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A study of the development of rural education in the State of Georgia with special emphasis on rural schools for Negroes.

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A STUDY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION IN THE STATE OF GEORGIA WITH SPECIAL EMPHASIS ON RURAL SCHOOLS FOR NEGROES

Baker - 1940
A STUDY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION

IN THE STATE OF GEORGIA

WITH SPECIAL EMPHASIS ON RURAL SCHOOLS FOR NEGROES

MARY L. BAKER

THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE

MASSACHUSETTS STATE COLLEGE, AMHERST
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A STUDY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION
IN THE STATE OF GEORGIA
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I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

Consolidation has met a vital need of country school life, and undoubtedly proves a significant factor of rural education. Yet, the ungraded one-teacher school is still numerically strong enough to call for definite treatment on the part of educators. Particularly does this statement apply to the agricultural areas of the south in their administration of Negro schools. The majority of the rural schools provided for colored children in the south are still of the one-teacher type.

Although it is desirable that certain characteristics peculiar to rural life be perpetuated, leaders in education today are opposed to a "ruralized" curriculum for pupils in these schools; and rightly so. Class education does not conform with our democratic ideals, nor with our changed standards of
teaching. Consistent thinkers affirm that the main emphasis in a program for rural school betterment should be the adaptation of curricula and methods to changes that are influencing elementary education elsewhere.

It is the purpose of this study to survey the development of rural schools in the state of Georgia, specifically with a view to determining the general trend of Negro education in an essentially agrarian region, and to evaluating achievement there in the light of present-day theory and practice. It necessarily follows that a preliminary discussion should be made both of the general direction of elementary education and of changing conceptions of the rural school, in order clearly to interpret trends in a definite field.

Problems of the Modern Elementary School-Teacher

In the evolution of the modern elementary school, the following trends have arisen: the subordination of subject-matter to child interest; provision in a curriculum for individual differences; first, through scientific measurement of child development; secondly, through adaptation of the materials of
learning to the needs and abilities of pupils.

We are familiar with the terms progressive education; creative education; activity program; conduct curriculum; child-centered school; and the like. But is there agreement as to the principles underlying these methods and their application to the average classroom situation? Have we also differentiated carefully the new systems, weighing and judging them in the light of an accepted educational philosophy?

The activity program has attained a high degree of recognition through its most successful exponent, Dr. Ellsworth G. Collings. In "An Experiment with a Project Curriculum," the author describes a thoroughly workable program based on life activities. Results obtained under the favorable conditions outlined by Dr. Collings were sufficiently practicable to admit of a further treatise, in which he elaborates a scheme of teacher rating through the measurement of "pupil-drive" and "pupil-response."¹

A teacher is estimated by her power to develop on the part of pupils initiative, self-direction, success in weighing and judging values, insight into the selection of higher goals,

or "leading-on tendencies."

The peculiar value of the plan rests in its criterion of pupil-purposing, planning, executing and judging--the crucial factors of an activity program.

The proponents of a child-centered school advocate what is known as creative expression. Their main tenet is freedom of development. In "Creative Power," Mearns summarizes these principles in the statement that "the standardized curricular education requires 'results' each day, each week, surely each month; with an accumulated measurable outcome at the end of each semester; creative education thinks in terms of years. The creative school cares not how inept and slovenly a lad may be the whole term if it sees something personal and fine taking slow possession of him."

The "creative" thinkers have set forth, indeed, vital aspects of teaching. But, as Rugg and Shumaker remark: "The schools appear to shun technique." Very plainly, too, they neglect or at least minimize that which must always constitute a fundamental aim of teaching--the mastery of factual learnings.

Dr. Melvin, in "Progressive Teaching," apparently has

combined the advantages of the progressives and the conservatives. In his advocacy of a conduct curriculum, Melvin considers first the significance for growth of a good environment. The following questionnaire gives added insight into his theory.

"Is the learner dominating the learning process or am I unduly active in what should be his learning process?

"Do the learners carry on the activities in which they are engaged for their own sake; in other words, is the motivation direct rather than artificial?

"Are the students forming sound moral habits?

"Am I assisting the students to work according to sound study habits?"

Obviously the progressives are in accord as to underlying principles: provision for initiative and for executing and judging; emphasis on the individuality of the child; a natural and a social environment; guidance rather than autocratic control. However, as far as application of the theory to average classroom situations is concerned, Melvin presents a more definite and workable plan than do the others; a modified progressive program consistent with our educational philosophy; conforming
to the present social order without rejecting ideals of proved value.

It is toward this middle ground that the leveling process demanded by conflicting socio-political interests to-day is directed. Education within the present decade is being tested by the same criteria with which our economic, social, and political standards are measured. Does the democratic ideal inhere more in the conventional conception of education than in the progressive scheme? Sheats, in considering these questions, advocates a middle ground; a compromise between the conservative and the new. He states that, according to the conservative, "the sole function of the school, the only excuse for its creation and maintenance as an agency of the state, is to transmit the social heritage, without comment, to the younger generation."

On the other hand, the progressives "would build specifically for the future, inculcating attitudes of mind and habits of thought which are in harmony with the conditions of the new social order which they believe to be already emerging. They would use the school, both in respect to curriculum and to methods of teaching, in order to indoctrinate a new society."

It is unnecessary to accept Sheats' extreme view of the progressives to realize that education in our changing world must seek stabilization through an attempt at interpreting wisely both schools of thought; must "conserve the heritage of the group and yet prepare for the future, considering neither of these 'goods' mutually exclusive."  

Frequently the more mature pupils enter school late or are retarded because of physical, mental, or emotional disabilities. Consequently they must partake of a belated mental pabulum in the society of naive beginners. The effect on the immature pupil is also noticeable. If he does not develop a superiority complex, he is liable, on the other hand, to absorb the drolleries, the ineptitudes, the weaknesses that usually accompany the efforts of over-age students.

