1 to 9, associating figures, and at the same time teach thoroughly all the additions, subtractions, multiplications, and divisions possible to these numbers, taking care that no result is greater than the numbers so far taught. Let the written work go hand in hand with the oral. Give practical problems and have the children give some. Counting by 2's and 3's. Roman numerals thru X.

Language: The teacher should correct the language of the children giving as a reason: "That is not the way to say that" or "Good Speakers do not say that." Have children copy sentences from the board as soon as possible taking care that they copy the capital letters and the "full stops".

Writing: Copying simple words and sentences from board or chart.

Object Lesson: Conversational lessons on common things. Observation Lessons. Lessons in form. 1. Solids (ball, cylinder, cube, plane). Lines (straight, curved).

Drawing: Oral work and the first six cards of Krusis' easy Drawing Lessons, or the equivalent of that work in some other good drawing lesson.

Vocal Music: A few little note songs, taught for the purpose of accustoming children to musical tones, and giving them a sense of rhythm.

Color: Matching, naming and distinguishing colors. Shade, hue, tint.

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*J. L. Buchanan, State School Report, 1888, p. 23.

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FIRST GRADE--SECOND HALF

Reading: First Reader begun and completed. If necessary the reader may be supplemented by leaflets.

Spelling: A few of the words that occur in the reading lessons, also easy names of familiar objects. In every case, phonic analysis should precede spelling by letters. The children should be able to recognize many more words than they can spell. The names of letters need comparatively little attention.

Numbers: Develop the idea of 1 ten and teach tens and units through 99. Give combinations such as: Add 1 to 1, 11, 21, 31, etc. Add 1 to 2, 12, 22, 32, 32, etc. Add 1 to 3, 13, 23, 33, 43, 53, etc. Drill in adding numbers expressed in columns, counting by 5's and 10's, simple, practical problems. When pupils have learned thoroughly the above, develop the idea of one hundred, and teach hundreds, tens, and units to 999, keeping up combinations of some nature as those outlined above. Quick mental work in addition and subtraction. Counting by 4's and 6's. Lead children to build multiplication table as far as 5 - 5's. Roman numerals through C.

Language: Corrections as in first half continued. Begin to encourage children to correct each other. Have one paragraph copied from First Reader every day. Show that every sentence begins with a capital letter. Show also the use of the "full stop" and the "question point" at the end of the sentence. Oral lessons on pictures should be begun at this stage.

Writing: Copying simple words and sentences from board. No. 1 of a good tracing book.

Object Lessons: Naming parts of common objects. Uses of parts (Lessons in form: Plane corners (square, short, blunt), Plane figures (circle, ring), Lines (waved, spiral), surface, face, edge.

Color: Primary, secondary and tertiary. Simple lessons in harmony of color.

Drawing: Oral Lessons and the first six words of Series II of Krusis' Easy Drawing Lessons or the equivalent of that work in some other good drawing course.

Vocal Music: Rote songs continued with some purpose as in first half, teach by some simple device--e.g., the ladder device, the tones of the scale and the names of those tones.

Calisthenics: Two or three times a day.

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SECOND GRADE--FIRST HALF

Reading: Through first half of second Reader. Supplement by leaflets or by first half of Second Reader a little more difficult than the first used.

Spelling: An average of four advance words a day. The words taught should be those which the children use every day.

Phonics: Continue analysis of simple words.

Numbers: Develop the idea of one thousand and teach to read and write numbers through one million. Additions, continue the exercises indicated in last half of first grade, use longer simple columns. Examples containing five or six columns Subtraction, 1 from 10-20-30-40, etc. 2 from each of above, 2 from 11-21-31-41, etc. Counting by 7's-8's and 9's. Multiplication table as far as 10-10's. Begin such multiplication as 13 times 2 equals 26. 23 times 2-- gradually extending work to include 15 times 2--25 times 2. Division those which are the reverse of multiplication in table. Begin such division and 5 divided by 2. Practical questions to illustrate every exercise. Quick mental work in addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. Roman numerals through D.

Language Lessons: Have children copy one paragraph from Second Reader each day. Teach in a simple way the use of the period, interrogation point, exclamation point. Corrections of words in language continued. An oral lesson on a picture at least once a week for the purpose of stimulating thought and developing the power of expression. Each object lesson should be made a language lesson.

Writing: The copying of words and sentences continued. No. 2 of a good tracing book.

Object Lessons: Simple lessons on the plants, animals and minerals which the children see every day. Pictures and descriptions of a few unfamiliar plants and animals, conversation and observation lessons continued. Lessons in form: Plane figures (Rhomboid, semi-circle, crescent) Solids (cone, pyramid) Lines (straight and curved, verticle, horizontal, oblique, parallel).

Drawing: Book No. 1. Krusis' Synthetic Series, and Card 7 series 1, Krusis' Easy Drawing Lessons, or the equivalent of this work.

Drawing: Book No. 1. Krusis' Synthetic Series, and Card 7 series 1, Krusis' Easy Drawing Lessons, or the equivalent of this work.

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SECOND GRADE--SECOND HALF

Reading: Last half of second Reader. Supplementary reading.

Spelling: An average of five advance words a day. These should be names of common objects and simple words in common use.

Phonics: Analysis of words continued. Drill in vowel sounds.

Numbers: Exercises in reading and writing numbers through 1,000,000, additions, longer columns. Subtraction, same as in preceding half, using gradually more terms in minuend and subtrahend. Multiplication, extend table to 12-12's. In written work gradually increase numbers of terms in both multiplier and multiplicand. Extend multiplications, so as to include any example in which the multiplier is not greater than 25 and the product not greater than 1, 000, 000. Rapid mental work increased gradually in difficulty. Fractions, first ideas of parts of things: halves, thirds, fourths, etc. to tenths taught objectively.

Language: Daily copying continued. Picture lessons extended. Begin to dictate short, simple sentences, taking care to use no word that pupils cannot spell. Teach that certain names begin with capitals.

Writing: Copying continued.

Object Lessons: Lessons on plants, animals and minerals continued. Teach of the mineral features of land and water as the neighborhood affords, together with a few taught by names of moulding-board. Lessons in form: Angle(Angle, Right Angle, Obtuse Angle, Acute Angle) Perpendicular line, Triangle (Right Angled, Acute angled, Obtuse angled) Quadrilaterals (square, oblong, rhomboid, rhomb, trapezoid, trapezium).

Drawing: Book II, Krusis' Synthetic Series, and the last five cards, Series I, Krusis' Easy Drawing Lessons or the equivalent of that work in some other course.

Vocal Music: Teach two-part measure using quarter notes; two-part measure using eighth notes; three part measure using quarter notes. Teach union of beats. Give simple exercises such as are found in Musical First Reader. Present and represent scale of G and drill.

Calisthenic Exercises: Two or three times a day.

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THIRD GRADE--FIRST HALF

Reading: First half of Third Reader. Miscellaneous reading at least once a week, from children's books, papers, magazines, etc. Definitions taught by use of words in sentences. Drill in articulation and slides.

Spelling: An average of eight advance words a day. The words selected should be those in common use.

Phonics: The analysis of more difficult words. Drill in the vowel sounds.

Arithmetic: Formal teaching of enumeration, notation, addition and subtraction, multiplication and division. Speed attention to mental exercises and combinations. Practical problems.

Language: Teach orally, and in a very simple manner, name-words, pointing-out words, action-words, etc. through all parts of speech, but do not say "noun", "adjective" or "verb". Give the children a thorough drill in distinguishing the kinds of words taught. Have them bring written lists after the following models: 1. Names of persons; 2. Names of places; 3. Names of things; 4. Pointing out words, and names of words; 5. Pointing words, number words and name words; 6. Pointing out words, number word, describing words and name words. When the action has been taught, and thus a simple sentence built, give the simplest analysis possible. The use of language cards would greatly facilitate this work. Simple dictation exercises every day. Picture lessons kept up.

Writing: Analysis of letters begun. Copy book #1 of some standard series.

Geography: Oral lessons on position and direction, beginning with teacher's desk and taking in succession the school room and school ground or yard. Lessons on plants, animals and minerals of neighborhood.

Object Lessons: Lessons on qualities. Study of spiral objects with reference to qualities taught.

Drawing: Pages 1-8, Book III Krusis' Synthetic Series and Card 7 of Series II, Easy Drawing Lessons, or the equivalent of that work.

Vocal Music: Extend scales already taught, above and below the pitch notes as far as the voices of the children can go without straining. Drill in two part measure of quarter and eight notes. Division of beats in two-part measure. Teach scales of D and A. Simple songs and exercises.

Calisthenics: Once every day.

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THIRD GRADE--SECOND HALF

Reading: Last half of third Reader. Miscellaneous reading once a week. Definitions taught by use of words in sentences. Thorough drill in articulation and slides.

Spelling: An average of eight advance words a day.

Phonics: Analysis of words and drill in vowel and consonant sounds continued.

Arithmetic: Prime and composite numbers, multiples and divisors. Common fractions, mental exercises in all processes and principles taught.

Language Lessons: Review course taught in first half, using terms noun, adjective, verb, etc. Teach in a very simple way subject and predicate, and give children thorough drill in distinguishing. Dictation exercises with a view to spelling. Simple punctuation and capitalization. Tell short interesting stories and have children reproduce them orally. Train in descriptions of objects. Have children make original stories based on pictures. The use of language cards is earnestly recommended.

Writing: Copy Book No. 2 of some standard series.

Geography: The geography of the neighborhood in which the school is located, together with that of the surrounding country as far as the children can explore. Map drawing begun.

Object Lessons: Lessons on Qualities continued. Study of special objects.

Drawing: Pages 6-18, book No. 3 Krusis' Synthetic Series and last five cards, Series II, of Easy Drawing Lessons or the equivalent of that work.

Vocal Music: Teach the silent beat. Show three-part measures with three beats united. Represent two-part or three-part measures with half notes. Teach scales of E and F. Simple songs and exercises.

Calisthenics: Once a day.

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FOURTH GRADE--FIRST HALF

Reading: First half of Fourth Reader. Miscellaneous reading kept up. Selections from newspapers read occasionally. Drill in articulation and slides continued and simple exercises begun in pitch, force time and equality, care being taken that no pupil's voice be strained or injured.

Spelling: An average of ten miscellaneous words a day.

Phonics: Practice in difficult combinations of consonant sounds. Analysis of words kept up.

Arithmetic: Decimal fractions, United States Money, the tables of compound numbers, together with the reductions, additions, subtractions, multiplications, and divisions. Daily mental exercises in all processes taught. Drill in rapid combinations.

Grammar: Definitions of parts of speech and thorough drill in distinguishing simple sentences with analysis and diagrams. A good elementary text book used but not abused.

Composition: Reproduction exercises. Picture stories, description of objects and scenes. These should be both oral and written and should stimulate thought and develop the power of expressing it: first, orally; second, in correctly written English. For this purpose the pupil should at this stage be taught thoroughly capitalization and the use of ordinary punctuation marks. Careful attention should be given to spelling in dictation exercises.

Writing: Analysis of letters continued. Copy Book #3 of some standard series.

History: History of Virginia begun.

Geography: Beginning with the world as a whole, give a simple course of mathematical, physical and political geography.

Object Lessons: A simple course of oral lessons on plants.

Drawing: First half of Book #4, Krusis' Synthetic Series and first six cards of easy drawing lessons.

Vocal Music: Teach four-part and six-part measures in half, eighth and quarter notes. Division of beat into two parts, songs, and exercises.

Calisthenics: Once a day.

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FOURTH GRADE--SECOND HALF

Reading: Last half of Fourth Reader. Miscellaneous readings kept up. Drill in articulation, slides, pitch, force, time and quality; the drill being adapted to the ages and voice power of the pupils.

Spelling: An average of ten miscellaneous words a day.

Phonics: Constant pracitce in connection with reading and spelling.

Arithmetic: Applications of compound numbers. The metric system of weights and measures. Simple and compound proportion. Simple percentage.

Grammar: Review parts of speech and begin to teach their classes and modifications. Analysis, diagrams and parsing should keep pace with teaching. Exercises in syntax. A good text-book used as supplementary of the teacher's work.

History: History of Virginia completed.

Composition: Exercises as in first half. Dictation exercises carefully arranged so as to correct any bad habits in the pupils may have formed and to help them to form good habits in spelling, writing, punctuation and capitalization.

Writing: Copy Book #4 of some standard series. Analysis of letters continued.

Geography: Map of whole earth. Study North America and its divisions making a specialty of United States and of Virginia. Introduce a good textbook at beginning of this term.

Object Lessons: Oral lessons on plants continued.

Vocal Music: Teach scales of B flat and E flat. Show beat divided into three and four parts. Songs and exercises. A good musical Reader would furnish valuable help.

Drawing: Last half of Book #4 of Krusis' synthetic series and last six cards of series III of Easy Drawing Lessons.

Calisthenics: Once every day.

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FIFTH GRADE--FIRST HALF

Reading: First half of Fifth Reader. Elocutionary exercises suited to needs of class. Weekly readings from good authors.

Spelling: Fifteen miscellaneous words a day.

Arithmetic: The applications of percentage not involving time. Interest and its applications.

Grammar: Classes and modifications of parts of speech completed. Analysis and diagrams of simple, compound, and complex sentences. Parsing kept up. Exercises in syntax.

History: Of United States through Revolutionary War.

Composition: Reproduction exercises continued. Exercises in paraphrasing. Composition by topics. Letter writing.

Writing: Copy books of V and VI of some standard series.

Geography: South America, Europe, Asia, Africa and Australia. Maps of each.

Object Lessons: A simple course of oral lessons on plants, alternating with lessons on physiology and hygiene.

Vocal Music: Review preceding grades and teach remaining flat scales. Teach sharp four and flat seven songs and exercises.

Drawing: First half of Book #5 Krusis' Analytic Series.

Calisthenics: Once a day.

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FIFTH GRADE - - SECOND HALF

Reading: Fifth Reader completed. Exercises as in first half. Simple study of familiar authors.

Spelling: Fifteen miscellaneous words a day. Simple word analysis.

Arithmetic: Square and cubic root. A simple course in mensuration. Review of percentage and its applications.

Grammar: Add to previous work a fuller discussion of subjunctives, infinitives, participles and verb forms. Analysis extended to more difficult sentences and thorough review of work in previous grades. More difficult exercises in syntax.

Composition: Work of first half continued. Pupils stimulated to original work and to the framing of their own outlines.

Writing: Copy Books VII and VIII of some standard series.

History: United States completed.

Geography: Review of previous grades. Simple course of lessons in scientific geography.

Object Lessons: A simple course of oral lessons on minerals, alternating with lessons in physiology and hygiene.

Vocal Music: As many tones of the chromatic scale as may be needed in songs and exercises, but not in scale, as a whole.

Drawing: Last half of Book #5 Krusis' Analytic Series and Supplementary Book #1, leaves and flowers.

Calisthenics: Once a day.

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Richmond, Virginia, Course of Study, 1890-91

(Annual Report of Richmond Schools)

PRIMARY SCHOOLS

FOURTH PRIMARY GRADE--SECTION B-HALF SESSION

Reading: Familiar words and short sentences from the chart and blackboard. McGuffey's First Reader (Revised Edition) commenced. The subject to be taught by the "Word Method": Names, uses of period and interrogation point.

Spelling: Words from the reading lesson, also other familiar words to be taught. Pupils must copy as soon as they learn their form. The meaning of words to be taught chiefly by their use in easy sentences.

Arithmetic: Counting and adding by ones and twos to 12, either on the numeral frame or by counting other objects. Addition of single columns of five figures on the slate, using the numbers taught. Subtracting by ones and twos from numbers below ten. Roman numbers I, V, X and their combinations to XX. Arabic figures to 100 to be read at sight without numeration; also to be written on the slate.

Object Lessons: Simple forms as triangle, square, oblong, and circle, also terms straight and crooked.

Calkins: Chair, bat, door and slate.

Color: The seven principal colors to be taught and the children to point them out from color cards, articles of dress, flowers, etc.

Writing: Pupils copy words from the blackboard. Great care should be taken that they copy words correctly. Slates should be used for ruling.

Calisthenics: Regular daily exercise to be given.

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FOURTH PRIMARY GRADE--SECTION A
HALF SESSION

Reading: McGuffey's First Reader (Revised Edition) completed. Pupils must tell in their own language what they have been reading about. Names and uses of the period, interrogation and exclamation point. Exercises in elementary vowel sounds, in consonant sounds in combination with vowels in monosyllables. Phonetics to be omitted in half-day schools.

Spelling: Words from the reading lesson, also other familiar words to be taught. The meaning of words to be taught chiefly by their use in short sentences.

Arithmetic: Counting and adding by threes, fours and fives to 50, either on the numeral frame or by counting other objects. Addition of one column of six figures containing the figures taught. Subtraction of threes, fours and fives from numbers below ten. Roman numbers I, V, X, L, and their combinations through L. Arabic figures to 1000 to be read at sight without numeration; also to be written on the slate.

Object Lessons: Review previous instructions and teach simple forms as ball, semi-circle, ring and cube; also terms curve, square, corner and round corner.

Calkins: Blackboard, window, clock and numeral frame.

Color: The seven principal colors to be taught and the pupils to point them out from color cards, articles of dress, flowers, etc.

Writing: Pupils to be taught to make letters as they are made in copybooks of the system. Sentences with short words to be copied from the blackboard.

Calisthencis: Regular daily exercise to be given.

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THIRD PRIMARY GRADE
SECTION B-HALF SESSION

Reading: McGuffey's Second Reader (Revised Edition) first half. All new words must be explained and illustrated before they are given to pupils. Add to previous instruction the hyphen, with its simple use. Exercises in elementary sounds in words of one or two syllables, and silent letters named.

Spelling: Words from the reading lesson and other familiar words to be taught by their use in sentences. Words to be written on slate from dictation.

Arithmetic: Numeration and notation through six places (to 1,000,000); addition of three columns of six figures, containing any figure.

Mental Arithmetic: Adding by sixes, sevens, eights and nines to 54; subtracting by fives, sixes and sevens from numbers below ten, also simple practical questions in addition and subtraction. Oral Drills for rapid combination. Roman numbers through I, V, X, L and C, with their combinations to C.

Object Lessons: Review previous instructions, and in Form add cylinder, crescent, oval and hemisphere; also position of lives as Slanting, horizontal, vertical.

Calkins: Broom, sponge, book, knife and milk.

Color: Teach the primary and secondary colors and distinctions.

Language Lessons: Develop by conversation with pupils the meaning and use of words. Have them compose and write from dictation sentences on easy words from the reader, requiring the use of the period and capital letters, and frequently require them to compose sentences on words pronounced alike but spelled differently.

Penmanship: The small letters to be taught in the order in which they are given -i-u-ev-v-w-and-m. Pupils must name the principals employed in making the letters. Pupils must copy sentences with short words from the blackboard, exercise daily. They must be trained to make letters correctly in commencing the exercise.

Calisthenics: Regular daily exercise to be given.

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THIRD PRIMARY GRADE
SECTION A-HALF SESSION

Reading: McGuffey's Second Reader (Revised Edition) completed. All new words must be explained and illustrated before they are given the pupils. Exercises in elementary sounds if the vowels, and silent letters to be named.

Spelling: Words from the reading lessons and other familiar words to be taught, words to be written on the slate from dictation. Meaning of words to be taught by their use in sentences.

Arithmetic: Numeration and notation through six places to 1,000,000, addition of six columns of six figures, containing any length, multiplication examples of one figure.

Mental Arithmetic: Adding by eights, nines, and tens to 100; subtracting by sevens, eights and nines from numbers below twenty, also simple practical questions in addition and multiplication . Multiplication table through 9 times 12. Oral drills for rapid combinations. Roman numbers I, V, X, L and C to CC.

Geography: Teach orally the definitions relative to forms of land and water, location, direction and distance of the most prominent objects and principal places in the city and vicinity, occupations, the points of the compass and map of the school room.

Object Lessons: Review previous instructions and add cone and pyramids, spiral and wave lines; also angles, circumference and diameter.

Calkins: Glass, wood, sugar, salt, and glue.

Language Lessons: Develop by conversation with pupils the meaning and use of words. Have them compose and write from dictation sentences from easy words in their Reader, requiring the use of the period, interrogation and exclamation points, and frequently require them to compose sentences on words pronounced alike but spelled differently.

Penmanship: Review letters taught in previous grades, and teach o, a, e, c, r and n. Pupils must name the principles employed in making the letters. Writing in copy books twenty minutes each day. No. I copybook; shorter course to be used and completed in half session. Lead pencils to be used.

Calisthenics: Regular daily exercise to be given.

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SECOND PRIMARY GRADE
SECTION B-HALF SESSION

Reading: McGuffey's Third Reader (Revised Edition) first half. Meaning of words illustrated in sentences given, oral and written. Pupils must give in their own language the sense of the lesson read. Exercises in elementary sounds, both vowels and consonants, in words of one syllable. Silent letters to be noted. Careful attention to be paid oral phonetics.

Punctuation: Add to previous instructions question marks and apostrophe.

Calisthenics: Regular daily exercise to be given.

Spelling: Words from the reading lesson and other familiar words to be taught. Words to be written on slate from dictation. Pupils must be taught to spell the names of the states studied.

Arithmetic: Numeration and notation through nine places to 1,000,000,000; addition continued, and multiplication by 11's and 12's (as single figures), and by four figures taught, subtraction completed.

Mental Arithmetic: Multiplication Table to be taught 12 times 12. Oral drills for rapid combination simple, practical, questions in addition, subtraction and multiplication. Roman Numbers through all lower combinations to D.