Then there is the question of distribution of subjects in an elementary school comprising large numbers of pupils. In order that provision be made for their mastery, the daily program must be so arranged that the several classes have an opportunity to "recite" in each subject. Let us suppose that a rural one-teacher school has eight grades; that provision is made daily for a "recitation" at least in arithmetic, reading, language, spelling, writing, geography, history, or civics. With classes meeting from nine o'clock until half past three or four o'clock in the afternoon, ingenuity is demanded of the teacher who would arrange a schedule that affords equality of opportunity for all. Infinitely greater skill is needed to prevent that dissipation
of effort which demoralizes pupils working independently during the so-called recitation periods of the other groups. Small wonder that the percentage of inferior achievement, of non-promotion, and of retardation in rural schools exceeds that of urban districts.

This defect in the organization of one-teacher schools has long confronted rural educators. Numerous solutions of the problem have been offered. Significant among them are alternation, correlation, individualization of instruction, and grouping, either on the basis of age-grade levels, or of subjects. The method of grouping to-day takes precedence over alternation and correlation. An excellent method of grouping has been conceived by Hoffman as a means of improving rural one-teacher schools in the state of Illinois.\(^1\) Organization here assumes the form of grouping according to subjects. The entire daily schedule centers around the major subjects. In the last analysis, the Hoffman program discloses the fact of marked similarity between grouping by combined grades and by combined subjects. Both aspects of grouping are based on the major principles governing newer trends in rural education. Grouping by subjects

\(^1\) Hoffman, U. J.: One-Teacher Schools of Illinois—Illinois—Department of Public Instruction—1929
automatically assigns to their respective units pupils of advanced or intermediate or primary status, thus acknowledging the psychology of development by periods.

The best methods of individualization of instruction are utilized. As a matter of fact the plan is regarded by Miss Wofford as essentially designed for individualizing the work of the elementary rural school. However, "schools which feature the group instruction of children emphasize centers of interest for the entire class because they believe that the maximum growth of the individual occurs as he contributes to the group. .... At the same time, the organization allows for a maximum of adaptations to the capacities, aptitudes, and abilities of individuals..... In schools where the individualization of instruction is featured, the contrary holds. Here emphasis is primarily upon the individual and secondarily upon the group."¹

Other significant problems of rural education result from the relatively shorter terms of country schools, and perplex rural workers because of the unavoidable retardation of large numbers of pupils. Valuable suggestions for the solution of this problem are now available. The major plans introduce into rural

¹ Wofford, Kate V.: Modern Education in the Small Rural School--The Macmillan Company--1938--New York
school management two radical reforms; first, a lengthened elementary school course, reverting to the earlier nine-year period for the average pupil; second, an increase in the time allotment of the school week, either by extra hours in the daily schedule, or by the inclusion of Saturday classes. Owing to transportation problems, to the distances which separate rural pupils from school centers, to the exacting home duties of farm children, the method of the added day should have precedence.

As a third method of simplifying the scheme of teaching in the ungraded school, individualization has an unquestioned claim to the attention. Among early measures for adapting instruction to the individual, homogeneous grouping is endorsed. Its peculiar advantage is a more uniform and unhampered progress of pupils through the grades. The disadvantages of the plan are an unavoidable consciousness of class, resulting in discouragement and lack of effort on the part of the dull pupil; in the antagonism of the parent whose child is thus stigmatized. There is evident, also, in the device a disregard for the factor of social age. The disadvantages of the method in all probability outweigh the advantages. Present-day authorities in rural edu-
cation are more nearly in agreement as to a method of adjustment through differentiated school activities. They would adapt the curriculum to the ability of the individual pupil, allowing him to progress at his own rate; thus evaluating classroom work at varying levels of achievement. Outstanding examples of this form of individuation are the Winnetka and the Dalton plans. Variations of the method are the challenge, the contract, directed study. It must readily be granted that modes of adjustment which give such latitude to the pupil's individual taste not only will accelerate his mental growth, but also will provide for his physical and emotional well-being.

In the foreground of methods for improving rural schools to-day is that of curriculum reorganization. Although the concept of a "ruralized" curriculum to a certain extent is embedded within the plan, rural leaders place new interpretations upon the theory. The major problems involved in curriculum adaptations and reorganization include "a search for educational resources afforded by the activities and experiences potential or already existing in rural communities; collection of lists of problems or projects found to be vital to rural children, which
afford valuable approaches to needed subject-matter or experiences; co-operative development or selection of individual practice materials related to group activities or to large problems or projects; and assistance from research.¹

Differentiation of curricula in rural schools would affect in no respect the objectives of education. Rather would rural leaders insist on distinctions in "emphasis, approach, and contact." Dr. Brian says, "We do not wish to ruralize the rural school; we must psychologize it. We do not wish to vocationalize it; we must socialize it."²

In concluding this presentation of major trends in elementary education and in rural education specifically, the tendency toward improved standards through lengthening the period of school training into adulthood must not be neglected. The "democratic ideal" which we accept implies that a degree of uniformity inheres in an educational system concerned primarily with citizenship goals. In this sense uniformity is achieved through "the integrative elements of education"³ that demand minimal essentials of learning for all. The standard set to-day for these minimal essentials is at least the completion of a senior

² Ibid.
II

THE DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA

The Beginning of Public Education in the South

Public education in the southern states prior to the last quarter of the nineteenth century was conspicuous by its absence both in theory and practice. Wherever education was administered within the states, private agencies assumed entire responsibility for this service. The southern colonies supported an aristocratic concept of education copied from the "mother" country. After the War between the States, however, new problems confronted this region. On the solution of these problems, which were in the main economic, political, and social, depended the survival of the southern states. One of their major dilemmas was provision for training in citizenship of the newly freed men.

The period of the Reconstruction introduced drastic measures for educating the freedmen. In all the southern states public schools were provided for instruction in the rudiments of

1. Sheats, Paul H.: Education and the Quest for a Middle Way--The Macmillan Company--1938
"A general education provided for all and carried through until the twentieth year can help considerably in supplying the individual with this greater facility in adjustment."
learning. They were necessarily crude and inadequate, owing to the fact that they originated as an emergency plan. But these schools served the purpose of providing for the spiritual needs of a people at that time incapable of assimilation as citizens of our republic.

Records of the period are not extant in the separate states that provide exact information as to administration of public schools during the early years of their existence. Statistics, however, afford sufficient knowledge of the general status of public education in the south to enable us to determine fairly accurately the methods of training employed in a particular state. Quoting "The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences," 1928, it is worthy of note that "beginning with Arkansas in 1864, a majority of southern states had enacted laws setting up public schools for both whites and Negroes under the Presidential Plan of Restoration. Congress refused, however, to permit the plan inaugurated by Lincoln and continued by Johnson to prevail. It reduced the southern states to provinces; established martial law in them; and required them, before they could be restored to statehood,
to write new constitutions in accordance with the congressional plan of reconstruction. Alabama adopted the new constitution November 5, 1867, and was followed by the other states in quick succession.  

Under this law education was provided free of charge for all children in these states between the ages of six and twenty-one years. The cost of educating these pupils was to be met through taxation. However, the lowered economic status of the south rendered almost prohibitive adequate public schools because of insufficient revenue through their mode of taxation and through the rise of political corruption. In the earliest period of the reform the schools were poorly attended. In many states they "literally died of starvation... though in Virginia and Georgia, some real progress was being made."

The apparent failure of the new educational requirements led to a reorganization of the political system instituted by Congress. By 1876 the states were again in control of governmental affairs in the south. One of their earliest reforms was the revision of the statutes by which public education was administered. The main clause in the new legislation enacted

by North Carolina in 1875 states that: "...The children of the white race and the children of the colored race shall be taught in separate schools; but there shall be no discrimination in favor of or to the prejudice of either race."

A dual system of education for the races was thus initiated. North Carolina's law was adopted by the other southern states in similar form.

However, at the same time, other agencies were at work supplementing these crude attempts at providing schools for the Negro race. The earliest significant measures were introduced by means of the Freedmen's Bureau. "Through the Freedmen's Bureau of the National Government, beginning in November, 1865, ninety schools were being maintained.....In 1866, 493 schools were carried on by the various societies federated under the American Freedmen's Union Commission."1 Following immediately upon the successful efforts of The Freedmen's Bureau, missionary societies opened schools for Negroes in various sections of the south.

The Work of Philanthropic Agencies

Among early philanthropic agencies for the improvement

of Negro education in the south, the American Missionary Association has earned nation-wide recognition. Throughout the southern states schools of the status of academies arose during the last three decades of the nineteenth century. The equipment, teacher-personnel, high moral and cultural atmosphere of these schools were in marked contrast to the free schools. Parents sacrificed willingly in order to secure for their children the advantages of missionary schools. Notable in Georgia for its achievement at this time is Atlanta University. This school, now devoted entirely to higher education, at first offered also class instruction in the grades. Pupils from urban districts and from remote rural areas, not only in Georgia, but also in the other southern states, attended the institution. Many of these students were over-age for the grades; but, in spite of their handicap, they frequently completed higher courses. The increasing fame of the missionary school placed public schools in ill repute. Their ranks were greatly depleted.

The Baptists, Methodists, Presbyterians, and Episcopalians have left records of a similar work originating in a desire for the uplift of the Negro. A number of Georgia's worthiest insti-
tutions of learning approximate in date of establishment and in curricular organization the work of Atlanta University. Prominent in this group are Morehouse College, formerly Atlanta Baptist College, founded in 1867; Clark University, founded by the Methodists in 1870; Ballard Normal School at Macon and the Albany Normal School at Albany, founded by the American Missionary Association respectively in 1865 and 1870.

Space is devoted here to the private school for colored students to emphasize the fact that the rural school, in spite of public administration, remained under a cloud for a considerable period of time; that "there is practically nothing left in the way of permanent records to testify as to the net results in the education of Negro children in the common schools at this time. There are very clear records of fine results obtained by various missionary and private enterprises; proving that the Negro people were keen to have their children educated and that the Negro children had both the inclination and the capacity to learn."¹

Among important private agencies that have contributed to Negro education is the John F. Slater fund, which "for twenty-

¹ Newbold, N.C.: Common Schools for Negroes in the South Annals of the American Academy, 1928
nine years aided church and private schools mainly. In 1911, this fund began to encourage what have been called County Training Schools, or district schools. Under certain conditions the John F. Slater fund gives $500 a year to each County Training School. The purpose is to develop high schools and to offer simple courses as far as possible in the basic industries of the community and in teacher training."

Other less permanent private aids to the support of Negro schools were instituted. The George Peabody fund, established as early as 1867, aimed to finance both white and Negro schools. After the adoption of a dual system for the races, the Peabody fund was applied mainly to education of white children.¹ The Daniel Hand fund contributed to Negro education and was established in 1888.

Difficulties Encountered in the Improvement of Negro Rural Schools

It is clear, then, that rural schools for Negroes from their inception have met with indifferent success. The earliest trend in this phase of education apparently was a very rudimentary

¹. Annals of the American Academy (History of Negro Education), 1928
training for pupils who were handicapped by the inaccessibility of privately administered schools; by economic circumstances; and by the problem of transportation. Irregularity of attendance, enforced by the seasonal employment of children in agricultural areas, was also countenanced more readily by rural school authorities than by private institutions. The following tables present the relative status of Negro rural schools from the earliest records to 1935.

**TABLE I**

Progress of Education in the 16 Former Slave States

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Colored</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1870-76</td>
<td>No record</td>
<td>No record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1876-77</td>
<td>1,827,139</td>
<td>571,506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1883-83</td>
<td>2,546,448</td>
<td>1,002,313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1893-94</td>
<td>3,848,541</td>
<td>1,432,198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903-04</td>
<td>4,522,744</td>
<td>1,577,384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913-14</td>
<td>5,789,371</td>
<td>1,895,199</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE II**

Enrollment in State Common Schools of Pupils 5-17 (inc.)
(Annual Report, Commissioner of Education, 1917)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>No. Pupils Enrolled</th>
<th>Total No. Pupils Enrolled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1870-71</td>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>49,578</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1879-80</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>236,533</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1889-90</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>381,297</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1899-1900</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>482,673</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1909-10</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>555,794</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1914-15</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>625,854</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE III
From Annual Report, 1916
Enrollment in State Common Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>No. Pupils Enrolled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913-14</td>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>239,783</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Colored</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE IV
From Bulletin, 1928, No. 19
Enrollment in Kindergartens and Elementary Grades

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Enrollment--Kindergarten and Elementary Grades</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925-26</td>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>235,476</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Owing to the lack of continuity of data represented in Table I, it was not possible to record separately the enrollment of white and colored children later than 1913. The significance of this table, however, rests in the evidence which it holds of the slow growth of the rural school enrollment among Negroes during the early period, and the gradual increase of the school population in later periods.