Geography: Appleton's Elementary--Review previous grade and teach the New England and Middle Atlantic States in the order named.

Object Lessons: Review previous grade, and add radius, pentagon, hexagon, heptagon and octagon.

Callings: Gum arabic, clock, India rubber, whale bone and honey.

Language Lessons: Have the pupils compare and write from dictation sentences requiring the use of the period, interrogation point, and exclamation mark, and the apostrophe as denoting the possessive case. Also require them to compose sentences on the pictures in the Reader, and on words pronounced alike but spelled differently.

Penmanship: The letters s-t-d-l-and-b to be taught; pupils will give the principals employed in making the letters, also their lengths and widths. Copybook No. 2, shorter course to be used and completed in half session. Lead pencils to be used.

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SECOND PRIMARY GRADE
SECTION A-HALF SESSION

Reading: McGuffey's Third Reader (Revised Edition) completed. Meaning of words illustrated in sentences given, oral and written. Pupils must give in their own language the sense of the lesson. Exercises in elementary sounds, both vowels and consonants, in words of one and two syllables. Silent letters and accent to be noted. The names of the punctuation marks as they occur in the Reader, to be learned. Careful attention to be paid to oral phonetics.

Spelling: Words from reading lessons and other familiar words to be taught. Words to be written in exercise book from dictation with lead pencil.

Arithmetic: Numeration and notation completed; writing numbers through 12 places to 1,000,000,000,000. Multiplication completed and addition and subtraction reviewed, with practical examples in each. Division, with divisors of two figures to 25, the thorough teaching of short division (including 11 and 12) to precede the teaching of long division.

Mental Arithmetic: Practical questions in addition, multiplication and subtraction. Oral drills for capital combinations. Tables--Federal Money, Time and Dry measure to be taught, with illustrations from the pupils' experience in their use. Roman Numbers to DCCC.

Geography: Appleton's Elementary--Teach from p. 36 to Review of the United States, p. 50; omit boundaries of territories.

Object Lessons: Coal, wax, aleim, starch and lead.

Language Lessons: Course the same as Second Primary B, with the addition of sentences requiring the use of the quotation marks in unbroken quotations and sentences containing two designated words.

Penmanship: The letters h-p-q-g-and j to be taught. Pupils will give the principals employed in making the letters, also their length and width. Copybook No. 3, shorter course, to be used and completed in half session. Pen and ink to be used.

Calisthenics: Regular daily exercises.

Weekly reviews on all subjects.

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FIRST PRIMARY GRADE-SECTION B
HALF SESSION

Reading: Independent Third Reader, first half. Supplementary Reader of the same grade. The meaning of words illustrated in sentences given. Pupils must give in their own language the sense of the lesson. Phonic analysis of words from the reading lesson daily. Careful attention to be paid to oral phonetics.

Spelling: From the reading lesson, oral exercises four days in the week; one written lesson of 40 words from the oral lesson, 500 words to be written during the half session. Pen and ink to be used. Pupils must be taught to spell the names of the States and countries studied.

Arithmetic: White's Intermediate-Division completed. Practical examples found in Intermediate Arithmetic, under the four elementary rules to page 80, to be taught.

Mental Arithmetic: As far as written Arithmetic; to include exercises in the anlysis of; the operations. Exercises in rapid calculations without analysis. The tables of avoirdupois weight long measure and liquid measure with practical illustrations. Oral drills to be continued.

Roman Numbers: To M.

Geography: Appleton's Elementary. Teach United States, p. 19-25 inclusive, then Lesson XXXIX, p. 50, to Lesson LIX, p. 69--omit p. 51.

Object Lessons: Bread, leather, iron, camphor and cotton.

Composition: Child's Book of Language by Stekery. First ten lessons, Book No. 1. Dictation from the Reader of the grade three times a week. The aim of the dictation exercise must be the application of the rules of language rather than the spelling of difficult words. With the object lessons in the form of a composition. In punctuation review thoroughly all the marks taught in the previous grades and add apostrophe and contracted words.

Penmanship: The letters y-z-f-and-s to be taught. Pupils must give the principals employed in making the letters and their length and width. Writing half hour each day. Copybook No. 4. Shorter course to be used and completed in half session. Pupils use pen and ink.

Calisthenics: Regular daily exercises.

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FIRST PRIMARY GRADE
SECTION A---HALF SESSION

Reading: Independent Third Reader completed. Supplementary Reader of the same grade may be used. The meaning of words illustrated in sentences given. Pupils must give in their own language the sense of the lesson. Phonic analysis, including accent of words, from the reading lesson daily. Careful attention to be paid to oral phonetics.

Spelling: From the reading lesson, Oral exercises four days in the week; one written lesson of 40 words from the four oral lessons; pen and ink to be used; 500 words to be written during the half session. Pupils must be taught to spell the names of the countries studied.

Arithmetic: Whites' Intermediate--Federal Money, Aliquot parts of any one part. Bills and receipts, Factoring, Cancellation, Greatest Common Divisor and S. Common Multiple.

Mental Arithmetic: As far as Written Arithmetic. In addition to the Mental examples of the text-book examples like those of the written. Practical examples to be given regularly, including exercises with the analysis of the operations. The tables--Square Measure and Cubic Measure, with illustration of their uses. Oral drills to be continued.

Roman Numbers: Through dates.

Geography: Appleton's Elementary--From p. 69 to p. 100, omitting Lesson 67 p. 78, and review of Asia and Africa, Lessons 75 and 81.

Object Lesson: Calkins, silk, copper, ink and brass.

Composition: Child's Book of Language by Steckney--Last ten lessons, Book No. 1. Dictation exercises from the Reader of the grade three times a week. The aim of Dictation exercises must be the application of the rules of language rather than the spelling of difficult words. In punctuation review thoroughly all the marks taught in previous grades, and add broken quotations. Write the object lessons in the form of a composition. Letter Writing to be taught. Body of the letter to contain at least five lines.

Penmanship: Writing in Copy Books half hour each day. No. 5 copy book. Shorter course, to be completed in half session.

Calisthenics: Regular daily exercises.

Weekly reviews in all subjects.

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GRAMMAR SCHOOLS

THIRD GRAMMAR GRADE--SECTION B--HALF SESSION

Reading: McGuffey's Fourth Reader (Revised Edition:) - First half. Particular attention to be given to emphasis, articulation and naturalness of expression. The meaning of words illustrated in sentences given oral and written. Pupils will give the sense of the lesson in their own language. Phonic analysis of the words form the reading lesson. Careful attention to be paid to oral phonetics.

Spelling: From the reading lessons. Oral exercise four days in the week. One written exercise of 40 words from the four oral lessons, 500 words to be written during the half session. Also select list of technical terms from arithmetic, grammar and geography.

Written Arithmetic: Whites' Intermediate. Review previous grades. Common Fractions commenced and continued through multiplication of fractions with practical examples of the same. Aliquot parts of one part to be taught.

Mental Arithmetic: As far as Written Arithmetic and also other examples like the written.

Geography: Begin Appleton's Higher Geography and continue to bottom of p. 16, omitting Inclination of the Axis, p. 5, to Zones, p. 6. Tables of Numbers p. 7. How to describe Land and Water. Divisions p. 10 and 11. Man p. 14; Social Conditions, Religion and Government, p. 15; also teach Virginia Supplement omitting Geology, Railroads, political organization, colleges, etc. and Historical sketch. Special attention to be given to Virginia, with a detail map of the same, locating principal cities, principal towns, rivers and railroads. Teach the Virginia Supplement first.

Grammar: Harvey's Elementary Grammar (Revised Edition) commenced and taught in regular order to p. 88, omitting sections 14, 17, 19, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 31, 32, 33, and 35 through 40. Analysis and construction of simple sentences; parsing of the noun. The diagrams of the textbook to be entirely ignored. Teach the paradigm of the verb "to be" in the indicative and potential moods.

Composition: Child's Book of Language by Stickney; first ten lessons. Book No. 2, writing notes of invitation and reproduction of selections read by teacher. Dictation in connection with composition to be continued. Dictation from the reader of the

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previous grade three times a week.

Penmanship: Writing in Copybook half-hour daily. No. 1, large book to be used and completed in half session.

Calisthenics: Regular daily exercises.

Weekly reviews in all subjects.

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SECOND GRAMMAR GRADE
SECTION B--HALF SESSION

Reading: Particular attention to be given to emphasis, articulation and naturalness of expression. The meaning of words illustrated in sentences given. Phonic analysis of words from the reading lessons. Careful attention to be paid to oral phonetics.

Spelling: From the reading lessons, oral exercise four days in the week; written lesson of 40 words from the four oral lessons; 500 words to be written during the half session; also select list of technical words from arithmetic, grammar and geography. Pupils must be taught to spell the names of States and Countries studied.

Written Arithmetic: Whites' Complete:--Review previous grades. Teach Longitude and Time-Percentage-Simple Interest. United States Rule for partial payments, the first three problems in Interest and the first seven examples on p. 191, and compound interest. Omit all other applications of percentage.

Mental Arithmetic: As far as Written Arithmetic and other examples like the written.

Geography: Appleton's Higher Geography: Begin on p. 59 and teach through p. 76 to Europe, omitting States, Tidal Summary, p. 64. Then beginning on p. 5, teach the earth's motions to the Five Zones p. 6, also Man, p. 14, to Mineral Kingdom. Then teach pages 15 and 16. Map of United States (omitting boundaries of the States) to be drawn.

Grammar: Harvey's Practical Grammar (Revised Edition) Review the work of the previous grades, giving special attention to the paradigm of the verb, and teach from p. 25 to p. 73. In analysis of sentences use largely examples which involve the several uses of the relative and interrogative pronouns. Omit the infinitive and participle in parsing and analysis, and all sections on composition.

History: Holmes' History of the United States, from p. 110 to 168. Omit two pages of topical review and synchronal Chart, also foot notes.

Composition: Two compositions on General Andrew Lewis, two on George Mason, two on Richard Henry Lee, and four on concrete subjects. The teacher will give the class interesting accounts of these characters and the class will write out the accounts in their own language. Dictation exercises continued.

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Penmanship: Writing in the copy book half hour each day. Book No. 4, large series, to be completed in half session.

Calisthenics: Regular daily exercises.

Weekly reviews on all subjects.

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THIRD GRAMMAR GRADE
SECTION A--HALF SESSION

Reading: McGuffey's Fourth Reader (Revised Edition) completed, particular attention to be given to emphasis, articulation, and naturalness of expression. The meaning of words illustrated in sentences given oral and written. Pupils will give the sense of the lesson in their own language. Phonic analysis of words from the reading lesson. Careful attention to be paid to oral phonetics.

Spelling: From the reading lessons oral exercises four days in the week; one written exercise of 40 words from the four oral lessons. 500 words to be written during the half session. Also select list of technical terms from Arithmetic; grammar; and geography. Teach pupils to spell names of states studied.