Table II explains the general nature of growth in rural school enrollment for Georgia beginning with the year 1870 and
ending in 1914. Although the record contained information only of the total enrollment, the same trend is noticeable in these data that characterized the schools of the major southern states as a group. Tables III and IV are representative of enrollment for colored children alone in Georgia during 1913 and 1925. The information derived from these four tables relates in each case to children five to seventeen years of age.

It must be borne in mind, however, that these records give no insight into daily attendance on the part of pupils enrolled, nor into length of school term. The ratio between daily attendance and enrollment, together with the number of possible days in school has greater significance in determining progress in the rural districts of Georgia. Records thus far examined contain no continuous data along these lines. Enrollment in Georgia schools according to length of term, 1935-1936, indicates, however, that colored schools favor generally shorter terms than do white schools. No white schools are maintained for a period of less than one hundred days; no colored schools are attended for a period of 185 days or more.
## TABLE V
Enrollment in Georgia Schools According to Length of Term

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Term in Days</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Colored</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>80-84</td>
<td>3,669</td>
<td>293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85-89</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90-94</td>
<td>1,111</td>
<td>1,247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95-99</td>
<td>2,629</td>
<td>14,922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100-104</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>1,297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>105-109</td>
<td>1,120</td>
<td>4,871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110-114</td>
<td>4,382</td>
<td>25,712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>115-119</td>
<td>16,332</td>
<td>72,639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>120-124</td>
<td>1,050</td>
<td>620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>125-129</td>
<td>5,057</td>
<td>5,976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>130-134</td>
<td>13,429</td>
<td>9,228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>135-139</td>
<td>50,734</td>
<td>21,427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>140-144</td>
<td>825</td>
<td>1,642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>145-149</td>
<td>2,079</td>
<td>717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150-154</td>
<td>13,655</td>
<td>3,608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>155-159</td>
<td>38,158</td>
<td>11,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>160-164</td>
<td>1,531</td>
<td>691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>165-169</td>
<td>4,358</td>
<td>7,892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>170-174</td>
<td>147,779</td>
<td>25,256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>175-179</td>
<td>170,648</td>
<td>49,468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>180-184</td>
<td>10,216</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>185-190</td>
<td>1,116</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>485,230</td>
<td>263,402</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A study made by Dr. Ambrose Caliver, and published in 1935 by the United States Office of Education, treats of "The Availability of Education to Negroes in Rural Communities."

1. State Department of Education, Atlanta, Georgia: Bulletin No. 1, September, 1935
Schools for Negro children were surveyed in twenty-eight counties of six southern states which maintain separate schools for colored and white races; namely, Arkansas, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Texas and Virginia. Included in the study are 142 schools in the state of Georgia and 9518 pupils. These particular states were chosen because they typify conditions that influence education in the southern states: inaccessibility of schools to rural groups; difficulties of transportation; physical features of the environment; types of schools and their equipment; length of term.

It was found that accessibility of schools correlated highly with distance from the institution, modes of transportation, and physical features of the environment affecting transportation. There were also interrelationships of these factors with occupational prevalence. As an illustration of these trends it is seen that children of school age living the greatest distance from schools invariably either attend irregularly or voluntarily leave school. Where physical features of the environment are definitely unfavorable, there is a similar tendency on the part of rural children. In the states represented by
the study, hilly regions with dirt roads are difficult to travel during and immediately after the rainy season, even though distance is not a barrier. Transportation facilities for children in the rural areas of these six states are very limited for colored pupils. Irregularity of attendance characterizes the majority of children enrolled in the small rural school—the one- or two-teacher type—more frequently than in the consolidated school. In the first place, the one-teacher school is the predominating type for Negroes; secondly, consolidation is dependent for its success on provision of transportation facilities. The occupations prevalent in these rural areas are mainly cotton and tobacco farming; cotton-producing areas until recently making the greatest demands on labor. To meet these demands, seasonal employment of school children is necessary.

Interrelationship of these factors may readily be seen. The small rural school is an accompaniment of sparsely populated regions; inadequate financial support; and low cultural aims. These conditions account for the prevalence of such schools. Unfavorable environment, together with distance and occupational level, tend to limit the school term and to create irregularity
of attendance and a degree of school mortality which has placed the one-teacher school in ill repute.

In order to interpret these facts in terms of Georgia's school system, it will be well to consult statistical data from Dr. Caliver's report. The findings are "that the largest percentage of children traveling over dirt roads is in Georgia, and the smallest in Virginia, their respective percentages being 90.45 and 54.76. Conversely, the smallest percentage of children traveling over hard-surface roads to and from school is also in Georgia, while the largest percentage is in Virginia."

It is also pertinent that the average length of the school term is relatively low for the state of Georgia, as is shown in the following table, Georgia ranking third. Comparable data are

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE VI</th>
<th>Average Length of Term in Negro and White Schools in Six States, 1931-32</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>White Schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

found also in the survey of average attendance of school children in these states. Georgia is rated third in the group; 90.4 days representing the average number of days attended by Negro pupils during the year 1931-32. In tabulating these data, "the average number of days each pupil enrolled attended school was compared with all pupils in the six states."1

The relationship of these factors to size of school—to the prevalence of one-teacher schools—is clearly shown by the items in the following table taken from the Annual Report of the Department of Education of Georgia for the year 1935-36. The

| TABLE VII |
| Georgia Schools According to Size, 1935-36 |
| Size of School | Number of Schools Employed | Number of Schools |
| Number of Teachers | White | Colored |
| Number of Schools Having One Teacher | 534 | 2,438 |
| Total Number of Schools | 2,724 | 3,425 |

percentage of one-teacher schools for colored pupils at that time was 71.1. Although the total number of schools for Negroes exceeds that of schools for the white race, the number of schools decreases notably with increase in the size of institutions.

This tendency is shown in the recording of data for white schools. Yet these schools show greater uniformity of numbers, especially in cases employing from one to eight teachers. Space does not admit of inclusion in the table of the entire list of schools, which extends to those having twenty or more teachers.

Combining the results of Dr. Caliver's study of special factors involved in the education of Negroes in rural districts, we are able to reach fairly accurate conclusions as to the inter-relationship of these factors in Georgia's school system. Of the six states included in the study, Georgia ranks third in the percentage of Negro children living two miles or more from school; the percentage being 43.57. Georgia's rank in terms of percentage of children transported at public expense is two; the percentage, 3.97. The percentage of Negro children in Georgia traveling hard-surface roads to and from school is 3.4; Georgia's rank in this respect is six. The percentage of children traveling good roads to and from school is 15.18; Georgia's rank, six. With reference to average number of days in attendance, Georgia's record for each pupil is 90.4; her rank, four. The percentage of schools that are of the one- and two-teacher type in Georgia is 88.43; the state's rank in this respect is five. The inter-
relationship of these varied factors proves high for Georgia; the need for improvement conforms to the pattern of achievement. Virginia ranks first in the largest number of items recorded.

Influence of the Jeanes Supervisor

In "Modern Education in the Small Rural School," the author outlines effectively three periods in the history of elementary education in the United States. These periods are classified as the Period of the Three R's; the Period of Supplementary Courses and Materials; and the Modern Period in Curriculum Construction.¹ The influence of the first period on the country schools of the south has already been traced in "Difficulties Encountered in the Negro Rural Schools of Georgia."

It remains to show what was the effect of the "enriched content" theory on these schools. A preliminary sketch of this influence on country schools generally will tend to clarify the main issues and to determine accurately their social values.

Beginning with the last decade of the nineteenth century and extending into the first decade and part of the second decade of the twentieth century, changes in industry were rapidly in-

¹ Wofford, Kate V.: Modern Education in the Small Rural School--The Macmillan Company--1938--New York
Types of Improved Rural School Buildings in the Southern States
creasing the wealth of the United States and raising the standard of living. As improved conditions of the home became standardized and prosperity wide-spread, it was natural that older cultural attitudes should no longer suffice. Contacts were being made between remote areas and cities through better means of communication. Knowledge of urban advancement could not long be withheld from rural inhabitants. Significant at the time for education was the adoption of new aims and new curricula to meet cultural needs. An enriched content was introduced into city school systems that included social studies, natural science, expression subjects—art, music, literature, and vocational subjects. The vocations aimed at first to acquaint students with new industrial developments; later, the ideal of specialized training colored these courses.

The rural schools of the United States were not slow in following the movement. Toward the close of the first decade of the twentieth century the trend was definitely in the direction of vocationalizing schools, urban and rural. In the report of the National Education Association, 1914, Arthur Henry Chamberlain summarizes results of a questionnaire regarding the
needs of rural schools sent to state, county and city superin-
tendents in the United States.  

The needs most frequently listed are: "better, closer, and more expert rural school supervision; better-trained teachers; consolidation of districts and centralization of schools...... The next most needed improvement is thought to be the modificatio-

The next most needed improvement is thought to be the modification of the course of study the better to meet the needs of the rural community. Farm mathematics, applied chemistry and physics, industrial education, home economics for girls, and agriculture are elements of this modified course...... Closing the list of needed improvements, we find...... the introduction of voca-
tional work and enforcement of attendance laws."  

A year later, the emphasis on vocations is still apparent. The National Education Proceedings, 1915, contains a report bearing on the same problem. In "Our Rural Schools" the state-

The National Education Proceedings, 1915, contains a report bearing on the same problem. In "Our Rural Schools" the statement occurs that "the rural schools the country over are not keeping pace with the city schools. They do not meet the needs of the rural communities...... At present the rural school exerts little influence on the social or business life of the community, schools being regarded as something apart from real living."

1. N.E.A. Proceedings 1914, p. 327; Co-operating Forces for the Improvement of Rural School Conditions (Chamberlain)
In 1915 the vocational aim had probably advertised itself sufficiently to evoke new interests. Nevertheless, the vigor with which rural school leaders had given expression to the theory characterized practically ten years of the new century. Even the small rural schools accepted the principle and made considerable progress along vocational lines. The scattered one- and two-teacher schools for Negroes made their contribution to the movement through an influence that is probably the sole reason for their survival to the present time.

In 1907 the Anna T. Jeanes fund, a Negro rural school appropriation, was formally organized under a board of trustees. The sum of $1,000,000 was assigned to the trustees for the purpose of improving small rural schools for colored children in the south. By the terms of the grant, "no part of the income of this fund ever should be used for any large school." The gift was formally accepted in 1908 and from that date to the present time, with the aid of the John F. Slater fund and varied contributions from the southern states, has been the main source of improving conditions in the one- and two-teacher schools for colored rural pupils. At first the Jeanes teacher was merely

an extra worker whose field was that of directing industrial and community activities in her own school district. Later, the field was extended to that of industrial supervising teacher. Under this plan, "one Negro woman was assigned to the staff of a county superintendent of schools to work among all the teachers of all the Negro schools of the county to help them improve their schools and communities in every possible way."\(^1\)

Thus the influence of the vocational aim of general elementary education permeated the common school of the south. Yet, Jeanes teachers from the start, aside from improvements in the special field of industrial training, exerted an influence toward more efficient methods of teaching among the poorly trained workers in the small country school. The supervisory measures of the Jeanes teacher admitted of little emphasis on that inspectorial and critical form of supervision which tends to dishearten the worker. Rather did Jeanes supervisors cooperate with the classroom teacher; advise her as to instruction and organization in the formal aspects of teaching; suggest ways of utilizing community resources for remodeling inadequate buildings and equipment.