Written Arithmetic: White's Intermediate--Review previous grades. Common Fractions completed and Decimals and Aliquot parts taught in full, with practical examples of each. Teach up to the standard of White's Complete Arithmetic omitting on p. 72 examples 71, 74-75-76-77-and 79.

Mental Arithmetic: As far as Written Arithmetic. Examples like the written examples.

Grammar--: Harvey's Elementary Grammar (Revised Edition) Review previous grades. Teach from p. 88 to section 96. Also sections 32 and 47 and teach only the paradigm of the Indicative and Potential moods. Analysis and construction of simple sentences, and easy relative sentences containing the Relative only as the subject or object of a verb. Parse all parts of speech taught.

Geography: Appleton's Higher Geography; begin on p. 17, North America, and teach to bottom of page 21. Continue through New England States disregarding special questions on railroads. Map of New England States to be drawn.

History: Holmes' History of the United States--from p. 14 to 58, omitting synchronal Chart, one page, Summary of topics and foot notes.

Composition: Child's Book of Language by S. ickney--Last ten lessons, Book No. 2. Selections read by the teacher to be reproduced. Dictation exercise from the Independent Third Reader. Writing letters, receipts, orders and ads.

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Penmanship: Writing in copy book half hour daily; No. 2, large book to be used and completed.

Calisthenics: Regular daily exercises.

Weekly reviews of all subjects.

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FIRST GRAMMAR GRADE
SECTION B--HALF SESSION

Reading: Independent Fifth Reader, first half--Careful attention to the rules of Elocution. Definition of words illustrated in sentences showing their correct use. Phonic analysis of words from the reading lesson. Attention to oral phonetics.

Spelling: From the reading lessons--Select list of technical terms from arithmetic, grammar and geography (See other section of spelling).

Arithmetic: White's Complete: Review previous grades and teach pp. 144 and 145: The applications of percentage, omitting annual Interest, True Discount, Exchange, Bonds, Equation of Payments and Equation of Accounts. In Bank Discount teach first 12 examples and then only the 16-17-18-25-26-and 27th.

Mental Arithmetic: As far as Written Arithmetic and other examples like the written.

Geography: Appleton's Higher Geography: Europe and Asia--Maps of Europe to be drawn.

Grammar: Harvey's Practical Grammar: Review the preceding grade and teach pp. 73 to 136. Analysis and parsing continued. In analysis and parsing use only the simplest of the sentences in the last two pages of the grade. Give special attention to unfamiliar and participal constructions.

History: Holmes' History of United States: From p. 168 to 228, omitting two pages of topical review, synchronal chart, and foot notes.

Composition: One composition on Edward Pendleton, one on Edward Randolph, two on Patrick Henry, two on Jefferson. The teacher will give these characters, and pupils write out account in own language. Weekly exercises in written compositions to be written besides a production of suitable selections from a supplementary reading book. Letter writing and business forms continued. Dictation exercises continued.

Penmanship: Writing in the copy book three times each week. Large book No. 5. Blank book to contain specimens of same work.

Calisthenics: Regular daily exercise.

Weekly reviews on all subjects.

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FIRST GRAMMAR GRADE
SECTION A--HALF SESSION

Reading: Independent Fifth Reader: latter half--Attention to rules of Elocution. Definition of words illustrated in sentences showing their correct use. Attention to oral phonetics.

Spelling: From reading lesson and all countries and cities of Virginia. (See other sections).

Written Arithmetic: White's Complete: Review previous grades. Teach Promissory Notes and Drafts, Domestic Exchange, Proportion Partnership, Equation of Payments; First class in Equation of Accounts. Involution, Square root and its applications, demonstrate Numbers--p. 117-118-129. Omit Exercise 18, p. 215.

Mental Arithmetic: As far as Written Arithmetic and also other examples like written.

Geography: Appleton's Higher Geography; Africa and Australia and general map questions on North America and the United States, and map questions in the Virginia Supplement pp. 3 and 4. Map of North America to be drawn.

Grammar: Harvey's Practical Grammar: From p. 136 to Contracted sentences p. 178. General review of previous part analysis and parsing continued. Special attention to constructions involving infinitive, participals, and pronouns.

History: Holmes' History of United States from p. 228 to 303, omitting synchronal chart and foot-notes.

Composition: One composition on John Marshall, one on Thomas Nelson, one on Henry Clay, two on Robert E. Lee, one on General Jackson and four on other subjects. Teacher will relate to class interesting accounts of these characters; pupils will write out accounts in own language.

Penmanship: Writing in copy book--three times each week. Blank book to contain specimens of school work.

Calisthenics: Regular daily exercises.

Weekly review on all subjects.

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Virginia State Course of Study for 1907

FIRST PRIMARY GRADE

Reading: Blackboard, Chart, Primer and First Reader. (1) Learning to call at sight from blackboard, chart and books all words found in the Primer and First Reader. (2) Reading at sight sentences formed from the words learned. (3) Phonic drill or separation of spoken words into their elementary sounds and association of these sounds with the letters which stand for them. (4) Drill in articulation. (5) Intelligent, distinct and ready reading of lessons on the chart and in the Primer (if one be used) and First Reader. (6) Demand correct expression from the very first. Word calling is not reading. (7) Develop the power in the child to grasp the group of words at sight.

Spelling: If the word method in reading is used, spelling should not be taken up for the first three months; otherwise, begin this subject after the sounds of letters have been learned. Words selected from reader and word lists prepared by teacher. Copy words from blackboard.

Writing: Have pupils draw vertical lines of varying length, horizontal lines, small and large circles. Pupils copy from the board small and capital letters, words and short sentences.

Language: Bible stories, fairy tales and fables should be told by the teacher in a simple and attractive way. Have children reproduce them, and pay careful attention to correct speech. Conversational lessons in language may be based upon the nature study work. Tell such stories as the following: "The Lion and the Mouse," "The Three Bears", "Little Red Cap", "The Old Woman and Her Pig", "The Story of Tom Thumb", "Jack and the Beanstalk". Choose certain selections to be memorized, such as "Little Bo-Peep", "Simple Simon", "There was a Crooked Man". Teach use of capitals in proper names, beginning of a sentence; period; question mark.

Number Work: Very simple and concrete work. Use objects to teach the meaning of numbers and how to count. Be careful to limit the use of objects in teaching addition, but as early as possible attempt to cultivate the memory process. Practice rapid addition and subtraction. Count by ones, twos, fives to one hundred. Read and write numbers to one hundred. Teach combinations of numbers from one to ten. Draw by measure, square, oblong and triangle. Easy oral problems not involving more than one step. Teach gills, pints, quarts and gallons; also inches, feet yards; days and weeks, and months.

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Nature Study: Aims: 1. An intelligent interpretation and appreciation of the beauty by which we are surrounded. 2. A happiness in out-of-door life that should tend to develop "a sound mind in a sound body". 3. The power to see, think, feel, tell and do. (a) Seeing: Habit of accurate, systematic observation. (b) Thinking: Knowledge. What to look for and how to look for it. The uses of "Common things". Laws governing certain phenomena. This knowledge gained by the child's own observation and independent thinking, supplemented by reading and by the teacher's knowledge. (c) Feeling: The wonderful beauty and plan, the perfection of each thing in nature, and its close relation to the rest of God's creation, as revealed to the children in the study of nature, will inspire in them a feeling of abiding interest in, and love and reverence for, their Creator. (d) Telling and doing: Expression. Power to express in words and act what is seen, thought and felt. (Throughout all the work in Nature Study the children should have the opportunity of studying the actual, living specimen. In many cases they can be studied in their natural environment, and in others they can be brought into the classroom.)
Autumn: Talks about the signs of approaching rest. Plants; study of the golden-rod, sunflower and nasturtium; color and shape of flowers; arrangement of flowers in a bowl, with regard to beauty and harmony. Development of seeds--how protected and scattered. Fruits: Apple, pear, plum and peach--color and shape; how seeds are protected and scattered. Animals: talks on the cat and dog from observation in schoolroom. Disappearance of birds and insects. Natural Phenomena: clouds, rain, winds, sun-time of rising and setting, rainbow (as opportunity offers).
Winter: Plants: talks about the appearance of trees; winter buds, leaf scars on twigs of maple and poplar; life sleeping in roots, in stems, in buds, their food and shelter. Minerals: rocks, etc., when possible, specimens should be brought to the school to handle and talk about. Natural Phenomena: ice and snow (as opportunity offers).
Spring: Talks about the signs of awakening life. Plants: germination of nasturtium and sunflower seeds (saved by children during autumn); beans and peas in damp cotton or sawdust; unfolding of buds--the lilac and pussy willow; talks about early spring flowers, the tulip, violet and jonquil--their color, shape, roots, etc. Teach arrangement in vases. Animals: horse, cow, sheep, food covering, etc. Return of the birds, a study of the robin. Natural Phenomena: rain, wind, etc; sun-time and place of rising and setting compared with observation made in autumn.

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Drawing: At least two periods of twenty to thirty minutes each should be allowed for this subject every week. It is necessary for schools to be provided with a few simple models, as the cube, square, sphere, etc. Observation, description and rough drawing of the simplest of these models will constitute the work for the first two years. Take up sphere, cube, cylinder. Paper folding and cutting. Drawing from natural objects, if desired.

MORALS AND MANNERS

Definite Work: Teachers are urged to give careful attention to this subject. Heretofore the little effort devoted to it has been too scattering and indefinite. In order to make instruction in this department more thorough and systematic, the following outline is given. For convenience it is divided, as other subjects, into seven grades; but this division need not be strictly adhered to except in cases where a separate room is provided for each grade. If the outline is not followed in order, however, teachers should use due caution to see that pupils are carefully instructed in all of the topics.

Politeness: In home, in school, in every-day life; special lessons on politeness to strangers, to guests, at the table, in company.

Orderly Behavior: Teach pupils to enter schoolroom and leave at recess without noise or confusion. Some time should be given to marching practice at dismissal. Caution against heavy walking about the room, undue whispering, talking, and so forth. Try to instill the idea that this work is an essential part of school training.

Gentleness: Show difference between this and rowdyism; how commendable it is in speech and manner; favorable impression made by gentleness; its approval by all good people.

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SECOND PRIMARY GRADE

Reading: First Reader, Second Reader; the blackboard and charts prepared by the teacher giving list of new words taught for drill in pronunciation. (1) Continue phonic drill begun in First Grade. (2) Continue drill in articulation. (3) Accustom pupils to take in a sentence at a glance, and guard against hesitation and poor enunciation. (4) Drill in reading to secure an agreeable tone of voice, ready control of vocal organs, correct emphasis and inflection. (5) Short pieces memorized and recited.

Spelling: Words from Second Reader. Word list prepared by teacher. (Elementary spelling book may be used if desired.)

Writing: Copy words and sentences from board. The teacher should select sentences from the language work. Use care as to form, accuracy and neatness of writing. Use Copy-Book No. 1.