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The earlier workers in this field were untrained in the sense of technical preparation, but they were selected on the basis of successful experience in community work and industrial education. As results secured by their influence consistently yielded high returns for the expenditure, it was deemed advisable to raise the standard for their appointment to these supervisory units. Higher educational qualifications now are generally the rule.

The aim of this co-operative mode of organization has been to make public school officials conscious of their responsibility for the support of colored schools in the south. The fund, at the time of the John F. Slater report for 1936, was supplemented by appropriations from state and local taxation in the majority of states; supervision is directed by county superintendents. The following table indicates the relative position of each of the southern states as determined by the number of counties supporting Jeanes teachers.
TABLE VIII

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counties With Jeanes Teachers (1936-1937)</th>
<th>Counties Needing Jeanes Teachers (1936-1937)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>452</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These data were listed in 1936; they show that supervision of rural schools has advanced at a different rate in the various states represented; possibly, because of variation in public support of the fund.

Gradually the work of the Jeanes supervisor has come to mean not only direction of industrial activities in the rural schools of the south, but improvement of academic interests. The Jeanes worker has been instrumental in securing for these schools better prepared teachers through the encouragement of
in-service training on the part of those employed; through teachers' institutes and demonstrations. She has also been able, by right of her contacts, to recommend to county superintendents efficient and well-prepared workers. In the majority of cases, the Jeanes supervisor to-day has the academic background essential to these requirements.

In spite of the handicap of distance, supervisory load of the Jeanes worker, low academic rating of the average teacher in small rural schools, pressure of farm duties, and irregularity of attendance on the part of pupils, it is generally conceded that measurable progress has been made in the field of rural education among the colored people of the south; and that the Jeanes fund deserves credit for the advancement of these schools. A recent study of "Rural Elementary Education among Negroes under Jeanes Supervising Teachers," by Dr. Caliver, has been published through the United States Office of Education. The author introduces his study with the statement that "the Jeanes work has grown until at present there are 339 supervising teachers. They have promoted many diverse enterprises, but their most important contribution has been in stimulating and encouraging the

1. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin 1933, No. 5: Rural Elementary Education among Negroes under Jeanes Supervising Teachers (Caliver)
colored people to become interested in better schools, and in soliciting and maintaining co-operation in a program of educational development for Negroes."

The study estimates improvement on the basis of school attendance; status of teachers; administrative and supervisory practices in the rural schools for Negroes; buildings and equipment. The general trend of rural education, viewed in the light of statistics, is that of accomplishment mainly along the lines of the improved status of teachers in elementary schools as evidenced in the following data:

"The training of the Negro teachers of rural elementary schools under Jeanes teachers increases markedly with the size of the school. The average for the entire group is about one year of college training.

"Negro rural teachers are beginning to make use of some of the newer devices in the promotion of the education of their pupils. Psychological examination and standardized objective tests were used, respectively, by thirteen and nineteen per cent. of the schools. Twenty-four per cent. of the teachers made some provision for individual differences."

1. Bulletin 1933, No. 5: Rural Elementary Education among Negroes under Jeanes Supervising Teachers (U. S. Office of Education)
The following table presents the range of activities in the field of individual differences.

### TABLE IX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Provision</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grouping and sectioning</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adapting courses and methods</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervised study</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased load</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra time</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual help</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social recognition</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number replying</strong></td>
<td><strong>169</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dr. Caliver also presents facts bearing upon recent developments in library facilities for Negro rural elementary schools. He mentions that "library facilities for Negro children in rural areas are (still) very meager. However, better prepared teachers, more modern methods, stimulation and aid from state and other agencies are beginning to have an influence in improving the school library situation for colored children."¹

Other evidences of improved teacher status were derived in this study from an investigation of the cultural interests of

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¹. Bulletin 1933, No. 5, U. S. Office of Education: Rural Elementary Education among Negroes under Jeanes Supervising Teachers (Caliver)
Jeanes supervised teachers; of their attendance at educational meetings and reading of professional literature. Considering the second of these indices of growth, Dr. Caliver has classified reading interests into five groups. The first group includes "such journals as The Instructor, Grade Teacher, and Primary Education; the second group, journals and organs of educational associations; the third, School Life; the fourth, magazines of a general nature having some educational bearing; the fifth group, miscellaneous works."\(^1\)

The majority of these cases fall within groups one and two; the smallest number of cases, within groups three and five. Meager as the results prove to be, the author of this study concludes that "Negro teachers under Jeanes supervisors, when their circumstances are considered, are endeavoring to advance themselves professionally."\(^2\)

The Jeanes worker, then, is an important factor of the rural situation in the south. Viewed in the light of statistics, results in the field of Negro education are meager. Yet, when interpreted in the light of difficulties encountered throughout the period of public education in this region, certain vital is-

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2. Ibid.
sues are involved. We cannot ignore the fact that, compared with the unsupervised group of Negro rural teachers, achievement of Jeanes-supervised workers commands recognition. Secondly, the Jeanes worker, through directed activities, better administrative measures, acquaintance with modern educational theory and practice, stimulation of professional interest, has proved her capacity for efficient guidance of rural school pupils.

The Influence of Recent Social Change on Rural Education

The rapid growth of cities in the United States was responsible for the emphasis on vocational training that became an obsession of rural school leaders during the first decade and a half of the twentieth century. However, opposition to the movement began late in the second decade of the century. "The efforts to vocationalize education in the rural schools were carried to unreasonable lengths, and the whole course of study was planned in the interest of agriculture and rural life. A series of farm text-books was developed, so that rural children received all of their education in terms of rural materials. Their readers became 'farm readers' and their arithmetic was based
solely on the needs of farm accounting. Since the text-book organization was the course of study, farm children were being exposed solely to an indoctrination process set up for the purpose of predisposing them to the farm and of definitely preparing them for farm work.¹

The ideals inherent in this objective were antagonistic to the concept of democratic education, at that time, owing to the influence of John Dewey, being incorporated into the theory and practice of elementary schools. The "farm" curriculum emphasized class education; limited the activities of country children to a narrow sphere. Industrial achievement at this period was proceeding at so rapid a rate in removing the isolation of rural people that the "country life" movement was obliged to undergo modification. The old idea of "rural education as education of country folks in the country, for the country" gradually lost influence with leaders in the field of education.

In 1919, Lee L. Driver wrote that "whatever may have been its standard in the past, conditions have changed so rapidly that they are now vitally different; the demands made by society being so much greater, the home calling for a more cultivated

¹ Wofford, Kate V.: Modern Education in the Small Rural School--The Macmillan Company--1938
family, business necessitating more efficient management. ¹

These changed conditions comprised in the main democratic living, and gave impetus to the progressive trend of a project curriculum; to the need for cultural as well as vocational training of the ideal citizen. The three R's had long been discarded as the basis of an elementary school curriculum; the "enriched content" theory had been interpreted in too practical a way; had been concerned more with preparation for adulthood than with the child's immediate needs and interests. The concept of "experiencing" became the major principle of elementary education, urban as well as rural. Leaders in the field of rural education insisted on curricular changes for elementary school pupils that would advance this standard.

"The rural course of study," in the words of Katherine M. Cook, "must be an organization of experiences in the children's lives, in the school and out of school, in relation to their needs. Country children have language needs, arithmetic needs, geography needs, which are just as apparent and definite and practical as are those of city children; probably more so.....

The elementary school in the country.....should be neither voca-

tional nor cultural solely; rather it should be appreciative in
its aim."

It is worthy of note in connection with this newer trend that the colored rural elementary school was not immediately
influenced by changes affecting education near the close of the
second decade of the twentieth century. As a matter of fact the
isolation of districts, the inferior status of teachers, together with outmoded administrative measures, tended to extend
traditionalism into a much later period. More drastic modes of
stimulation were needed to awaken supervisors and school boards
to the need for conformity to universally accepted standards.

In one respect, however, the Negro rural schools showed
progress. From the beginning of their direction of these
schools, the Jeanes workers had introduced "activities" that may
truthfully be classified as purposeful and "life-related."
These experiences were limited to Health Education and to in-
dustrial occupations of the home. It was largely in their
methods of Health Education that the newer techniques of teach-
ing were applied. Health habits based on the needs of the
group were taught in life situations; school lunches were pre-

1. N.E.A. Proceedings 1919: Course of Study Reorganized (Katherine
   M. Cook)
pared according to dietary rules; clinical treatment of physical
defects was offered; follow-up measures were prescribed and car-
rried out under trained inspectors. Recreation as a corrective
of physical and emotional handicap involved many of the aims and
practices of physical education in progressive schools.

"Although this activity has varied with the variation in
individual talent, most Jeanes teachers have at least made their
contribution through campaigns for the establishment of health
clinics, prenatal clinics, greater cleanliness, attention to
hair, physical examinations of children, and correction of eye
defects. From the beginning the schools were run on unconven-
tional principles."1

1. The Jeanes Fund and the Jeanes Teacher, Pub. John F. Slater
Fund, 1936—726 Jackson Place, N. W., Washington, D. C.
The child-centered aim contained within the "projects" and purposeful activities of the third decade of the century has continued to influence elementary education in spite of varied social and economic conditions. Merriam, in "Child Life and the Curriculum" and Collings in "An Experiment with a Project Curriculum" were early exponents of the theory. Their works appeared respectively in 1920 and 1923 and illustrate the utilization of essentially rural areas in their scheme. Rugg and Shumaker have probably made the clearest exposition of the child-centered concept in their classic treatment, published in 1928. Rural education must necessarily be affected by a reform which has been widely tested in country schools. The emphasis of the movement on curriculum-making as "a shared responsibility" is mainly responsible for the recent attempts in agricultural states to revise their course of study in conformity with modern standards.

In Georgia retardation of the reform in Negro rural schools is due to shifts in the population as well as to economic depression. The latter influence caused wide-spread migration of unemployed colored men and their families to mid-western industrial centers. Yet, the decrease of population from this

source has been greatly exaggerated. Statistics affirm that "two-thirds of the Negro population still live in the rural centers." More recently there has been a shift from urban migration to the country—an influence toward the recognition of rural centers as subsistence areas. Stabilization is demanded. The present direction of educational thought among leaders in this state is toward improvement through the school's acceptance of teaching materials and methods related to "the persistent problems of living" of Georgia people.

The direct outgrowth of this objective is the program for the improvement of instruction in Georgia, built upon the democratic principle and inclusive of all levels of learning. "Many representative laymen, administrators, and teachers in public schools and colleges of the state have had a hand in it. It does not propose to reorganize the curriculum of the schools, but rather to give direction and meaning to public education, and to guide the efforts of teachers to improve instruction."2

The guide to curriculum reorganization selects as the basis of the program values derived from the peculiar needs of the inhabitants of Georgia and from the natural advantages of

the state. These needs and the utilization of resources constitute "the persistent problems of living" outlined in the guide. The scope of the curriculum is shown in the attached Scope Chart.

In determining the trend of rural education in Georgia, mention should be made also of an encouraging sign of advancement that is being shown in the interaction of elementary and high school education in the south to-day.

Dr. Caliver, in "Secondary Education for Negroes," presents statistical data bearing on the recent advancement of secondary education in sixteen southern states. Of interest in the present study of the Negro rural elementary school are the following statements:

1. Two-thirds of the high schools have been started since the beginning of the World War.

2. Eighty-six per cent. of the accredited schools have been accredited since 1920.

3. The past fifteen years have been the period of greatest growth in secondary education for Negroes.

4. During the period the percentage of increase of colored pupils has exceeded that of white pupils.

1. Georgia is a member of the group. The facts recorded apply equally to each of the sixteen states.
Other data from the report disclose the fact that in the southern states surveyed there were fifteen schools for higher training in 1866; 800 in 1930—a gain of 785. From the point of view of elementary education in these areas it is of interest that the increase in high school enrollment is of recent date. As high school enrollment is dependent on the completion of an elementary school course, corresponding gains in the basal studies are presupposed. That these gains have taken place in recent years is evidence of the subtle influences implicit in the newer educational concepts.