Language: Bible stories, fables and stories learned the first year should be reproduced orally. The following may be given: "The Ant and the Cricket", "The Foolish Tortoise", "The Old Lion", "The Battle of the Beasts", "The Camel and His Master". No formal grammar should be attempted at this time, though the various kinds of sentences and their appropriate punctuation should be learned. Simple lessons should be given on nouns, a few verbs and sentences. Encourage pupils to correct speech in relating the stories given. Give also "Robinson Crusoe" orally. Copying and dictation. Prose and poetic selections should be memorized regularly.

Number Work: Combination of all numbers to one hundred. Roman numerals to one hundred. Parts of numbers to nine-tenths. Teach by use of actual measures liquid measure, dry measure, long measure; our coins. Rapid addition and subtraction, oral and written. Easy problems involving not more than two steps. Read and write numbers to ten thousand. Addition and subtraction of numbers of two figures. Multiplication by one figure; multiplication table, twos and threes. Review and drill.

Nature Study: Aims: 1. An intelligent interpretation and appreciation of the beauty by which we are surrounded. 2. A happiness in out-of-door life that should tend to develop "a sound mind in a sound body." 3. The power to see, think, feel, tell and do. (a) Seeing: Habit of accurate, systematic observation. (b) Thinking: Knowledge. What to look for and how to look for it. The uses of "common things". Laws governing

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certain phenomena. This knowledge gained by the child's own observation and independent thinking, supplemented by reading and by the teacher's knowledge. (c) Feeling: The wonderful beauty and plan, the perfection of each thing in nature, and its close relation to the rest of God's creation, as revealed to the children in the study of nature, will inspire in them a feeling of abiding interest in, and love and reverence for, their Creator. (d) Telling and doing: Expression. Power to express in words and act what is seen, thought and felt. (Throughout all the work in Nature Study the children should have the opportunity of studying the actual, living specimen. In many cases they can be studied in their natural environment, and in others they can be brought into the schoolroom.)

Autumn: Talks about the signs of the season. Plants: study the aster, thistle, and morning glory, or other native flowers, the shape and color of the flowers, the shape of the leaves. Watch the development of seeds, and notice how they are scattered. Study the pumpkin, squash, tomato--shape, color, flesh, seeds. Study the leaves of the oak, maple and poplar--shape, change in color, draw and color with crayons. Animals: squirrel, rabbit, birds, frogs, fishes, etc. Natural Phenomena: As in the First Grade; frog (as opportunity offers), north star, big dipper. Have a daily calendar of the weather.

Winter: Plants: appearance of trees; the pine and cedar, winter buds and leaf scars; compare the oak, maple and poplar. Animals: hen, fish, shape and coverings, home, habits, etc.; the snow bird; dormant animals, and those that keep awake. Minerals: lead, iron, salt-talks about the sea. Natural Phenomena: snow, ice, hail and vapor (as opportunity offers); position of the sun in the heavens as compared with position during autumn.

Spring: Plants: crocus, narcissus, hyacinth--life in bulbs; pumpkin, squash, tomato seeds soaked and sprouted to study seedling in different stages of growth; unfolding of buds--oak, maple and poplar. Animals: return of birds; review study of the robin and study the blue bird; tadpoles--teach transformation by observation of cocoons. Natural Phenomena: as before, daily calendar; talks about "full" and "new" moon.

Drawing: Drawing from type model and from blocks, hemisphere, square, prism. Continue paper folding and cutting.

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MORALS AND MANNERS

Definite Work: Repeat instruction of former year, with special attention to points needing emphasis.

Kindness: Kindness to parents, to brothers and sisters, to aged and infirm, to daily companions; kindness to animals.

Truthfulness: Show how this virtue is the basis of faith that makes possible the work of the world; how work is impeded and sometimes rendered impossible by falsehood; necessity of keeping one's word; harm of prevarication and exaggeration, of making false impressions.

Duty: Teach fidelity to duty, duty to parents, to teachers, to those about us; duty to God.

Obedience: Teach submission to proper authority; show its bearing on well-ordered society; obedience to parents, to teachers, to law, to conscience; obdience to God.

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THIRD PRIMARY GRADE

Reading: Third Reader. Supplementary reading from other Third Readers, fairy tales, stories of mythology, deeds of heroism, biography. (1) Encourage pupils in appreciation of literature (child literature). (2) Continue drills in pronunciation, enunciation and correct expression. (3) See that the pupil understands the thought presented in the reading.

Spelling: A spelling-book may be taken up in this grade. A list of words from the Reader should also be assigned. Short sentences for dictation and exercises, such as having pupils write all words they remember with the same ending, formation of plural forms, etc.

Writing: The copybook should be continued in this grade, and in addition, exercises given from the board. Teachers are urged to see that all of the written work of pupils is carefully and neatly done. They can encourage pupils to write clearly and legibly in their composition and dictation work as well as in the copy-book.

Language: Elementary Language Book. Oral and written reproduction of stories already learned. The stories of this grade should embrace early Greek myths, the story of Tell, of Siegfried, Alfred, Ulysses, Robin Hood. Bible stories and stories of personal experiences should be told by pupils; also observation stories. Attention should be given to the noun, verb, pronoun, descriptive adjective and adverb. Mistakes in the child's speech should be carefully corrected. Heading, address and signature of letter should be taught.

Number Work: Multiplication by three figures. Review short division. Problems comprising work in fundamental rules. Multiplication table through six. Oral and written problems of two steps. Roman numerals to one thousand. An elementary text should be introduced in this grade.

Geography: Home geography lessons mostly observational. Study rain; weather; make weather chart; the sun, time and place of rising, etc.; directions; work of water; visit brook or running stream; the moon; study of man--Indians, Arab, Eskimo, Japanese; read Hiawatha or other stories; use pictures; the soil; frost and its work; snow and ice; spring. In studying man note appearance, dress, homes, food, disposition; map lessons, draw plan of schoolroom, house, ground, etc. Teach distance, color, form; study native hills, valleys, streams, rocks, soils and the habits and the customs of the people. Sand modeling, when practicable. Read "Seven Little Sisters", "Little Folks of Many Lands", etc.

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Autumn: Plants: sweet-pea, pansy, milkweed--shape and color of flowers; development of fruit; how seeds are protected and scattered; arrangement of flowers in vase; study of fleshy fruits. Animals: watch metamorphosis of the cabbage worm; study general preparation of animals for winter. Daily Phenomena; as in lower grades with dew and frost; daily calendar; weekly markings of limit of sunlight on schoolroom floor or walls; records carefully kept.
Winter: Plants: study of the holly tree. Animals; the sparrow; talks about dormant animals. Natural Phenomena; review lessons taught previously; continue weekly records, adding temperature; simple explanation of the thermometer. Minerals; marble, copper, sulphur, chalk--see and handle; uses of each.
Spring: Plants: bean, pea, morning glory, corn and pumpkin; comparison; soaked and sprouted; seedling studied in various stages; the sugar maple and walnut; awakening life in roots and bulbs. Animals: return of the birds; the meadow larks; special study of the butterfly. Natural Phenomena: how clouds are formed; their color and movement; weekly records; limit of sunlight; compare autumn and winter records.

Drawing: Observation and study of the prism, square, pyramid, and vase form. The teacher should remember that faulty drawing is commonly due to poor observation. Use free hand drawing.

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MORALS AND MANNERS

Gratitude: Show some things for which to be thankful; teach thankfulness to God, the giver of all good; teach expression of gratitude to parents, teachers and friends.

Forgiveness: Show how closely the interests of pupils are intertwined, how natural for mistakes to occur, and how necessary to overlook these for the common good; try to instill a liberal and forgiving disposition.

Confession: Teach how manly a thing it is to confess a wrong, how cowardly to conceal; encourage the pupil to confess his own misdeeds, rather than those of others.

Honesty: Show that honesty is better than wealth; great need of it in every-day life; teach how ignoble is cheating, lying, etc.

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FOURTH PRIMARY GRADE

Reading: Fourth Reader, supplementary books to be read at home and discussed in class. (1) Emphasize proper expression of the thought. Mastery of the thought and of the pronunciation of the words insisted upon as a preparation for the oral reading of a lesson. (2) Pupils trained in stating orally the substance of the reading lesson, sometimes before and sometimes after the reading, aiming to secure good expression. (3) Analysis of lesson in respect to character, place of occurence, time, incidents, comparison with other lessons--1st, resemblance; 2nd, difference; 3rd, choice of lessons; 4th, reason for choice.

Spelling: Continue use of spelling-book. Give word lists illustrating various changes when certain suffixes are added. Study title, common abbreviations, forms for address, letter head, etc. Spelling and meaning of words often confused with illustrative sentences.

Writing: Copy-book. Dictation and selective sentences.

Language: Continue elementary language book. Review work already done on noun, pronoun, verb, adjective and adverb. Continue letter writing, giving attention to paragraphing, correct syllabication at the end of the line, punctuation, capitalization and penmanship. Dictation exercises should be given. Have pupils write short compositions from brief outlines.

Number Work: Oral problems in percentage; fractions 1/2, 1/4, 1/3, 1/5, taught to .50, .25, .33 1/3, .20, and as 50 per cent, 33 1/3 per cent, and 20 per cent. Rapid addition and subtraction. Multiplication and division thoroughly taught. Constant review, especially on tables. Give quick, short drills on many problems involving small numbers and a few problems with large numbers. Forms of bills and receipts.

History: The history work in this grade should be oral. While it is designed primarily to lay a foundation for the course in Virginia and American History, yet careful attention should be paid to stories and short biographies of other countries as well as of our own. The following comprises the work of this grade: Stories of King Arthur, Romulus, Roland, Hiawatha. Review of pertinent stories already given in Language and Reading. Short biographies of (Greek) Socrates and Alexander; (Roman) Hannibal, Ceasar; (German) Luther, Bismarck; (English) Gladstone; (Dutch) William of Orange; (Russian) Peter the Great; (American) John Smith, Miles Standish, William Penn, Patrick Henry, Franklin, Washington, Boone, Jefferson

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Lee, Jackson. It is suggested that one of these stories or biographies be taken each.

In addition to the above, considerable time should be devoted to local history, as settlement of county or town, early history, growth, occupations of people, leading industries, etc.

Geography: Home geography, continent; make map of town, county and state. Study town and country houses used for homes; material, where from; food; vegetables, where obtained; fruits, meats, milk; fuel and light; wood, some facts in forestry; kerosene oil, gas; clothing; woolen, cotton, silk, linen, leather, rubber; industries; surface and other physical features; State; ways of traveling; describe journeys through different parts of the State; use pictures; note cities, mountains, rivers, industries; boundaries. In connection with this work teach meaning of map symbols; the earth as a whole--form, size, motion, globe, Eastern and Western Hemispheres; the grand divisions, location, comparative size, permanent characteristics; develop idea of continent, island, peninsula, etc.; distribution of coasts. Begin elementary text.

Nature Study: Aims: I. An intelligent interpretation and appreciation of the beauty by which we are surrounded. 2. A happiness in out-of-door life that should tend to develop "a sound mind in a sound body". 3. The power to see, think, feel, tell and do. (a) Seeing: Habit of accurate, systematic observation. (b) Thinking: Knowledge. What to look for and how to look for it. The uses of "common things". Laws governing certain phenomena. This knowledge gained by the child's own observation and independent thinking, supplemented by reading and by the Teacher's knowledge. (c) Feeling: The wonderful beauty and plan, the perfection of each thing in nature, and its close relationship to the rest of God's creation, as revealed to the children in the study of nature, will inspire in them a feeling of abiding interest in, and love and reverence for, their Creator. (d) Telling and doing: Expression. Power to express in words and act what is seen, thought and felt. (Throughout all the work in Nature Study the children should have the opportunity to study the actual, living specimens. In many cases they can be studied in their natural environment, and in others they can be brought into the classroom.)

Autumn: Plants: a special study of leaves--parts, shape, veins, kind, use, etc.; study the marigold, zinna and chrysanthemum--color, shape, seed vessels--how to arrange tastefully in vases; nuts found in neighborhood--shape, how protected. Animals: a study of the ant--parts, habits, etc. Natural Phenomena; review talks on thunder and lightning.

Winter: Metals: mined, manufactured, shipped. Natural products used in building a house. Water Animals: fish, oyster, and clam.

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Spring: Plants: teach terms--herb, shrub, tree; study the growing plant; the position, arrangement, and unfolding of leaf buds; the position and arrangement of leaves; the parts, shape, etc., of leaves reviewed; study the flower and its development; flowers and their parts, including pollen; the uses of the parts of a plant--to the plant, to man. Teach that the chief work of the plant is to produce seeds; show that the growth of a plant depends on heat, light, and moisture. Birds: woodpecker and oriole. Natural Phenomena: teach day and night.

Drawing: Representation: Careful study of the forms of the object and pictorial representation. Objects taken from nature study lessons, as fruits, leaves, etc. Use also the objects from the schoolroom.

MORALS AND MANNERS

Courage: Give many examples of courage in such a way as to command the pupils' admiration; teach how pupils will have ample opportunity to practice courage and in the little things of every-day life.

Self-Respect: Show difference between this and self-conceit; show how this quality rests on consciousness of moral worth; illustrate and explain.

Self-Control: Control of temper; point out the sad results from loss of temper; avoidance of hasty words.

Bad Language: Language expression of ideas or thoughts, and show what the real man is; discuss the bad impression made by profanity. Show how foolish and wicked is profanity; give particular attention to the defiling influence of evil books and literature.

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FIRST GRAMMAR GRADE

Reading: Fourth Reader completed. Continuation of work as indicated in 1, 2, 3, 4 of fourth primary. Supplementary reading taken from history used in grade, stories from history, biography.

Spelling: Words from spelling-book selected to illustrate certain changes, such as y into i; to add ly and eith; plurals in s or es; doubling a final letter to add ing, etc. Further study of punctuation and dictation. Continue spelling of lists of words from other school subjects.

Writing: Copy-book. Continue practice in dictation and in writing selected sentences.

Language: Language book completed. Continue work on nouns, teaching plural forms, possessive forms; work on verbs, teaching verb forms; pronouns, kinds of pronouns. Teach use of sentences, phrases, clauses. Analysis of simple sentences. Combine short, simple sentences into easy, connected discourse. Continue work of writing compositions from outlines. Have pupils write compositions based on their own experiences.

Number Work: Compute the capacity of bins, boxes and rooms; problems in excavation at ordinary prices. Make out bills for hay, coal, grain, etc., at prevailing prices. Lay off a rod in school-room floor; teach its relation to foot, yard, mile. Problems in plastering and painting at prevailing rates.

History: Continue the study of local history. Pay special attention to the government of district and county or town, showing manner of election and general duties of the following officers: District--Justice of peace, constable, school board. County--Board of supervisors, sheriff, clerk, commonwealth's attorney, treasurer, school board, school superintendent, courts. Town or City--Council, mayor, treasurer, assessor, board of education, school superintendent, courts, Study with text-book history of Virginia, giving attention to following: Early settlement, John Smith, Indians, charters, Lord Delaware, Governor Dale, House of Burgesses, growth of colony, Governor Berkeley, under the Commonwealth, Bacon's Rebellion, negro slavery, Virginia in the Revolution, William and Mary College, Governor Spotswood, Dinwiddie, George Washington, Virginia Presidents, social and industrial conditions to 1860, part in War between States, recent development and improvement.

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Geography: Use sample products and pictures freely. Have map-drawing and modeling. Complete elementary text. Study grand divisions--North America, South America, Europe, Asia, Africa, noting only location, outline, features, rivers, climate, productions, race of people, political divisions and principal cities. United States study by group, or productions (regions), following the plan of text-book. Study cotton, wheat, cattle, lumber, coal, iron, fisheries, Correlate work with history.

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Autumn: Plants: fruits and their classification; a special study of grains. Insects: a study of the spider and the house fly--parts, habits, and uses. Natural Phenomena: the action of wind, rain, rivers, heat, and cold, plants and animals, in changing and forming soil.
Winter: Carefully examine and compare in color, fineness and composition: loam, clay, sand, gravel and pebbles. Study the formation of granite, limestone and sandstone.
Spring: Plants: Study the flowers and analyze the flowers of the buttercup, apple, peach, violet, and pansy; petals, sepals, stamens, pollen, etc.; study carefully several native trees, their parts, relations and uses; fertilization and reproduction. Birds: humming bird, wren. Water animals: lobster, crab. Natural Phenomena; simple experiments to teach matter and force.

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Drawing: Study and representation of objects similar to the cylinder and square prism and of simple specimens of nature. Construction: View drawing from type models and objects like them. Draw cup, saucers, etc.

MORALS AND MANNERS

Health: Show that proper development of health is important; how related to mental development; the responsibility upon us to give proper care to our bodies; teach that ill-health hinders usefulness and happiness, and that it is often brought about by evil habits which fix themselves upon us in our youth.

Temperance: Teach moderation in appetite for things not harmful; abstinence in things that are harmful; show serious effects of cigarette smoking, of alcoholic liquors.

Bad Habits: More easily formed than broken; how to break a bad habit; habits that injure reputation, that give offense to others, etc.

Industry: Explain how industrious habits should be formed in early years; the bright prospects before industrious people; the happy influence of regular occupation; evils of laziness and vagrancy.

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SECOND GRAMMAR GRADE

Reading: Literary reading. Supplementary work from history, biography, travels. Pupils should become familiar with much that has been written by American authors. (1) Cultivate the taste of the pupil and give him a stock of the best literature. (2) Intelligent reading insisted upon as a basis for expression reading. (3) Selections should be memorized and recited.

Spelling: Careful review of various classes of words already studied. General laws of spelling and exceptions. Words from lists prepared by teacher.

Writing: Copy-book. Teacher should be very careful to see that all written work by pupils in composition and dictation is neatly and carefully done.

Language: English Grammar. A more serious study of this branch should now be undertaken. Teach: the sentence, the parts of speech and their inflections, special attention to the verb, its conjugation, auxiliary verbs. Teachers are advised to teach the full subjunctive mood as a regular part of the verb conjugation. Frequent recitations of memorized selections.

Number Work: Review fundamental operations. Study carefully factoring, least common multiple, greatest common divisor, common and decimal fractions, denominate numbers. In addition to problems in the text give practical examples as indicated in the first grammar grade.

History: History of United States. Study carefully the following topics: 1. Discovery and Colonization. Conditions in Europe in the fifteenth century; early explorers and their settlements; colonization of Virginia, of other Southern colonies; colonization of Massachusetts, of other New England colonies; colonization of New York, of other Middle colonies; colonial life, manners and customs; early struggles for America. 2. Revolution. General causes; struggle for rights of Englishmen; struggle for rights of man; efforts for permanent union; Constitutional Convention. 3. Civics. Study, with or without text-book the following relative to our State Government: Origin of present Constitution; study as to composition and general powers of the Senate, House of Delegates, Corporation Commission, Board of Education; other State boards; manner of election, term and general duties of the executive and administrative officers; system of courts; some attention to citizenship, suffrage, election laws.

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Geography: Advanced geography. Correlative with history. In country schools geography of second and third grammar grades should alternate so as to reduce the number of recitations. During 1907-8, for example, study third grammar geography, and during 1908-9, study second grammar geography. Study mathematical geography. The earth studied as a whole. Use advanced textbook for outlines.

Physiology and Hygiene: Study the following topics: skin, bones, muscles, the circulation of the blood, breathing, lungs, nerves and the brain.

Drawing: Continue sketching of simple plant forms. Study of groups of objects, of perspective.

MORALS AND MANNERS

Patriotism: From lessons in civics. Teach respect for country and State government; necessity for law; how unjust to infringe upon the rights of others; that love and respect for State keeps all bound to common cause, begets sympathy and fraternal spirit; frequent reference to heroic Virginians, and to the great history of the State, in order to inspire patriotism.

Civic Duties: Teach duties to State; arouse interest in government and in State affairs; responsibility of all to exercise right of suffrage, and so forth.

Training: Show the necessity for proper training for life; the part the school plays in this preparation; the growing needs for educated men; great advantages they have over the uneducated; general effect on State and society.

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THIRD GRAMMAR GRADE

Reading: Continuation of work of second grammar grade. Reading of selected classics. (1) Continued attention given to expression.

Spelling: Spelling-book completed. List prepared by teacher from literary reading. Careful attention to meaning of words. Use of dictionary.

Writing: Continue use of copy-book if necessary. See that all writing in subject forms and composition is neatly done.

Language: Complete English Grammar. Continue analysis of sentences and work of previous grades in composition. Have pupils prepare outlines of subjects and write from them. Interpret some good English selection, as "Evangeline", etc.

Number Work: Study percentage, not confining the work to money problems. Give pupils a good idea of the instruments used in the commercial world, such as forms used in banks, etc. Study interest, stocks and bonds. The teacher should take up some known corporation and from it give pupils the meaning of terms and of business instruments. Pay special attention to insurance. Study longitude and time.

History: United States History. Study the following topics: I. National growth. Rule of Federalists; administration of Washington; fall of Federalists; rule of Republicans; Jefferson's administration; struggle for commercial freedome; Second War for Independence; results. II. New era. Growth of national ideas; industrial and social developments; foreign affairs, bank, tariff, nullification; growth of sectional feeling; sections drifting apart; War between the States. III. Consolidation and expansion. Reconstruction in the South; new political problems; commercial and industrial development; expansion. IV. Civics; Various kinds of government; divisions of our national government; study House of Representatives and Senate as to composition, eligibility, length of term, general election, term and powers of the Executive; Cabinet and administration of the various departments of the government; judicial system.

Geography: Study Europe and other continents in order of text. General review.

Physiology and Hygiene: Study the eye, the ear, the teeth; study germs, diseases, general laws of health.

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Drawing: Perspective: Study of grouping continued. Study of plant and animal forms. Drawing of combined models. Decorative drawing.