The Present Status of Supervision in Negro Rural Schools

Aside from Jeans supervision of Negro rural schools in the south, direction of teaching activities in country districts is not organized in a way to promote measurable improvement of those workers who, because they are traditionalists or of inferior educational status, stand pre-eminently in need of guidance. Three outstanding means of correcting this deficiency have recently been developed. First among them is supervision through the office of a county or a state superintendent of schools.
The techniques adopted by state departments of education comprise visitation of schools, directed teaching, uniform courses of study for elementary schools, and curriculum revision by representatives of the various school districts. In the majority of the southern states, this authority is delegated to special supervisors. In Georgia the department of education appoints as directors of Negro teachers a state agent, an assistant state agent, and a Negro assistant. Through these agencies workers in the most remote areas are reached by means of conferences, Teachers Institutes, demonstrations, and visitation, the conference proving the most general technique employed. Visitation of teachers singly is not wide-reaching in its influence.

The second plan for the in-service direction of teachers in Georgia necessitates the attendance of these workers at summer sessions of state normal schools and teachers' colleges or at extension courses. Frequently, provision is made for the admission of in-service teachers to normal schools or colleges during a quarter or semester of the regular school term. The extension class has recently gained in recognition. The train-
ing offered in these courses is, in the main, academic, the background of the majority of Negro rural teachers demanding a review of "fundamentals" in high schools. In addition to this requirement, however, opportunity is afforded at the same time for "majoring" in Education, frequently with the privilege of observation or actual practice-teaching in laboratory schools. The work of extension classes in Education is theoretical rather than practical.

The third and most recent agency for improving instruction in the Negro rural schools of Georgia is that of curriculum revision—a cooperative measure that gives promise of contributing efficiently to the reorganization of the program in colored schools along lines of progressive teaching. The effort "represents the thinking and plans of a hundred or more teachers, principals, and superintendents of schools of Georgia working together for a period of three years as individuals, committees, and informal groups. Suggestions are made for meeting community needs; for evaluating new school programs; and for presenting simple and practical beginning steps for new programs in smaller rural schools and in secondary schools."

1. Georgia Program for the Improvement of Instruction, Bulletin No. 2; May, 1937; State Department of Education, Atlanta, Ga.
As a result of the combined effort of these groups, a curricular guide has evolved that presents definite procedures for elementary school-teachers throughout the state. These courses of study have become basal text-books in Elementary Education in the principal teacher-training centers of Georgia.

III

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In summarizing the results of this study, the following data appear to be significant.

1. The general trend of elementary education in America is still child-centered, with an increasing emphasis, however, on a saner application of the progressive theory. Country schools, although late in adopting progressive principles, recognize the peculiar advantages of the new education for rural workers.

2. Public education in the south, especially in the administration of Negro rural schools, has remained largely traditional, mainly because of difficulties almost insurmountable in improving the educational standard of this region. These difficulties comprise the south's peculiar economic problems,
the inaccessibility of school districts, inadequate buildings and equipment, and employment of inferior teachers.

3. In spite of obstacles encountered, influences in the direction of conformity with recent standards indicate a gradual acceptance of changes in the organization of these schools.

   a. The first influence of note is that of Jeanes supervision, a force that still controls largely the efficiency and the progress of Negro rural education.

   b. Recent social and industrial changes also govern the status of the colored rural schools in this section.

      (1) The vocational concept of rural education introduced into Negro schools improvements that extended to the home and to the community.

      (2) Cultural aims, to which vocationalization gave place, reveal the influence of the progressive school through indications of the improved status of the Negro rural teacher: her greater efficiency as measured by higher certification requirements, in-service training, reading interests, and a gradual adoption of the newer techniques of measurement and of guidance.
c. Curriculum reorganization in Georgia is an encouraging sign of improved opportunities. The state leaders in education to-day accept as fundamental to the success of their schools the democratic ideal; the concept of a functional program; and the utilization in curricular developments for all schools of Georgia's "persistent problems."

4. Measurable progress of Negro rural schools in Georgia is as yet rudimentary. Recent indications of achievement that lends itself to objective treatment appear in statistics dealing with the rapid increase in number and efficiency of high schools for colored pupils. This information is significant because of the bearing that it has on the interrelationship of elementary and secondary education.

Recommendations

1. Recommendations lie in the direction of improved supervision of Negro rural schools in Georgia, mainly through State Teachers Colleges, Institutes, Demonstration Centers, and similar agencies for in-service and pre-service training. Provision must be made for directed observation and supervised
teaching of in-service workers; for "a type of teacher-training that relates itself to present-day realities and problems;... for a well-organized system of creative supervision emphasizing teacher-growth, desirable pupil-growth, and the improvement of classroom instruction."
III. Performing the responsibilities of citizenship.

1. Forming, through performing, habits of citizenship.
2. Investigating and employing the principles and practices of government to means of communication and transportation.
3. Making individual contributions to public interests.
4. Recognizing education as an agency for the improvement of communica

IV. Utilizing and controlling the facilities of citizenship.

1. Establishing habits of health and safety.
2. Recognizing education as an agency for the protection of life and property.
3. Preserving and creating beauty in the physical world, in great men, in our civilization and culture.
4. Forming, through performing, habits of citizenship.

LATER ELEMENTARY

Chart of the Scope of the Curriculum

- Pre-School
- Early Childhood
- Lower Elementary
- Upper Elementary
- Adult Education

- Understanding how other civilizations and other groups can aid in aesthetic and spiritual growth.
- Forming, through performing, habits of citizenship.
- Preserving and creating beauty in the natural environment.
- Preserving and creating beauty in the natural environment.
- Understanding the significance of education in a democratic society.
- Understanding the significance of education in a democratic society.
- Understanding the significance of education in a democratic society.
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Approved by:

M.F. Martinson

Robert W. Lindsay

Thesis Committee

Date: June 1940