MORALS AND MANNERS

Patriotism: National patriotism; respect for National Government; teach pupils to sing national airs; some idea of the real greatness of the American Government, and reasons for respecting same.

Civic Duties: Obedience to national laws, necessity of having same; real meaning of freedom, difference between freedom and license, dignity and honor of American citizenship.

General Lessons: Recall legends, stories and biographies already read; draw practical lessons from same, particularly from old Bible stories; read pupils frequent articles which may help character development; practical lessons from present day events.

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Appendix B

TABLE A

SCHEDULE-PROPOSED BY THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION IN 1907 FOR THE FIRST FOUR GRADES OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Schedule of Classes

	Group 1 First Year	Group 2 Second Year	Group 3 Third & Fourth Yrs.
9:00		OPENING EXERCISES	
9:10	seat work	number work	arithmetic
9:35	number work	NUMBER WORK	geography
10:00	NUMBER WORK	language	geography
10:20	reading & spell.	LANGUAGE	language
10:45		RECESS	
10:55	reading & spell.	LANGUAGE	language
11:20	READING & SPELL.	reading & spell.	language
11:40	seat work	reading & spell.	LANGUAGE
12:00		RECESS	
1:00	writing	READING & SPELL.	reading & spell.
1:25	WRITING	WRITING	WRITING
1:50	paper folding, etc.	drawing	READING & SPELL.
2:15	DRAWING	DRAWING	DRAWING
2:30	LANGUAGE	seat work	history
2:55	nature study	nature study	HISTORY
3:20	NATURE STUDY	NATURE STUDY	NATURE STUDY
3:45	MORALS, MUSIC, STORIES	MORALS, ETC.	MORALS

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TABLE B

SCHEDULE PROPOSED BY THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION IN 1909 FOR AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL OF SEVEN YEARS.

Time	1st. yr.	2nd yr.	3rd yr.	4th yr.	5th yr.	6th yr.	7th yr.
9:00			OPENING EXERCISES				
9:10	READ.	reading	Read.	arith.	arith.	arith.	arith.
9:20	COPY.	READING	read.	arith.	arith.	arith.	arith.
9:30	copy.	Writ. wk.	READ.	arith.	arith.	arith.	arith.
9:40	Lang.	Writ. wk.	Writ.wk.	ARITH.	arith.	arith.	arith.
9:55	Lang.	Drawing	numbers	draw.	ARITH.	arith.	arith.
10:10	Lang.	numbers	numbers	draw.	draw.	ARITH.	ARITH.
10:25			RECESS				
10:35	Gen.wk.	numbers	NUMBERS.	read.	nature.	hist.	hist.
10:45	LANG.	numbers	lang.	read.	read.	hist.	hist.
10:55	Bd. wk.	NUMBERS	lang.	read.	read.	read.	read.
10:05	numbers	lang.	geog.	READ.	READ.	read.	read.
11:15	numbers	lang.	geog.	spell.	SPELL.	READ & hist.	read. & hist.
11:25	numbers	gen. wk.	LANG. & GEOG.	spell.	spell.	gram.	gram.
11:35	Numbers	lang.	nature	SPELL.	SPELL.	gram.	gram.
11:45	NUMBERS	lang.	nature	geog.	nature	gram.	gram.
11:55			WRITING AND DRAWING				
12:10			RECESS				

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TABLE B

Program for School of Seven Grades (continued)

Time	1st yr.	2nd yr.	3rd yr.	4th yr.	5th yr.	6th yr.	7th yr.
1:00	nature	LANG.	numbers	geog.	nature	gram.	gram.
1:10	nature	numbers	numbers	geog.	geog.	GRAM.	gram.
1:25	read.	numbers	hand wk.	GEOG.	geog.	hist.	hist.
1:40	read.	read.	hand wk.	GEOG.	geog.	hist.	hist.
1:50	read.	read.	nature	nature	NATURE & GEOG.	GEOG.& phys.	hist.
2:00	READ.	read.	nature	nature	arith.	geog. & phys.	geog. & phys.
2:10	hand wk.	READ.	lang.	lang.	arith.	geog.& phys.	geog. & phys.
2:20	hand wk.	READ.	lang.	lang.	arith.	geog.& phys.	geog. & phys.
2:30				RECESS			
2:40	nature	nature	draw.	lang.	lang.	GEOG.& PHYS.	geog. & phys.
2:55	nature	nature	draw.	hist.	lang.	draw.	GEOG. & PHYS.
3:05	NATURE	NATURE	spell.	hist.	hist.	draw.	draw.
3:15	play	hand wk.	spell.	LANG & HIST.	hist.	spell.	spell.
3:25	play	hand wk.	spell.	lang.	LAND.& HIST.	spell.	spell.
3:40	read.	gen. wk.	SPELL.	hist.	lang.	spell.	spell.
3:50	read.	gen. wk.	read.	hist.	lang.	spell.	SPELL.

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TABLE C

1923

DAILY SCHEDULE FOR ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL

Recitation Program-------Grades 1-2

MORNING

HOUR	NO. MIN.	SUBJECT	CLASS
9:00	15	Opening Exercises Should include--Music Physical Inspection other interesting subjects.	Whole School
9:15	15	Reading	First Grade, Group I
9:30	25	Community Study	Group I-II
9:55	20	Arithmetic	Group III
10:15	15	Penmanship Hygiene	Alternate
10:30	10	Physical Exercises	
	10	Recess	
10:50	15	Reading	First Grade, Group I
11:05	15	Reading	Second Grade, Group I
11:20	15	Arithmetic	Third Grade, Group II
11:35	15	Reading	First Grade, Group I
11:50	15	Spelling	Group III
12:05	30	Noon Recess (Dismiss First Grade when possible.)	

AFTERNOON

HOUR	NO. MIN.	SUBJECT	CLASS
		Music	School
12:35	15	Arithmetic	Second Grade, Group I
12:50	30	Geography History	Group III
1:20	30	Read.--Eng.	Group I
1:50	10	Phys. Ed.	
2:00	15	Reading	Sec. Grade, Group I
2:15	15	Spelling (Dismiss Second Grade when possible)	Group I, Group II
2:30	30	Read.--Eng.	Group III
3:00	20	Community Study Dismissal	Group II

When Group IV, sixth and seventh grades, are found in a school, the community study for third grade should be omitted and the time for dismissal moved up to 4:00 o'clock.

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TABLE D

1923

DAILY SCHEDULE FOR ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL

Study Program-------Grades 1-5

HOUR	NO. MIN.			
9:15	15	Second Grade Reading	Arithmetic	Arithmetic
9:30	25			Arithmetic
9:55	20	Projects resulting from Community Study		---------
10:50	15	Second Grade Reading or project	Arithmetic or Projects	Study of Projects in spelling, geog. Hist.
11:05	30	Project: First Grade Second Grade	Spelling or Project.	Spell. Geog. History.
11:35	15	Project--Second	Project	Spelling, Geo. raphy, History,
11:50	15	Project		Language.
		NOON		
12:45	15	Reading	Reading, English	Geography
1:00	30	Project	Reading, English	History
2:00	15	Dismissed	Projects	Reading--English
2:15	15	--------		Reading--English
2:30	30	--------	Projects	----------
3:00	20	--------	------	Projects

The term project refers to the various projects begun in the social study group of subjects which should be continued at the seat during periods available for this work. Group III should be encouraged to develop the various subjects through class projects.

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TABLE E

1923

GENERAL PROGRAMS

GROUP I Grades I	II	III
Subjects Common to School	Health-Hygiene Physical Education Music Spelling Penmanship Better English Club	
Social Study Group Grades I and II have same work. Use home as basis for even years, page 38. Use food and Clothing problems in odd years, page 44. Furnishes material for Oral English, Industrial Arts, Civics, Morals and Manners, each of which has a share in this class period. 25 minutes.		Community, Page 51. Study of home comm. Early Settlement First Church First School Oldest Residents Physical Cond. p. 58. 20 Minutes.
	English Literature	
Reading- Three Lessons each day. Two primers and two first year. Include phonics English- Oral, p. 156. Written p. 157. Spelling Penmanship 45 minutes.	Reading- Three readers must be completed during this year, page 129. 30 minutes each day. English-page 161. Same as Group I, more advanced expression but same material.	Reading Two readers should be completed, page 134. English- Oral, page 165. Written, Study Sentences Sepling Dictionary Penmanship 30 minutes.
	Arithmetic	
Counting Numbers to 100 Reading Writing Measurements as needed No class period, p.220	Addition facts Subtraction facts Addition process Subtraction process Measurements as needed, page 222. 15. min.	Review and perfect add. and sub. facts and processes. Multiplication tables 10 x 10. Process one order numbers pages 226. 15 minutes.
	Industrial Arts	
The projects for this subject would arise in Groups B and C. The plans for the work should be carried on during the leisure periods. The teacher and the older pupils could have general supervision of the work.		The projects for this subject would arise in Groups B or C. The plans for the work should be formed there, but the work should be done during the leisure period.

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TABLE E

1923

GENERAL PROGRAMS

GROUP II

Grades IV	V	VI	VII
Subjects Common to School			
Social Study Group			
Virginia History and Geography as outlined, p. 60, should be studied in both sections in 1923-24, and each odd year afterwards. Colonial History and Geography of United States should be studied in both sections in 1924-25 and each even year thereafter. These subjects furnish material for oral and written English and Industrial Arts. 30 minutes		History Geog.	History Geog. Civics Class periods should be used for assignments of new problems for questions from class, based upon difficulties which have arisen in study. 20 minutes
English Literature			
Reading will be for entire Group. Read two readers, fourth and fifth. Read two histories and much supplementary material. English: Oral page 169. Written, Paragraphing, page 171. Spelling 30 minutes			READING. Class periods should be used for two purposes; first, for securing speed and comprehenson; second, for discussion of the material read by the class. ENGLISH. All class work should be considered as Oral English. Two or three 25-minute periods should be used each week for developing technical grammar and written English. 20 minutes.
Arithmetic Complete multiplication. Complete division. one- and two-step problems. Fractions. One- and two-step problems. Classes should have the same recitation period on the daily schedule, the time being divided according to the specific needs of each section on a particular day. 20 minutes.		Decimals Percentage Percentage	Percentage Interest Problems should be based upon community needs and activities. The group should have the same recitation period on the daily schedule the time being divided according to the specific needs of each section on a particular day. 20 minutes.

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TABLE F

SCHEDULE FOR DAILY CLASS INSTRUCTION IN A ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL OF SEVEN GRADES 1926

RECITATION SCHEDULE			STUDY AND OCCUPATION SCHEDULE		
Begin	Grades	Subjects	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3
9:00	All	Opening Exercises and Physical Inspection			
9:10	1	Reading & Phonics		Study Reading	Study Reading
9:25	2	Reading & Phonics	Seat Work		Study Reading
9:40	3	Reading	Seat Work	Study Reading	
9:50	4&5	Reading	Board Work	Board Work	Study Reading
10:05	6&7	Reading	Hand Work	Hand Work	Study Phonics
10:20	All	Physical Ed.			
10:30	All	Recess			
10:40	1	Reading & Numbers		Study Arith.	Study Arith.
10:50	2	Arithmetic	Seat Work		Study Arith.
11:00	3	Arithmetic	Seat Work	Study Arith.	
11:10	4	Arithmetic	Seat Work	Study Arith.	Study Arith.
11:25	5	Arithmetic	Seat Work	Seat Work	Library Reading
11:40	6&7	Arithmetic	Play or Board Work	Study Reading	Written Work
12:00	3,4,5 6&7	Writing & Drawing	Writing--Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday		
12:10	All	Supervised Lunch			
12:20	All	Noon Recess		Supervised play--10 minutes	
12:50	1	Reading and Nature Study		Study Reading	
1:00	2	Reading and Nature Study	Board Work		
1:10	3	Hygiene or Com. Study or Local Geog. & History	Seat Work	Study Reading	Study Spelling
1:20	4&5	Geog., History & Citizenship	Seat Work	Study Spelling	Study Spelling
1:35 1:50	6&7	Geog., History & Citizenship	Seat Work	Study Spelling	Study Spelling
1:50	2&3	Spelling	Play		
1:55	4&5	Spelling	Play	Written Work	Written Work
2:00	6&7	Spelling	Board Work	Written Work	Written Work
2:05	5	Va. History	Board Work	Written Work	Study Lang.
2:15	All	Recess			
2:25	6&7	U.S. History	Hand Work	Hand Work	Study Lang.
2:40	2	Language	Dismissed if possible		Study Lang.
2:45	3	Language		Written Lang.	
2:55	4&5	Language		Word Study	Study Lang.
3:10	6&7	Language			Study Lang.
3:35	4,5 6&7	Hygiene Civics			Library Reading Library Reading
3:50	6&7	Hygiene Agriculture			Study Reading

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TABLE F (continued)

SCHEDULE FOR DAILY CLASS INSTRUCTION IN A ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL OF SEVEN GRADES 1926.

STUDY AND OCCUPATION SCHEDULE

Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7
Opening Exercises and Physical Inspection			
Study Reading	Study Reading	Study Civ. or Agri.	Study Civ. or Agri.
Study Reading	Study Reading	Study Civ. or Agri.	Study Civ. or Agri.
Study Reading	Study Reading	Study Reading	Study Reading
		Study Reading	Study Reading
Study Reading	Study Reading		
Study Arith.	Study Reading	Study Arith.	Study U. S. Hist. and Civics.
Study Arith.	Study Reading	Study Arith.	Study U. S. Hist. and Civics.
Study Arith.	Study Arith.	Study Arith.	Study Arith.
	Study Arith.	Study Arith.	Study Arith.
Lib. or arith.		Study Arith.	Study Arith.
Library Reading or Geography; Citizenship.	Study Virginia History		
Drawing--Thursday and Friday			
Supervised Lunch should be given to Physical Education			
Geography and Citizenship	Geog., Hist & Citizenship.	Citizenship Geog., Hist	Geog.; Hist. and Citizenship
Geog. Hist. & Citizenship	Geog., Hist. & Citizenship	Citizenship Geog., Hist.	Geog., History & Citizenship
Geog., Hist. & Citizenship	Geog., Hist. & Citizenship	Geog., Hist & Citizenship	Geog, Hist. and Citizenship
		Geog., Hist. & Citizenship	Citizenship Geog, Hist.
Study Spelling	Study Va. Hist.		
Study Spelling	Study Va. Hist.	Study U.S. Hist.	Study U.S. Hist.
		Study U.S. Hist.	Study U.S. Hist.
Written Work	Study Va. Hist.		
Written Work		Study U.S. Hist.	Study U.S. Hist.
Study Lang.	Study Lang.		
Study Lang.	Study Lang.	Study Lang.	Study Lang.
Study Lang.	Study Lang.	Study Lang.	Study Lang.
		Study Lang.	Study Lang.
Study Hygiene	Study Hy.		
Recite Mon, Tue Wed.	Recite Mon. Tues, Wed.	Study Hy. or Civ.	Study Hy. or Civ.
		Recite Thurs. Friday.	Recite Thurs. Friday.
Hand Work	Study Spell.	Recite Mon. Tues. Wed. Thurs. Fri.	Recite, Mon. Tues, Wed, Thurs, Fri.

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Appendix C

TABLE G

EVOLUTION OF THE VIRGINIA ELEMENTARY STATE COURSE OF STUDY 1870-1938

1870[a]	1880[b]	1900[c]	1906[d]
Orthography Reading Writing Arithmetic Grammar Geography	Orthography Reading Writing Arithmetic Grammar Geography U.S. History Virginia Hist.	Orthography Reading Writing Arithmetic Grammar Geography U.S. History Virginia Hist. Physiology and Hygiene	Orthography Reading Writing Arithmetic Grammar Geography U.S. History Virginia Hist. Physiology and Hygiene Moral Training

[a] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1870. Chapter 259.
[b] Virginia School Report, 1880. p. 121.
[c] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1900. Chapter 132.
[d] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1906. Chapter 248.

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TABLE G

EVOLUTION OF THE VIRGINIA ELEMENTARY STATE COURSE OF STUDY
1870-1938
(Continued)

1914[e]	1922[f]	1928[g]	1936[h]
Orthography Reading Writing Arithmetic Grammar Geography U. S. History Virginia History Physiology and Hygiene Moral Training Safety Education	Orthography Reading Writing Arithmetic Grammar Geography U. S. History Virginia History Physiology and Hygiene Moral Training Safety Education Civics and Fire Protection	Orthography Reading Writing Arithmetic Grammar Geography U. S. History Virginia Hist. Physiology & Hygiene Moral Training Safety Ed. Civics and Fire Protection Drawing Physical and Health Ed.	Orthography Reading Writing Arithmetic Grammar Geography U. S. History Virginia History Physiology and Hygiene Moral Training Safety Education Civics and Fire Protection Drawing Physical and Health Education Handcrafts and Domestic Arts

[e] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1914. Chapter 132.

[f] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1922. Chapter 55.

[g] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1928. Chapter 471.

[h] Acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, 1936. Chapter 67.

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Appendix D
Table H

SCOPE OF WORK IN THE CORE CURRICULUM FOR VIRGINIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

MAJ. FUNCTIONS OF SOC. LIFE	Grade I Home and Soc. Life.(Center of Interest)	GRADE II Com. Life (Center of Interest)	GRADE III Adaption of life to Environmental Forces of Nature (Center of Interest)
	Aspects of Center of Int. Selected for Emphasis	Aspects of Center of Int. selected for Emphasis	Aspects of Center of Interest selected for Emphasis
Protection and Conservation of Life, Property and Natural Resources.	How do we protect and maintain life and health in our home and school?	How do we in the community protect our life health and property? How do animal and plant life help people in our community and how are they protected?	How do people, plants, and animals in communities with physical environment markedly different from ours protect themselves from forces of Nature?
Production of goods and Services and Distributions of the Returns of Production.	How do the things we make and grow help us?	What do we do in our community to produce goods and services?	How do environmental forces of nature affect the goods produced in different communities?
Consumption of Goods and Services.	How does our family provide itself with food, clothing, and shelter?	How do we use the goods and services provided in our community?	Why can communities markedly different from ours furnish us with goods we cannot produce?
Communication and Transportation of Goods and People.	How do members of our family travel from place to place?	How does our community provide for transportation and communication?	How does physical environment affect transportation and communication?
Recreation	How can we have an enjoyable time at home and school?	How does our community provide for transportation and communication	How does physical environment affect transportation and communication?
Expression of Aesthetic Impulses	What can we have to make our home and school more beautiful and pleasant	What do we do to make our community attractive?	How do people in communities markedly different from ours express their artistic impulse?
Expression of Religious Impulses			How do people in different communities prove their religious tendencies?

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TABLE H CONTINUED

SCOPE OF WORK IN THE CORE CURRICULUM FOR VIRGINIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Education		How do people in different communities provide education?
Extension of Freedom		
Integration of Individual		
Exploration		
MAJOR FUNCTION OF SOCIAL LIFE	GRADE IV Adaption of life to Advancing Physical Frontiers (Center of Interest)	GRADE V Effects of Inventions and discoveries upon the Living (Center of Interest)
	Aspects of Center of Interest Selected for Emphasis.	Aspects of Center of Interest Selected for Emphasis.
Protection and Conservation of Life, Property, and Natural Resources.	How does frontier living modify and how has it been modified by the production and distribution of goods and services?	How do inventions and discoveries affect the variety and availability of goods?
Communication and Transportation of Goods and People	How do ways of transportation and communication serve to advance frontier?	How do inventions and discoveries improve our means of transportation and communication?
Consumption of Goods and Services.	How does frontier living restrict the consumption of goods and services?	How is the consumption of goods and services influenced by discoveries and inventions?
Recreation	How is recration influenced by frontier living?	How do inventions and discoveries influence recreation?
Expression of Aesthetic Impulses	How are music, literature and art affected by frontier living?	How do inventions and discoveries affect our art, music and literature?
Expression of Religious Impulses	How is religion affected by frontier living?	How do discoveries influence the spread of religion?
Education	How is education influenced by frontier living?	How do inventions and discoveries influence education?
Extension of Freedom		
Integration of Individual		
Exploration		

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Table H (continued)

SCOPE OF WORK IN THE CORE CURRICULUM FOR VIRGINIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

MAJOR FUNCTIONS OF SOCIAL LIFE	Grade VI Effects of Machine-Production upon our Living. (Center of Interest)	GRADE VII Social Provision for Cooperative Living. (Center of Interest)
	Aspects of Center of Interest Selected for Emphasis	Aspects of Center of Interest Selected for Emphasis.
Protection and Conservation of Life, Property, and Natural Resources	How does machine production lead to the waste of life, property and natural resources?	How do social and governmental agencies protect and conserve life, property, and Natural Resources?
Production of goods and services and distributions of the returns of production.	How does machine production of standardized goods influence the choice and use of goods?	How do social agencies influence the consumer in his choice and use of goods?
Communication and Transportation of Goods and people.	How does machine production of standardized goods influence the choice and use of goods?	How do social agencies influence the consumer in his choice and use of goods?
Consumption of goods and services	How does machine production affect transportation and communication?	How do methods of travel and communication affect cooperative living?
Recreation	How does machine production influence recreation?	How are social and governmental organizations extending opportunities for the wise use of leisure time
Expression of Aesthetic Impulses	How does machine production modify art, literature, music and architecture.?	How do social organizations provide opportunities for expression of aesthetic impulses?
Expression of Religious Impulses	How does machine production influence the development of the church?	How does the church function as a means of social control?
Education	How does machine production influence education.	How does education function as a means of social control?
Extension of Freedom		
Integration of Individual		

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